

**PURPOSE MATTERS TO LEADERS
AT A PERSONAL AND COMPANY LEVEL**

by

JODI LEIGH BERG

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Weatherhead School of Management

Designing Sustainable Systems

CASE WESTERN RESERVE UNIVERSITY

May, 2017

CASE WESTERN RESERVE UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

We hereby approve the thesis/dissertation of

Jodi Leigh Berg

Candidate for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy*.

Committee Chair

Richard Boyatzis, Ph.D., Case Western Reserve University

Committee Member

Diana Bilimoria, Ph.D., Case Western Reserve University

Committee Member

Kathleen Buse, Ph.D., Case Western Reserve University

Committee Member

Ellen Van Oosten, Ph.D., Case Western Reserve University

Date of Defense

December 2, 2016

*We also certify that written approval has been obtained
for any proprietary material contained therein.

© Jodi Leigh Berg, 2017

All rights reserved.

Dedication

This body of work is dedicated to all the people living with purpose. May your purpose be your compass and create the energy you need to make the difference in this world only you can create.

Table of Contents

List of Tables	ix
List of Figures	x
Abstract	xii
CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION AND FRAMEWORK.....	1
Introduction	1
Research Framing.....	7
Overview of Mixed Methods Design	10
Overview of Three Phases.....	12
Theory and Literature Review.....	14
Motivation.....	15
Self-Determination.....	16
Engagement.....	16
Organizational Commitment.....	18
Life Satisfaction	19
Purpose.....	20
Personal Purpose.....	20
Company Purpose and Company Higher Purpose.....	22
Relationships and a Relational Climate/Culture around Shared Vision	23
Transformational and Transactional Leadership	24
CHAPTER II: QUALITATIVE PHASE ON THE RELATABILITY OF PURPOSE....	28
Introduction	28
Research Question.....	29
Literature Review	30
Motivation and Engagement.....	30
Connecting Purpose to Motivation, Engagement, and Performance	31
Company Vision and its Connection to Motivation, Engagement, and Performance	32
Relationships.....	33
Method	35
Sample.....	40
Results	41
Reference Context.....	42

Primary Motivational Driver.....	44
Temporal Perspective.....	46
Life Work Integration versus Separation	47
Discussion	49
Reference Context.....	50
Primary Motivational Driver.....	51
Temporal Perspective.....	52
Life Work Integration versus Separation	54
Implications for Practice	55
Future Research.....	57
Limitations	58
Conclusion.....	59
CHAPTER III: THE IMPACT OF INDIVIDUAL AND COMPANY PURPOSE	61
Introduction	61
Theory and Hypotheses.....	62
Engagement.....	63
Organizational Commitment.....	64
Life Satisfaction	64
Personal Purpose.....	65
Company Higher Purpose	66
Relational Climate	66
Method	67
Measures.....	68
Personal Purpose.....	68
Company Higher Purpose	68
Relational Climate	69
Job Engagement	70
Life Satisfaction	70
Organizational Commitment.....	70
Results	71
Measurement Model	71
Reliability and Validity.....	73
Structural Model	74
Discussion	77

Limitations	80
Future Research.....	81
Conclusion.....	82
CHAPTER IV: THE IMPACT OF BOTH INDIVIDUAL AND PERCIEVED COMPANY HIGHER PURPOSE AND TRANSFORMATIONAL ORIENTATION ...	84
Introduction	84
Theoretical Framework	86
Company Higher Purpose	86
Personal Purpose.....	87
Transformational Orientation.....	88
Engagement.....	89
Organizational Commitment.....	90
Research Question.....	91
Hypotheses	91
The Impact of Personal Purpose and Company Purpose	91
Transformational Orientation.....	92
Method	95
Measures.....	96
Job Engagement	96
Organizational Commitment.....	96
Personal Purpose.....	96
Company Higher Purpose	97
Transformational Orientation.....	97
Indices	100
Data Analysis	102
Results	104
Discussion	111
Implications and Future Research	118
Limitations	121
CHAPTER V: GENERAL DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND CONCLUSION .	123
Discussion	123
Engagement and Organizational Commitment.....	125
Relational Climate around Shared Vision.....	127
Motivation.....	128

Transactional and Transformational Leadership	130
Limitations	133
Future Research.....	136
Conclusion.....	138
Appendix A: Likert Scales used in Quantitative Phases.....	142
Appendix B: Factor Loadings for Phase Two.....	145
Appendix C: Measurement Model for Phase Two	146
Appendix D: Survey to Develop Transformational and Transactional Words.....	147
Appendix E: Survey Questions for Selecting Transformational and Transactional Words.....	148
Appendix F: Factor Loadings for Phase Three	149
Appendix H: Regression Weights and P-value for Phase 3: Hypotheses 1a&b	151
References.....	152

List of Tables

Table 1. Elements that Represent Three Components of Transformational Leadership ...	7
Table 2. Sample Responses by Group	39
Table 3. Descriptors Applied to Sample	40
Table 4. Mean, Standard Deviations, Number of Variables, Cronbach's Alphas	72
Table 5. Validity and Reliability	73
Table 6. Summary of Direct Effects	75
Table 7. R ² Comparisons for Dependent Variable	76
Table 8. Summary of Mediated Effects	77
Table 9. Demographics of Participants	95
Table 10. Transformational and Transactional Words Used in the Survey	99
Table 11. Transformational and Transactional Indices	101
Table 12. Mean, Standard Deviations, Number of Variables, Cronbach's Alphas	105
Table 13. Hierarchical Linear Regression Results	106
Table 14. Analysis Results	107
Table 15. Transformational and Transactional Indices by Company	111

List of Figures

Figure 1. Conceptual Framework	9
Figure 2. Mixed Methods Approach.....	12
Figure 3. Mapping of Research Questions to Research Design.....	14
Figure 4. Themes that Emerged from the Qualitative Phase	42
Figure 5. Hypothesized Model.....	63
Figure 6. Structural Model with Standardized Regression Weights for Direct Effects....	75
Figure 7. Standardized Regression Weight Comparison	76
Figure 8. Structural Equation Model Showing Moderation.....	103

Acknowledgements

I had no idea it would take a village to prepare for and write a dissertation. But alas, it does. I am forever grateful for my village made up of family, advisors, committee, professors, fellow students and the wonderful companies that allowed me to interview their leaders.

A very special thank you to my husband Frank, daughters Emily, Sydney, and my sister Beth for encouraging me to pursue my dream and supporting me through the process.

Purpose Matters to Leaders at a Personal and Company Level

Abstract

by

JODI LEIGH BERG

According to Gallup (Adkins, 2015), less than 33% of the U.S. workforce feel engaged at work. Much of the traditional research on engagement as well as commitment has been on external drivers that are not personal, e.g. compensation, training, sharing of the company's vision and strategy. This study joins the growing body of work on antecedents that *are* personal by exploring the impact of purpose.

One of the key findings is that senior leaders can identify with their personal purpose and recognize how it aligns with their company's higher purpose, albeit in two distinctly different ways. This alignment is either through a task focused or socio-emotional lens, affecting how they make decisions around engagement, commitment and life satisfaction. This study also empirically demonstrates that companies can increase engagement and commitment by not only creating and sharing a company *higher* purpose vision—one that is about more than profits, but by helping employees identify their personal purpose. Employees with a personal purpose are even more engaged than when they perceive their company to have a higher purpose—with the greatest impact being when both exist. The future focused and altruistic elements of purpose are also components of a transformational leadership style. Transformational and transactional

orientation indices demonstrate that individuals and companies tend to have an orientation towards either being transformational or transactional in nature. This research demonstrates that purpose does matter as well as contributing to the extant literature on motivation, self-determination and the relational climate around sharing a company vision.

Keywords: Personal purpose; company higher purpose; transformational; transactional; engagement; company commitment; life satisfaction; relational climate

Paper Type: Qualitative and Quantitative

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION AND FRAMEWORK

Introduction

The role of a corporate leader is complex as they work to keep their organization relevant, sustainable and profitable in an ever-increasing competitive environment. Not only are they competing for market share and sales, but they are competing to attract and retain high performing employees. Leaders within an organization are doing everything from making meaning of situations, helping assure solid decisions are made, coordinating activities, ensuring compliance, and persuading others to act...to instilling a vision (Bass & Bass, 2008).

The number of scholars that have defined the purpose of a leader or leadership is extensive and understandably the definitions have evolved and changed over time. Most definitions include some version of a leader's purpose or the purpose of leadership as facilitating individuals or a group to achieve a common goal. The following quotes about leaders and leadership from 1928 through 2008 illustrate this common theme (Bass & Bass, 2008: 20–21).

“A leader is a person who has a program and is moving toward an objective with his group in a definite manner.” — Cowley, 1928

“The principal dynamic force that motivates and coordinates the organization in the accomplishment of its objectives.” — R. C. Davis, 1942

“The personification of the common purpose not only to all who work on the undertaking, but to everyone outside it.” — Urwich, 1953

“The process of arranging a situation so that various members of a group, including the leader, can achieve common goals with maximum economy and a minimum of time and work.” — Bellows, 1959

“The process in which an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal.” — Northouse, 2001

“Leaders are agents of change, whose acts affect other people more than other people’s acts affect them.” — Bass, 2008

Whereas in most definitions the *purpose* of leadership comes through with a common theme of getting individuals to achieve a goal, there does not appear to be a common theme around the *way* leaders motivate people. A traditional perspective of leadership is that the leader gets the job done by making people do a job through a system of punishments or rewards. Dangling a carrot or wielding a big stick is very transactional in nature with a clear exchange of something explicit. A transactional style of motivating people to accomplish goals works well when the task is clearly defined, multiple people do the same thing – thus not allowing for people to choose their behavior, and the time between the desired activity and reward or punishment is short. Until the 1970s, most leadership theory and empirical work was still focused on this transactional side of leadership even though as early as 1922 Freud acknowledged that the transactional exchange was only part of what leadership was all about (Bass & Bass, 2008).

It isn’t until recently that this focus expanded beyond the transactional exchange with the first mention of transformational leadership occurring in the early 1970s (Bass & Bass, 2008). A transformational leader is defined by Burns (1978) as having three key elements that are future and other-directed; 1) help individuals achieve self-actualization; or doing what one is fitted to do (Maslow, 1943), 2) create an awareness and appreciation for the greater needs and interests of people, and 3) create an awareness and appreciation for bigger outcome and desired end result.

Burns original theory establishes transactional and transformational as being two ends on a spectrum from a short term and goal-driven perspective to a future and purpose

driven orientation. In 1985, Bass establishes a multi-dimensional theory of transformational and transactional leadership. Burns and Bass agree on the difference in orientation between the two as being task versus purpose focused, having a short term versus longer term perspective and driving hedonic (pleasure) versus eudemonic (well-being) happiness. Yet Bass (1985) demonstrates that they are not on the opposite ends of a spectrum but multi-dimensional in nature. It is now understood that transformational and transactional leadership represent a categorization of different styles leaders use to motivate individuals and the most appropriate style may depend on the situation (Bass, 1985).

It is expected that there are circumstances when it is critical that a transactional style of leadership—in which individuals are expected to comply with the directions, tasks, and goals established by the leader—is necessary. Examples of such might be a complicated military maneuver or a complex and highly precise operation. Research is now revealing that although both styles may be appropriate based on the situation, a transformational leadership style is more effective when a rigid structure is not required. A more transformational leadership style is positively correlated with financial performance, performance ratings and higher church attendance (Bass, 1990). In all three settings, the individual's being led or influenced have choices as to whether to stay involved and or participate in the process. They have a choice to stay engaged and committed to their job or supervisor in the first two examples and their church in the last example. Therefore, although there may be situations in which a transactional style is necessary, a transformational style of leadership is more effective in situations in which individuals have a choice to be engaged and stay involved.

Increasing the level of engagement and the desire of one's employees to stay involved is receiving quite a bit of attention these days. This focus is justified as it has been shown that companies with employees experiencing greater levels of engagement perform better than companies whose employees are not as engaged (Macey & Schneider, 2008), and commitment is tied to retention (Boyatzis, Smith, & Beveridge, 2012; Cardador, Dane, & Pratt, 2011; Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). Employee commitment to the organization, connection to its purpose, and engagement at work are all cited as reasons people stay with a company (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Kapoor & Meachem, 2012). Clearly, engagement and commitment are important; yet according to the 2014 Gallup Poll (Adkins, 2015), less than 33% of the U.S. workforce feel engaged with their work and even more distressing is that the percentage has not moved very much in 12 years (Beck & Harter, 2014). Recognizing that engagement and commitment positively impact performance and retention does not appear to be enough. Much of the traditional research on engagement as well as commitment has been on external drivers that are not personal, e.g. compensation, training, sharing of the company's vision and strategy.

This study joins the growing body of work on antecedents to engagement and organizational commitment that *are* personal by exploring the impact of purpose. The gap may be the understanding of, and the relationship between, personal purpose and company purpose and how these variables impact engagement, commitment and the perception of a company's orientation towards being transformational. The three fundamental differences between a transactional and transformational leadership style are temporal perspective (short versus long term), motivational driver (extrinsic versus

intrinsic), and the type of satisfaction (happiness from pleasure versus satisfaction associated with well-being) (Bass, 1990). The relationship each has on engagement and commitment is not well understood. Understanding the core elements of a transactional versus transformational style could open up the possibility of applying these styles to a broader orientation at the individual and corporate cultural level.

Prior research provides a framework for studying these core elements. People are highly motivated and engaged when achieving something that is personal and meaningful (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, & Taris, 2008; Boyatzis & Akrivou, 2006; Cardador et al., 2011; Duffy & Dik, 2013; Elangovan, Pinder, & McLean, 2010; Novak, 1996). The more personal and meaningful - the more intrinsic the motivation is (Deci & Ryan, 2008). This may reveal a disconnect between the motivational drivers of transactional versus transformational leadership as it is *now* understood that embracing someone else's vision may very well motivate an individual for a while, but its effect is not as strong as being intrinsically motivated—and it is not very sustainable (Ryan & Deci, 2000a). One can be perfectly content working towards someone else's goal or objectives until they realize that their personal dreams are being compromised because this "ought self" does not match their ideal self (Boyatzis & Akrivou, 2006).

Purpose is not only more personal in nature, but it is also future-oriented. The definition of purpose is something that is desired that one is striving for or trying to attain (Merriam-Webster, 2016a). And although it is not automatically so, a purpose can also be other-directed and about more than short-term personal pleasure, referred to by some as an authentic purpose (Keyes, 2011). These two elements, temporal orientation, and type of satisfaction, will be elaborated on more as the different kinds of purpose are examined.

This study explores two types of purpose - personal purpose and company purpose, and a third factor—cultural orientation towards sharing purpose, which may be a key element to understanding how personal purpose and company purpose are connected. A personal purpose contains elements of moving towards self-actualization by striving for something that is personally meaningful. A company higher purpose contains elements of creating awareness and appreciation for the greater needs and interests of others. The connector between the two in a business setting seems to be a company culture or company orientation towards sharing the company's vision or purpose.

Company culture itself is very broad, includes multiple elements that are often implicit (Arogyaswamy & Byles, 1987; Schwartz & Davis, 1981), and defines the characteristics, beliefs, and expectations that influence different behaviors such as creativity, innovation, communication, strategy and alignment (Reilly, 2008). Because this study is focusing on how personal purpose and company purpose are connected, a narrow aspect of company culture—the relational climate around a company vision/purpose—is used.

Personal purpose, which is meaningful and future directed, is an important component of understanding and making meaning of one's full potential (Boyatzis & Akrivou, 2006) or achieving self-actualization. A company *higher* purpose is altruistic in nature, and also future-directed, so it logically creates an awareness and appreciation for both the needs and interests of others and the end result. A company higher purpose is not effective unless it is shared and understood, so the company's cultural orientation towards sharing its vision, or future oriented purpose, is also relevant to creating this

awareness and appreciation. These three elements and how they connect to the three objectives of transformational leaders are listed in Table 1.

Table 1. Elements that Represent Three Components of Transformational Leadership

Transformational Leadership	Element to be Evaluated
Help individuals achieve self-actualization	Personal purpose
Create awareness and appreciation for the greater needs and interests of others	Company higher purpose Company cultural orientation
Create awareness and appreciation for the end result	Company cultural orientation Company higher purpose

The premise of this study is that personal purpose, company higher purpose, and company cultural orientation, which also reflect the underlining elements of transformational leadership, will help expand the understanding of not only purpose from the individual and company perspective, but how the elements of transformational leadership might be applied to an individual's, and company's cultural, orientation.

Research Framing

The overarching research purpose of this study is to 1) explore the phenomenon of personal purpose and how senior leaders relate their personal purpose to their company's purpose, 2) assess the individual and combined impact personal purpose and a company higher purpose has on various company and personal outcomes and 3) explore the creation of indices to extend elements of transformational leadership to an individual's, and a company's cultural, orientation.

Before something can be made personal, or an individual can connect to a future vision in a personal way, it is necessary to verify that individuals are able to articulate what is personal to them. Therefore, the first phase of this research study sets out to

understand if employees at the senior manager level can articulate a personal purpose, see an alignment between an organization's vision and their personal purpose and connect to their company's purpose in a way that makes it personally meaningful to them as an individual.

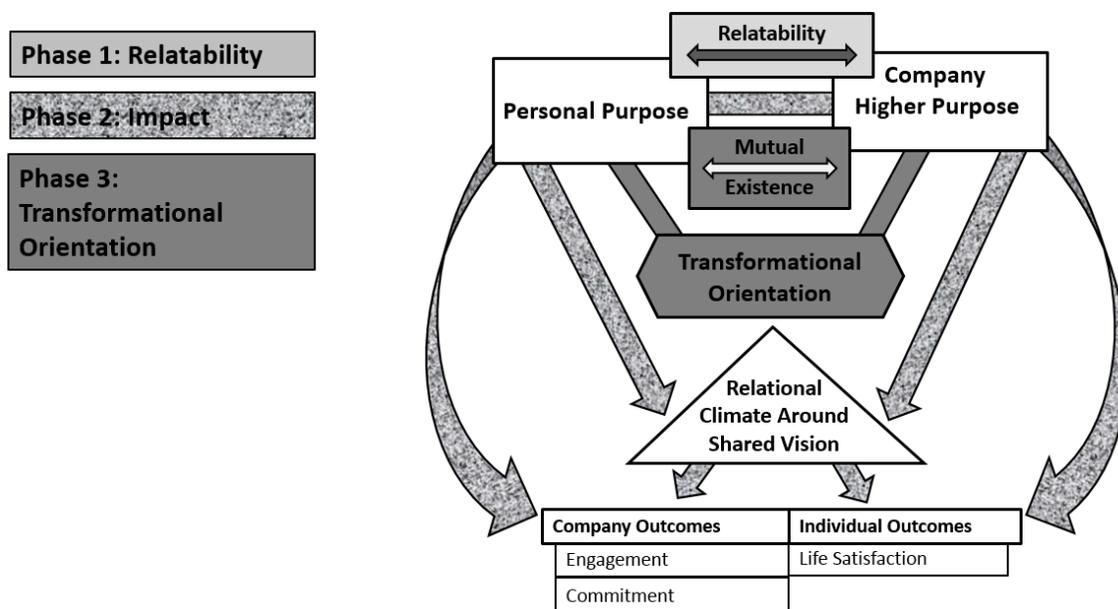
Knowing how people identify with their own purpose in life and connect this purpose to their company's purpose, helps build the foundation for the next phase of this study. A quantitative survey is then used to understand the impact of having a personal purpose and a company having a higher purpose has on engagement, commitment, and life satisfaction.

The third phase is built upon the learnings from the first two studies to understand if the existence of both an employee having a personal purpose and their perception that the company has a higher purpose has an effect on engagement and organizational commitment. This phase also explores the connection between transformational leadership and purpose—both personal and company—and creates indices to allow these elements to be measured on the individual level and within an organization in relation to a perceived cultural orientation. This connection is explored by seeing 1) if employees that have a personal purpose use a higher proportion of transformational words to describe themselves, 2) when an individual perceives their company as having a higher purpose, do they also perceive their company as having a transformational orientation and 3) if organizations have an orientation towards being either transformational or transactional, can the degree to which this exists be measured with an index.

Each phase builds upon the prior research to go deeper into the understanding of purpose and cultural orientation. Figure 1 illustrates the conceptual model including:

1. Phase 1 - Exploring the relatability of a personal purpose to a company purpose,
2. Phase 2 - Understanding the impact personal purpose and a company higher purpose have on company and individual outcomes with the mediating effect of a relational climate around shared vision and
3. Phase 3 - Understanding the effect of the mutual existence of a personal purpose and a company higher purpose on engagement, commitment and an individual's orientation as well as a company's orientation toward a transformational culture.

Figure 1. Conceptual Framework



The first phase is a qualitative study designed to explore how personal purpose and company higher purpose relate to each other from the perception of senior leaders in for-profit organizations.

The second phase utilizes a quantitative survey that refines the personal purpose construct, and tests a new construct for company higher purpose that is then used to understand the impact of these reflective variables on the company outcomes of engagement and organizational commitment and the individual outcome of life

satisfaction. Engagement and organizational commitment are considered company outcomes because, even though they are measured through the perception of the individual, they are empirically proven to impact company performance. The individual outcome that is explored in this phase is life satisfaction.

The third phase is a quantitative phase designed to understand the impact on the company outcomes of engagement and organizational commitment when both personal purpose and a company higher purpose exist and uses word selection data to explore different indices that measure cultural orientation.

Overview of Mixed Methods Design

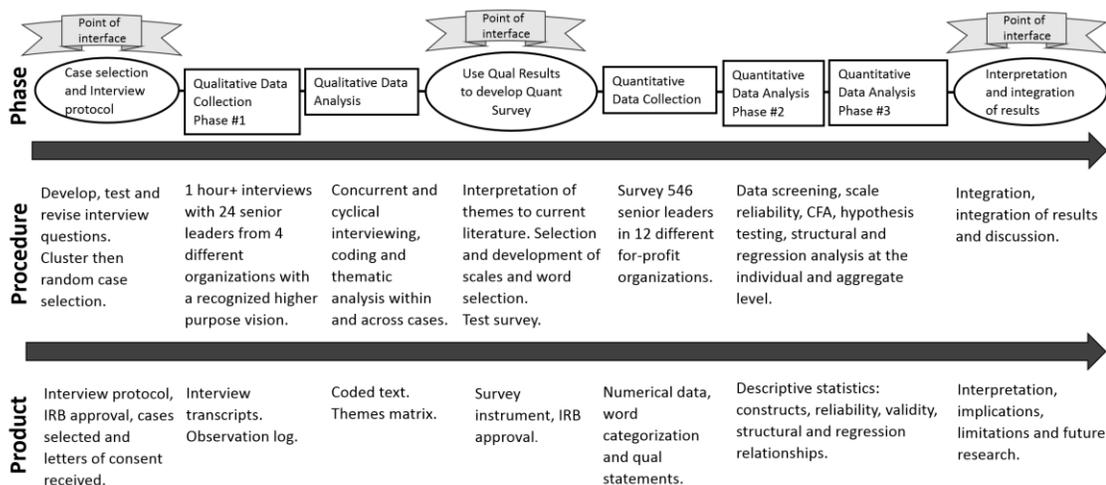
Because understanding if a symbiotic relationship and/or purpose alignment between a personal purpose and a company purpose can be identified, and the impact this could have, is subjective and relatively unexplored, a sequential and typological mixed methods study is used (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989; Hall & Howard, 2008). A sequential and systematic approach of a qualitative and quantitative typology (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2011) is applied with the expectation that the synergy of three different research questions will bring greater depth and validity than only one question and one research technique (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007).

The qualitative approach supports exploration and allows themes, patterns and theories to emerge that then support the development of a survey that quantifies the impact of various variables, creating a coherent and more robust story. Combining qualitative and quantitative techniques allows for the exploration of the social world through multiple methodologies (Greene et al., 1989); weaving a common thread of

language (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004) through three studies that are theoretically driven from one overarching research question (Morse, 1991).

A mixed methods approach is also important because the concepts of purpose and extending transformational and transactional leadership characteristics to an individual and cultural orientation are still quite undefined. The intended audience is both scholars who rightfully expect the rigor of an empirical study, as well as practitioners who like to understand not only the impact on outcomes that affect them directly, but how to apply the learnings—which is enhanced by including a more subjective and qualitative approach. The three phases of the study interface at three critical junctures. The structure is designed up front, but not all of the elements of each phase, allowing for exploration, interpretation, and quantification of the overarching research purpose. Second, the results and themes that emerge from the qualitative phase are used to develop the quantitative survey for phase 2 and 3. And finally, the results from all three phases are interpreted and integrated to make a meaningful contribution to the understanding of purpose and a transformational orientation. A diagram of the mixed methods approach with the procedures and outcomes of each phase is illustrated and summarized in Figure 2.

Figure 2. Mixed Methods Approach



Overview of Three Phases

The overarching research purpose and specific research questions explored in each strand of this study are:

Overarching Research Purpose: Explore personal purpose and how leaders relate to their company’s purpose, assess the individual and combined impact of personal purpose and a company higher purpose on various outcomes and explore the creation of indices to extend transformational elements to an individual’s, and a company’s cultural, orientation.

Phase 1: Qualitative: What role does personal purpose play in how people relate to their company purpose?

Phase 2: Quantitative: What impact does personal purpose, a company higher purpose and a relational climate around shared vision have on engagement, life satisfaction and organizational commitment?

Phase 3: Quantitative: What impact does having both a personal purpose *and* a company higher purpose have on engagement and commitment and what is the relationship between personal purpose and a company higher purpose on an individual’s

transformational orientation and a company's orientation toward a transformational cultural?

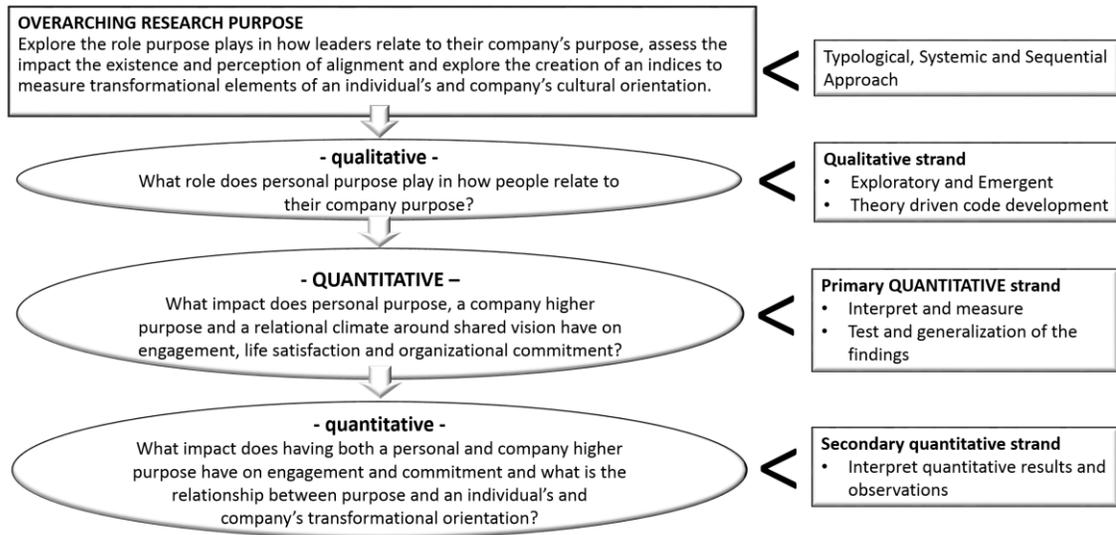
First, the ability of senior leaders to identify their personal purpose and if they perceive there to be alignment or a symbiotic nature between their personal purpose, and that of their organization, is explored through a qualitative phase. Because one's personal purpose is very subjective, it is best to use an exploratory approach consisting of one-on-one interviews. The themes that emerge help identify if, and understand how, relationships exist (Bryman & Bell, 2003) between personal purpose and a company higher purpose as well as informing and developing the typology for the quantitative phase (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2011).

Second, a survey is done to quantify separately the impact having a personal purpose and the existence of a company higher purpose has on engagement, and organizational commitment—with and without the element of a relational climate that supports sharing the company vision. A third endogenous variable, life satisfaction, is added to this second phase to understand the impact of purpose on the individual outside of the work environment.

Third, further analysis is done to explore the impact of having both a personal purpose and a company higher purpose, how they relate to an individual's and a corporate's cultural orientation as well as developing indices to measure one's personal and a corporate culture towards a transformational orientation.

Each phase sequentially builds upon the other as illustrated in Figure 3.

Figure 3. Mapping of Research Questions to Research Design



Theory and Literature Review

Because leaders have been trying to increase the level of engagement and commitment for years and the dial has not moved, it is first important to understand why it is felt they can actually be influenced. Influencing or changing one's psychological state facilitates intentional change (Boyatzis & Akrivou, 2006). Engagement, commitment and one's satisfaction with life are linked to one's psychological state (Bakker et al., 2008; Mowday et al., 1979; Peterson, Park, & Seligman, 2005; Schaufeli, Salanova, Bakker, & Gonzales-Roma, 2002). Engagement is the energy one commits to something (Boyatzis & Akrivou, 2006), and commitment is the attitude that results from a positive identification with an organization or a goal (Goleman & Boyatzis, 2009; Mowday et al., 1979). Life satisfaction measures one's psychological state around how gratifying or fulfilling their life is to them over a period of time (Peterson et al., 2005). It is therefore anticipated that influencing, or providing the *motivation* for a measurable change in one's psychological state of engagement and commitment is worth exploring.

Motivation

Motivation is complex and has been studied quite a bit over the years. Originally associated with ‘instinct’ (Maslow, 1943), it came to be replaced in the 1950s with the concept of the ‘drive’ that generates action (Berlyne, 1964; White, 1959). This drive was further understood to be two very different kinds of motivation: intrinsic and extrinsic (Herzberg, 1968; Porter & Lawler, 1968).

Whereas extrinsic motivation comes from external consequences associated with an activity, intrinsic motivation comes from a drive to action by the personal satisfaction of the activity itself—a drive for action that comes from within. Extrinsic motivation, in general, is characterized as being less effective than intrinsic motivation due to the revelation that the more personal the accomplishment, or intrinsic the center of causality, the higher the motivation to excel (Ryan & Deci, 2000a). This is supported by a study of the social-cognitive theory of motivation in which elite athletes “were highly driven by multiple personal goals and, in particular, self-determined motivation” (Mallett & Hanrahan, 2004: 198). They found a noticeable difference in the effort and drive in athletes that want to succeed because of personal ambition versus athletes that are driven by external forces and rewards.

In essence, the more the locus of causality is internal, the higher the degree of self-determination (Mallett & Hanrahan, 2004). This is relevant because two of the means to influence engagement, commitment and life satisfaction that are being explored are connected to an external motivation—an organization’s higher purpose and a culture—and one of the means being explored are connected to intrinsic motivation—a personal

purpose. Up until the understanding of self-determination, extrinsic and intrinsic motivation were thought to be two very different stimuli.

Self-Determination

A subset of Motivation Theory, Self-Determination Theory (SDT), identifies a bridge between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation based on our ability to internalize and integrate the goals connected to external rewards along a continuum from “amotivation, or unwillingness, to passive compliance, to active personal commitment” (Ryan & Deci, 2000b: 61). This taxonomy of human motivation opens up the possibility that one can move from an external compliance driven motivation to an inner drive based on the internalization of the goal or purpose to the extent that it becomes personal.

It also suggests that the motivation created by different variables is not mutually exclusive to either being intrinsic or extrinsic. Self-Determination Theory provides the basis for why these tools, that are both external and internal, may create an interplay that influences the impact on engagement, commitment, and life satisfaction.

Engagement

The understanding of engagement is evolving over time as well. In developing his construct of personal engagement and disengagement, Kahn (1990) builds upon existing literature on “person to role” relationships done by Hall and Lawler (1970), Lodahl and Kejner (1965), Mowday et al. (1979), Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian (1974), Blauner (1964), and Seeman (1972). He articulates the terms *personal engagement* and *disengagement* to “refer to the behaviors by which people bring in or leave out their personal selves during work role performances” (Kahn, 1990: 694). The term *engagement* is later defined by Harter, Schmidt, and Hayes (2002) as a person’s

involvement in and satisfaction with their work. A *high* level of engagement is the result of being stimulated, positive and fulfilled with a strong sense of meaningful pursuit and dedication (Bakker et al., 2008).

Two antecedents of engagement are job demands and resources. The findings around job demand and engagement vary but job resources such as social support, coaching and feedback have been shown to consistently drive engagement (Bakker & Leiter, 2010; Christian & Slaughter, 2007). Engagement is defined by Bakker et al. (2008) as a positive and pleased state of mind, categorized by vigor, commitment, and captivation, commonly understood to generate higher levels of energy and a strong connection to work. Boyatzis, Smith, and Beveridge (2012) also connect engagement with increased energy, focus and drive through their research on “Positive Emotional Attractors.” They validate this theory by linking PEA to physical stimulation—identifying the physiological activation that occurs during the actual experience of an elevated state of engagement, hopefulness, and future orientation.

When reaching for a personal purpose one is engaged, emotionally and physically, in moving towards an overarching goal. The goal becomes meaningful and purposeful enough to impact their energy, their focus and their drive (Boyatzis et al., 2012). The opposite is also true in that the desire to achieve one’s “ought self,” or the self that we feel we ought to be, is less than the desire to reach for our ideal self. When we are working to accomplish a goal or vision that is not our own, we are less driven (Boyatzis, 2008; Higgins, 1987). This is relevant because it exposes a gap in motivation based on something being extrinsic versus intrinsic when the vision or purpose individuals are striving to achieve belongs to someone else (e.g., another person or an employer) versus

from being personally meaningful. This illustrates there may be a difference between the individual who is striving to achieve a company vision that is not their own, and the individual who is striving to achieve their personal purpose through the work they do for an organization. This also supports the benefit of knowing if finding a symbiotic relationship with, or alignment between, a personal purpose and a company purpose helps increase the level of engagement, commitment, and life satisfaction. By making the company purpose more personally meaningful, through the Self-Determination Theory, we anticipate moving people along the continuum from extrinsic motivation to a more effective intrinsic motivation.

Organizational Commitment

Whereas engagement does include a dimension of commitment or dedication, it is in relation to the work being done versus the organization. Engagement it also about vigor (or energy) and absorption (or focus) and is linked to productivity and profitability (Loehr & Schwartz, 2003). Organizational commitment, on the other hand, is about loyalty, one's identification with, and attachment to, their organization as demonstrated through the relationship between commitment and lower turnover (Goleman & Boyatzis, 2009), lower absenteeism, and longer tenure, with commitment being a stronger predictor of turnover than job satisfaction (Mowday et al., 1979).

Organizational commitment is recognized as significant in understanding employee behaviors within, and attitude towards, an organization. Attitudinal commitment manifests itself in how an individual identifies with their company in regards to its purpose and goals, their desire to remain connected to and intention to be a part of achieving these goals (Mowday et al., 1979).

Organizational commitment is different from job satisfaction. Although they very well may influence each other, satisfaction with one's job infers an evaluation of their actual role, expectations or tasks required by their job as well as being impacted by a shorter temporal perspective. Day to day tasks or events have a much greater impact on one's job satisfaction than on one's commitment to the organization. Organizational commitment was selected because it develops over time, includes an element of the relationship between the employee and their employer and does not experience the same variability as job satisfaction does (Mowday et al., 1979).

Life Satisfaction

Engagement and organizational commitment are both variables tied to company outcomes such as performance and retention. To understand the impact purpose has on the individual, life satisfaction is also studied. One's satisfaction with life is an overall assessment of how fulfilled or content an individual is with their life and is one element in the even broader construct of subjective well-being (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985).

Although life satisfaction may be partly an outcome of having a good job (Sekaran, 1983), family is also a strong factor (Adams, King, & King, 1996). Theoretically and empirically, having a personal purpose is associated with greater life satisfaction (McKnight & Kashdan, 2009). Even though people who are satisfied with their life are more likely to be satisfied at work (Peterson, Park, Hall, & Seligman, 2009), understanding the impact on overall life satisfaction will provide an individual dimension to the study.

Purpose

“The purpose of life is not to be happy. It is to be useful, to be honorable, to be compassionate, to have it make some difference that you have lived and lived well.”

— Ralph Waldo Emerson (1803–1882)

“It's the action, not the fruit of the action, that's important. You have to do the right thing. It may not be in your power, may not be in your time, that there'll be any fruit. But that doesn't mean you stop doing the right thing. You may never know what results come from your action. But if you do nothing, there will be no result.”

— Mahatma Gandhi (1869–1948)

The understanding that purpose is relevant is not new as seen by the above statements made by Ralph Waldo Emerson and Mahatma Gandhi, yet it has evolved quite significantly over the past 60 years. Prior to the 1959 publication of Frankl's book *Man's Search for Meaning*, purpose and meaning were understood to be a way of adapting and not as a motivator towards change (Damon, Menon, & Bronk, 2003). Frankl is the first to identify purpose and meaning as more than derivatives of motivation by recognizing them as drivers to overcome circumstances (Frankl, 1959a).

Having a purpose helps one prioritize and encourage the establishment and achievement of goals, manage one's behaviors, and connects meaning to the work being done (McKnight & Kashdan, 2009). Purpose is also one of the factors that fuel one's desire to initiate intentional change (Boyatzis & Akrivou, 2006). Purpose can come from an internal source, such as personal purpose or an external source such as a company purpose.

Personal Purpose

“People are likely to meet or exceed expectations when they pursue goals within a context of a meaningful purpose” (Fowler, 2014: 65). Personal purpose, meaning and calling are often interrelated (Elangovan et al., 2010) and/or used interchangeably with

each other (Boyatzis & Akrivou, 2006; Duffy & Dik, 2013). Elangovan et al. (2010) indicate that purpose and calling hold many of the same attributes, such as hope and a focus on others, based on an inner desire to stay true to oneself and to do the right thing, make the world a better place or pursue a well-meaning goal (Elangovan et al., 2010). When working towards a “calling,” one receives personal gratification (Novak, 1996) and a sense of personal purpose (Hall & Chandler, 2005). It is personal, and the tasks are more enriching (Cardador et al., 2011), which is intellectually and emotionally stimulating (Bakker et al., 2008). McKnight and Kashdan (2009) describe purpose as a “centralized, self-organizing life aim that organizes and stimulates goals, manages behaviors, and provides a sense of meaning” (p. 242). Whereas calling and purpose both drive action and define one’s identity (Elangovan et al., 2010), a calling is thought to be bestowed upon one by a higher power or a response to a strong inner passion, and a purpose is discovered or found.

Recent research is making some progress deconstructing and discerning meaning and purpose. Rainey (2014) concludes that the “two are distinct phenomena that differ in their orientation toward cognition or action and in their temporal framing. Meaning and purpose are separate, albeit highly related, constructs that build off of one another so as to contribute to the broader concept of the ‘good,’ or meaningful life” (p. 22). This deconstruction connects meaning to an integration of the past, present and future whereas purpose is a future-directed element of meaning that may not integrate past and present (Baumeister, Vohs, Aaker, & Garbinsky, 2012).

This study seeks to explore the impact of purpose, separate from both a calling from a higher source and making meaning through an integration of past experiences,

while still holding to the elements of purpose that have consistently emerged in psychological literature. For this study, personal purpose is defined as: *a deliberate choice to pursue a future directed intention that is personally meaningful and beneficial to the greater society that influences one's goals and behaviors.*

Company Purpose and Company Higher Purpose

A company vision is a portrayal and articulation of an ideal future state (Bennis & Nanus, 1985) and a depiction of the future (Kouzes & Posner, 1987) that reflects the values of an organization (Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993). Although a company vision often includes elements other than company financial performance, it is not automatic. A study published in 1984 connects loyalty and a sense of purpose that goes beyond business goals, sales quotas, profit objectives and ROI to Japanese companies that were leading in financial performance (Logan, 1984).

The 'sense of purpose' described in this study is also referred to as a company higher purpose, or a purpose/future vision that is altruistic in nature, such as having a positive impact on people other than the shareholders—something greater than growth and profits (Beer, Eisenstat, Foote, Fredberg, & Norgren, 2011; Mackey & Sisodia, 2014; Sheth, Sisodia, & Wolfe, 2003; Waddock & Graves, 2000). Nonaka, Hirata, Kohlbacher, and Toyama (2008) express the essence of a business pursuing excellence as the unyielding commitment to serve all the stakeholders of the organization from the customers to the employees and larger society. A company higher purpose vision is something that is often clearly articulated and can be tied to a company's culture in regards to future envisioning.

For the purpose of this study, the definition of a company higher purpose is defined as: *a purpose about more than profits, including making a positive impact on people's lives, other than just the investors*. In this study, company purpose and company higher purpose are often used interchangeably.

Relationships and a Relational Climate/Culture around Shared Vision

Relationships are shown to be correlated with engagement and commitment (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002) and are often used to evaluate one's life (Diener, Inglehart, & Tay, 2013). Although intrinsic motivation and engagement come from within a person, in the work environment, they do not happen in isolation: the social dynamics between individuals as well as the company culture have an impact (Bakker & Leiter, 2010). Relationships are an enhancing element that when present can make things better or worse depending on their nature (Goleman & Boyatzis, 2009), yet the nature of relationships can be hard to capture (Rochford, 2015). One of the reasons is that the perception of relationships at work can be directly impacted by the situation and the intent of the parties participating in the dyad or group (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Schein, 1977).

This study focuses on the climate created around the sharing of information about a company vision and purpose. Shared meanings and understandings are the result of interactions, or relationships, within a group (Mead, 1934). A shared purpose is a mutual understanding of an organization or group's expectations of a desired future, providing a foundation and setting a direction in which people can and should act (Pearce & Ensley, 2004), requiring a relational climate built on social interaction (Mead, 1934; Schein, 1977). The perception that a company purpose exists and is shared is reflective of the

organization's culture in regards to its relational climate—a sense of mutual understanding and identification with a group or company (Rochford, 2015).

Relationships and a shared vision are key drivers in initiating sustainable change (Boyatzis et al., 2012). Even more recently, it has been demonstrated that the relationships that support the sharing of a vision, and having a shared vision, are critical during initial phases of successful mergers and acquisitions (Clayton, 2009), family businesses (Neff, 2011), and succession of daughters in family businesses (Overbeke, 2010). Having positive relationships, or a positive relational climate, is tangible and can be impacted by the leader.

The literature illustrates that the constructs of personal purpose, company higher purpose, relationships—in particular, the relational climate—engagement, organizational commitment and life satisfaction are emerging over time, and although some relationships have been explored, this is the first study that will delve into the interplay of these variables.

Transformational and Transactional Leadership

This is also the first study to pull out the elements of creating awareness and appreciation for an altruistic vision from transformational leadership and applying them to an individual and perceived company orientation. Transactional is the adjective of transaction—defined by Webster's Dictionary as the act of doing, performing business or getting something done. Transformational is the adjective of transformation—the state of changing the form or condition of something (Merriam-Webster, 2016b). In 1978, James MacGregor Burns first applies these two adjectives to leaders to describe two different, at that time what appeared to be opposite, styles of creating action or change. He describes a

transactional leadership style as one in which there is a very specific give and take to get something done; in essence, the leader provides something in exchange for compliance from the follower (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978, 2003; Kellerman, 1984; Yukl, 1981). A transformational leader is described as someone with a style that focuses on the actual change or transformation that is desired versus the steps or tasks along the way.

According to Burn's original work, transactional leadership—in which the leader is focusing on incremental accomplishments may, over time, create transformational change. But the transactional leader is focusing on the incremental steps and the transformational leader is focusing on the transformation itself. Whereas a transactional leader is focused on getting the task done and tends to use their positional power over people, a transformational leader is focused on something much bigger and uses relationships and an awareness of the end result to empower people to work together towards a more ambition objective (Burns, 1978).

Bass expands on the understanding of transformational leadership by identifying the need to increase the awareness and appreciation for a vision, connecting with followers on a personal level, and uniting and changing their beliefs and goals. He also argues that transactional and transformational leadership are actually separate concepts, not two ends on a continuum (Bass, 1985). The theory around transformational leadership is evolving to contain three objectives and four dimensions. The three objectives are to help the individual attain a state in which they are achieving something that is meaningful to them personally, and create an awareness and appreciation for the end result and the greater needs and interests of others. Transformational leadership has four dimensions 1)

charismatic or idealized influence, 2) inspirational motivation, 3) intellectual stimulation and 4) individualized consideration (Judge & Piccolo, 2004).

Much of the research on transformational and transactional leadership is in connection to describing the leadership role or describing a leader. But equally important is that all leadership includes an interaction and exchange with a follower. Transactional leadership relies on a lower level exchange of resources, such as pay increases, for work done, up to a higher level exchange of non-concrete rewards such as respect and trust (Burns, 1978; Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987; Yukl, 1981). Both lower level and higher level resources are external in nature thus tied to an extrinsic motivation. Transformational leadership is also giving the follower something in exchange for their involvement in achieving the end goal, but that exchange comes in the form of the sharing of a vision, values, information about the greater good and desired change, and perspective on why the end result benefits others. This type of exchange connects with followers on an emotional level that inspires, builds an image and articulates confidence (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987). What the transformational leader gives to the follower ignites a personal drive or intrinsic motivation.

The literature lays out the foundation for why purpose and a transformational orientation should be studied in relation to helping focus, energize and retain good employees. Having a sense of purpose helps one prioritize the creation and accomplishment of goals and fuels change because it is just that—personal. Purpose and a transformational leadership style are also future oriented. For this study, purpose is studied in the form of a personal purpose and a company higher purpose.

Not only are engagement and commitment a state of mind that is influenced by motivation, literature supports that the more goals and a purpose are internalized and meaningful, the more intrinsic and powerful the motivation to achieve them becomes. Although engagement and commitment are personal, in the work environment they are highly influenced by relationships, the culture and the style of leadership. As the literature supports the important role of the company culture, the relational climate around sharing a company vision and a transformational orientation at the individual level and company cultural level are studied as well. With these theories in mind, the qualitative phase is conducted first for exploration of if, and how, senior leaders relate to purpose and relational climate.

CHAPTER II: QUALITATIVE PHASE ON THE RELATABILITY OF PURPOSE

Introduction

Certain people seem to be motivated and engaged in achieving an aspirational purpose or personal goal such that it aligns their efforts, their thinking, and their decision making. The contemporary research on the topics of purpose, company vision, motivation and engagement is prolific. Duffy and Dik (2013) reference approximately 40 recent studies on the topic of purpose and calling and the connection to work-related and general well-being (Duffy & Dik, 2013). Also, there are numerous practitioner books on using purpose, calling and vision to reach the heart of an employee, such as *Purpose and Meaning in the Workplace* (Dik, Byrne, & Steger, 2013).

Even if individuals are externally motivated by a company's vision and are working in a stimulating environment, they are still unlikely to experience the intrinsic motivation, engagement, and fulfillment that comes from working towards the accomplishment of one's own personal ambition (Boyatzis & Akrivou, 2006). Consider that often at work one is coached to comply with someone else's vision (Boyatzis et al., 2012); working hard to be the underling their boss wants them to be in order to contribute to the goals of the organization. Instead of advancing toward one's personal definition of who they want to become, their ideal self, employees are working toward an "ought self," or the understanding of what one should be based on someone else's vision (Boyatzis & Akrivou, 2006). Through the development of the self-determination theory and the need for competency and autonomy, Ryan and Deci (2000a) contribute to the understanding of motivation in the social context; explaining that experiencing motivation and engagement by embracing someone else's vision may very well work for a while. Boyatzis and

Akrivou (2006) advance this understanding by discovering that one can be perfectly content working towards someone else's goal or objectives until one realizes that their personal dreams are being compromised because this "ought self" does not match their ideal self. This awakening leads to feelings of betrayal and frustration for having wasted energy pursuing the dreams and expectations of others. This creates what Boyatzis (2008) called negative emotional attractors (NEA) which have an adverse effect on motivation and engagement (Boyatzis & Akrivou, 2006).

This study is timely for businesses because employee commitment to the organization, connection to its purpose and engagement at work are all cited as major motivators of people staying in a company (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Kapoor & Meachem, 2012). From the individual's perspective, it has long been identified in the literature that the work one does is significant to a person's sense of meaning and identity. In *Purpose and Meaning in the Workplace*, the editors pull from work all the way back to Adler in 1931 and Erikson in 1963 to support their statement that, "Along with love, play, and community, work at its best offers a core context for construction of self and contributing to society in ways heartfelt, personally meaningful and socially relevant" (Dik et al., 2013: 17). Yet, there is limited empirical support for the role one's personal ambitions play in the symbiotic relationship to a company's higher purpose vision.

Research Question

The research question for this phase of the study is: What role does personal purpose play in how people relate to their company purpose/vision?

Literature Review

Research shows that when striving to achieve something that is personally meaningful, people are more motivated and engaged; they have a high level of commitment and interest that generates energy and a positive association with the task that is being done (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008). The construct of purpose is becoming more understood to include doing something that a person feels driven to do in which the benefactor or benefactors are not themselves (Duffy & Sedlacek, 2007). Damon, Menon, and Bronk (2003) characterize a sense of purpose as denoting a course that is personally meaningful and beneficial to the greater society. Developing a clearer sense of purpose for non-enthusiastic workaholics and disenfranchised employees is identified as a means to improve life satisfaction (Bonebright, Clay, & Ankenmann, 2000). Knowing that this relationship exists is important but the impact has not yet been quantified. Demonstrating that having personal purpose has a positive relationship with engagement, commitment, and life satisfaction, could give organizations a tangible tool to increase focus and retention of their employees.

Motivation and Engagement

Often engagement and motivation go hand in hand (Kapoor & Meachem, 2012; Kelleher, 2011; Tillott, Walsh, & Moxham, 2013). This is logical as motivation and engagement are both relevant to achieving personal aspirations, but they do so in different ways. In existing research, motivation is connected to determination, while engagement is linked to a state of awareness. Motivation is what creates action and drive (Berlyne, 1964), whereas engagement is the state of mind and energy committed to that action and accomplishment (Kapoor & Meachem, 2012).

Motivation is associated with harnessing personal drive. Maslow's (1943) need for self-actualization creates a foundation for personal motivation with his statement that, "What a man can be, he must be" (p. 380). This statement infers that self-actualization drives one to work towards what one "could" be. Herzberg (1968) makes a big contribution to the understanding of motivation by introducing the contrast between extrinsic (e.g. external rewards) and intrinsic motivation (e.g. personal sense of achievement or connection with the work itself). With the exception of the external impact of relationships, this study is primarily about intrinsic motivation.

Connecting Purpose to Motivation, Engagement, and Performance

There is a strong desire to embrace purpose as illustrated by the popularity of Rick Warren's book *The Purpose Driven Life*, which has sold more than 60 million copies. The connection of purpose to motivation, engagement and performance is already established. The positive psychology movement that studies the flourishing aspects of psychology connects purpose to motivation, engagement, and performance, recognizing both purpose and calling as sources of motivation, drive, and commitment to an accomplishment (Damon et al., 2003; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Embracing a calling, purpose or personal vision in one's vocation, as well as the feeling of living out a calling, is linked to a positive work experience and well-being (Duffy & Dik, 2013). And an increase in the level of meaning or purpose is connected with work gratification (Bonebright et al., 2000), life fulfillment, well-being (Zika & Chamberlain, 1992) and happiness (Debats, Van der Lubbe, & Wezeman, 1993). Organizations in which employees experience a higher level of engagement have increased levels of performance over organizations that do not (Macey & Schneider, 2008). Shuck and Rose (2013) take

this even further with their discovery that “engagement and performance are a secondary consequence to work that is interpreted as meaningful and purpose-driven” (p. 343).

Company Vision and its Connection to Motivation, Engagement, and Performance

A company vision is a preferred future state that represents or echoes the collective values of an organization (House & Shamir, 1993). A vision helps define why people should, and how people will, act with regards to performance, decisions and dealing with conflict (O’Reilly, 2008).

Empirical evidence about the connection between vision and performance is mounting. CEOs with a vision significantly outperform CEOs that are not leading their organization with a vision (Baum, Dutterer, Locke, & Kkkpatrick, 1998). A study of mergers and acquisitions (M&A) demonstrates that vision is a critical factor leading to successful performance, particularly during initial phases of M&A when companies expect to recover acquisition costs and generate a return on investment (Clayton, 2009). Neff (2011) demonstrates a link between vision and the success of family businesses. Vision is also highlighted as a determining factor in enabling daughters to overcome gender bias and become successors in family businesses (Overbeke, 2010). A longitudinal study by Baum et al. (1998) demonstrates a causal effect of vision and vision communication on organizational-level performance, supporting that vision is an impactful factor in company performance (Baum et al., 1998).

Vision drives motivation (Mirvis, Googins, & Kinnicutt, 2010) and is connected to both motivation and engagement through the work of Boyatzis and Akrivou (2006) who validate that vision, at both the individual and organizational levels, is a key element in successful, sustainable change which drives engagement and meaning. Even more

effective is a shared vision which allows for the incorporation of different perspectives within the organization, creating buy-in and support (Kapoor & Meachem, 2012; Tillott et al., 2013).

The concept of a personal higher purpose, introduced by Duffy and Sedlacek (2007) as one in which the benefactors are not themselves, could be applied to organizations. The concept is that a higher purpose vision positions a company to build a financially sustainable organization that creates both social good (e.g., making the world a better place) and social capital (e.g., trusting and committed relationships with all stakeholders) (Beer et al., 2011). A higher purpose goes beyond generating only profits and shareholder value (Mackey & Sisodia, 2014).

Relationships

Relationships are very relevant to this study on the personal, social and organizational level. According to Van Oosten (2006), supportive and trusting relationships are the fulcrum that allows change to take place. Positive relationships correlate with a greater degree of engagement, commitment and retention (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). In the intentional change theory, relationships actually facilitate the movement through each discovery stage, bringing about purposeful change. A link exists between the pursuit of the ideal self and the physiological effect it has on neural circuits, appetite for learning and the emotional state of elation; all increasing the level of engagement around one's dreams, hopes, and strengths (Boyatzis & Akrivou, 2006).

Social identity and its connection to relationships are important in the work environment. Social identity is defined by Ashforth and Mael (1989) and Boyatzis and Akrivou (2006) as the relationships one has with groups with which one is connected.

Tajfel (1982) begins his early work on social identity theory in the 1960s through the identification of one's self to his or her group memberships. Although the initial context is to explain the tendency to elevate one's self image by identifying with groups or categories, the framework is being extended. Boyatzis and Akrivou validate the connection between group relationships to elements of individual performance and organizational direction, beyond the original connection to self-elevation.

The intentional change theory establishes that positive, energizing relationships are not only critical in supporting change but a sense of group identity is an important element in the construct of shared vision (Boyatzis & Akrivou, 2006). Identification with the social identity of an organization facilitates the internalization of company values and beliefs (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Ashforth and Mael reference research already done on social identities within the organizational framework when they write that, "Organizational identification has long been recognized as a critical construct in the literature on organizational behavior, affecting both the satisfaction of the individual and the effectiveness of the organization (Brown, 1969; Hall, Schneider, & Nygren, 1970; Lee, 1971; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Patchen, 1970; Rotondi, 1975)" (Ashforth & Mael, 1989: 20).

The literature illustrates that the constructs of personal purpose, company vision, motivation, engagement, and relationships have been emerging over time but there are enough common elements in their definitions to use as a foundation for gaining a greater understanding of the nature of personal purpose when a company's vision/purpose is symbiotic with the aspirational purpose or goals of the individuals.

Method

This phase is intended to explore the role purpose plays in a symbiotic relationship with a company vision, so a qualitative approach is used—allowing for an abstract theoretical exploration of the social experience (Charmaz, 2014). A cyclical process of gathering data, coding, reflection and review through memos is used to allow theoretical ideas, categories, and themes to emerge. The themes are then examined for validity against the codes.

Data is gathered through interviews with open-ended questions; allowing the interview process to be flexible, and the conversation to flow and evolve. The interviews are designed to pull out stories and personal experiences that illustrate connections between personal purpose, goals, corporate vision, positive relationships, engagement, and motivation. Understanding that one's personal purpose is often evolving and changing, the questions are intended to capture the connections between their understanding of their personal purpose or goals at that time.

Because the literature indicates that even in the academic world the words purpose, meaning, calling and driver are often used interchangeably and are considered interrelated, care was taken to not focus on just the word “purpose” during the interview.

The research is in the context of high performing, senior leaders in U.S., for-profit organizations. To be able to understand personal purpose, it is important to minimize the other variables. Because the intent is to observe the way people articulate the role personal purpose and personal goals play in the alignment to, or possibly a symbiotic relationship with, a company's higher purpose vision, groups are selected that would most likely already be aligned to their company's vision. Because it would be expected

that high performers are already motivated and engaged, interviewing high performers allows the focus to be on the nature of personal purpose without the added complexity of whether motivation and engagement exist.

A higher purpose statement is defined as an articulated vision statement that is future-directed and beneficial to the greater society. Companies with a published higher purpose statement are identified through personal networks and publications that recognized businesses as having a higher purpose vision. The initial quantity of possible candidates is large to assure there are enough companies that fit the criteria. Each recommendation is vetted to meet the definition of higher purpose by researching the company online, reviewing company literature, as well as asking people within the industry, and within the organization, to determine if the company indeed has a higher purpose that is shared within the company.

To assure a large enough pool of people to be interviewed, it is important that each company has multiple layers of management, enough breadth to include more than six high performing leaders, and an established performance review process. The organizations in which interviews are conducted all have annual sales revenue above \$600 million.

Interviews are conducted within four companies that meet the criteria and provide geographical and industry diversity. Introductions are made to the CHRO, company president or divisional vice-president by mutual acquaintances who then assign an internal resource who identifies members of the senior leadership team considered to be high performers. High performers are defined as individuals who have received an “exceeds expectations” or the equivalent rating on their performance reviews as

established within the individual organizations or are identified as high performers by their supervisor.

One of the outcomes of the goal-setting theory is that goals refer to important future outcomes and therefore the selection of goals infer a desire to achieve a purpose or consequence; and success is associated with one's ability to pursue and accomplish goals that are important and meaningful (Locke & Latham, 2006). Because a person may have a goal to accomplish a personal purpose, it is important to find people who interpret success through the completion of the task or goal as well as people who are motivated to complete the task only if it leads to a much greater purpose. In order to have two different groups for comparison purposes, samples are selected within each organization that include people who are considered by their supervisor as primarily goal/task driven as well as people who are considered purpose driven.

Very early on it became clear that when the only choice a supervisor is given to describe the primary driver as purpose or goal, the perception of purpose is more favorable. Only 30% of the people interviewed are identified as goal driven by their supervisor. One statement made during an interview reflects this negative connotation of being goal driven:

“I mean, not goal driven the way that some people are, and as an example meaning, I want to be worth this by a certain date or I want to have this kind of house by, or I have a Lamborghini by the time I am this age. I don't have goals that overt that I need to be—I need to have this particular title by a certain age. I don't have goals like that.” 4-6

Through an axial coding process, distinct themes emerged, but the categorization of the responses did not always match up with the original classification of goal or purpose driven as provided by their supervisor. Saldaña (2016) discusses allowing

conceptual frameworks to emerge from within the data. It becomes apparent early on in the process of coding interviews that the way people respond to the first question is creating such a conceptual framework. The first question asks the participants, “What is important to you, motivates you to hop out of bed in the morning, and/or provides purpose or meaning to your life?” Within the responses, two very distinct categories emerge. It appears that the phenomenon of the role personal purpose has on symbiotic visions is differentiated by two distinct primary drivers. This is supported by the statement that thematic sampling depends heavily on the quality of the data which is influenced by the setting or context (Boyatzis, 1998).

To eliminate the possibility of misclassifications by the supervisor due to possible negative connotations with being goal driven, and to avoid projecting, a related and unbiased classification is identified and applied to the subject’s responses. The task versus socio-emotional drivers construct (Boyatzis, Rochford, & Jack, 2014) is closely related to goals and purpose, therefore, creating an unbiased classification. This categorization is selected because it represents the contrast between being task or goal driven versus future or purpose directed.

The way participants respond to the first question is used to determine their inclination for having task or socio-emotional/future oriented tendencies. Task-positive preferences connect to being goal oriented and include a predilection for goal achievement, problem solving, decision making and the ability to control actions. Respondents are classified as task positive if their answers include being motivated by being acknowledged or appreciated for the work completed, maintaining balance, seeking opportunities, the work they do or solving problems. Socio-emotional preferences are

much more future or purpose directed and are linked to social cognition, creativity and an openness to new ideas (Boyatzis et al., 2014). Respondents are classified as socio-emotional if their answers include being motivated by one’s passion, making the world better, the desire to make a difference and helping others in need. Table 2 illustrates sample responses for each category.

Table 2. Sample Responses by Group

Group 1 – Task positive - 11 respondents	Group 2 – Socio-emotional - 13 respondents
Responses indicating a Task Positive Nature	Responses indicating a Socio-emotional Nature
I love solving problems; I love taking things that are ambiguous and putting together a plan and attacking.	I get inspired by just making a difference. I love to engage.
Ultimately (I am) trying to find the right balance between work and life.	I am most excited and want to do more of hands-on connections with those who are in need.
My primary driver is -- it’s sort of self-absorbed and altruistic at the same time because I like being recognized and I like being appreciated.	I would say what gets me out of bed in the morning as far as employment goes is really understanding the long-term vision and believing in it and having a passion for it.
I think what drives me is a problem that doesn't have a solution. Ultimately, pulling resources and digging deep.	For me it was about the overall concepts, working for the greater good of something.

Eleven participants give task positive responses, and thirteen participants give socio-emotional responses. One hundred percent of the participants who give responses indicating socio-emotional preferences are perceived by their supervisor as being purpose driven. Yet only 55% of the participants who give responses that indicate a task-positive preference are perceived as goal driven. When a participant gives more than one

response, in all cases both responses fall into the same category. To assure the responses to this question are not used in the coding process, the responses to this first question are removed from the coding process. The remainder of the questions are used for the qualitative analysis.

Sample

Twenty-four people are interviewed; seven interviews from one company, six interviews from two companies and five interviews from a fourth company. The interviews average an hour in length. Because of the narrow focus of this phase of the study, after twenty-two interviews, no new themes are emerging, and it is, therefore, not necessary to expand the interview pool beyond 24.

Fourteen interviews are conducted face-to-face in a quiet location selected by the participant. Eleven interviews are conducted over the phone with the participant finding a quiet location that allows them to reflect without interruption. Seventeen participants are based out of their corporate office, and seven are based in other cities, outside their corporate headquarters location, around the United States. Participants are located in the states of Ohio, Illinois, Michigan, Massachusetts, New York and Wisconsin. IRB protocol is followed to assure consent, accuracy, and confidentiality. After the interview, participants are categorized by industry, tenure at their current company, level within the company and gender, as illustrated in Table 3, to see if any of these descriptors impact or contribute to the themes that emerge.

Table 3. Descriptors Applied to Sample

Industry Sector	# of Participants	% of Total
Food Service	5	20.8%
Oil and Gas	6	25%

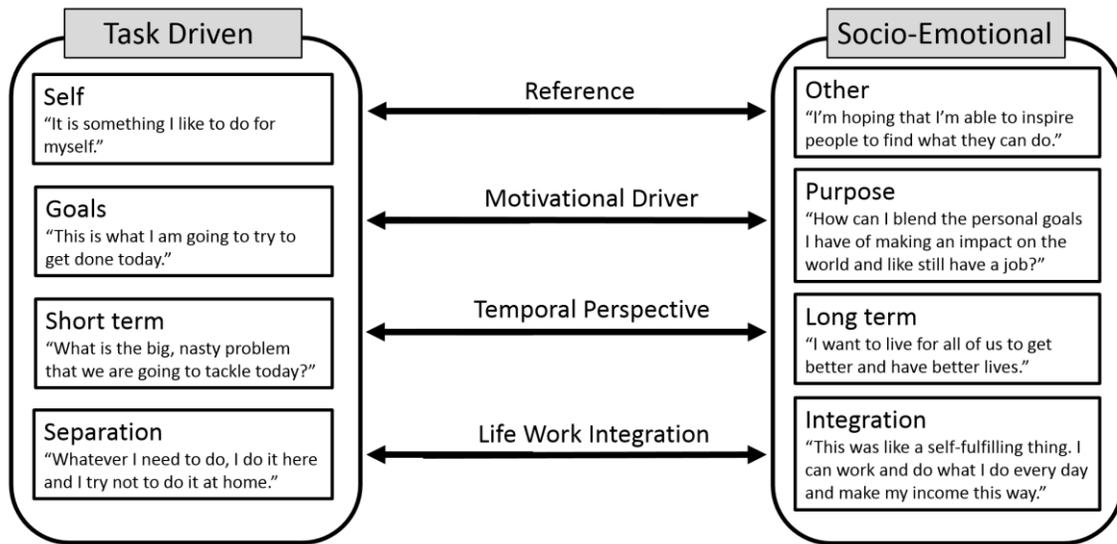
Consumer Goods	6	25%
Distribution	7	29.2%
Years with Company		
1-5	5	20.8%
6-10	10	41.7%
11-15	4	16.7%
16+	5	20.8%
Level within the Company		
Manager	7	29.2%
Director	9	37.5%
Sr. Leader	2	8.3%
C-Suite	6	25%
Gender		
Female	12	50%
Male	12	50%

The interviews are coded using an open coding, exploratory approach as recommended by Saldaña (2013). The coding and sorting of the interviews is done manually as well as electronically utilizing the web application Dedoose. Upon completion of an initial coding, interviews are reviewed to verify that consistent coding is applied. Focused coding is used to synthesize large sections of data (Glaser, 1978), such as stories, and axial coding is used to identify the frequency of common themes and the existence of dominant themes (Strauss, 1987). All coding is done blind to the initial criterion to see if themes emerged. The interviews are tracked with a two-digit identifier.

Results

Four distinct themes emerge with a noticeable difference in how people respond based on their tendency to be task driven or socio-emotional: reference, motivational driver, temporal perspective and life/work integration versus separation. The four themes and examples of responses are shown in Figure 4.

Figure 4. Themes that Emerged from the Qualitative Phase



Reference Context

Task driven people are more self-referent whereas people that gravitate toward being socio-emotional are more other-referent. One hundred percent of the respondents in the task-positive group make one or more references to why something is important to, or impacts, them personally and/or how they put things through a self-referent lens before making decisions. Following are examples of responses that include a reference to themselves in how they choose to make decisions or validate a decision they had made.

“Sadly, I didn’t want the argument of having to deal with her being mad at me so I didn’t do that.” 3-6

“It is something I like to do for myself.”3-5

“I enjoy the leadership role not so much for the authority or for being in charge or whatever, but knowing that people are looking to me for direction.” 1-7

“How I validate myself, is my ability to help an organization get the information it needs and solve challenges.” 4-5

The socio-emotional group is more other-referent. Ninety-two percent of the respondents' comments are about how they are impacted by others and how their decisions are based on the needs or wants of other people.

“I always hope that I never put myself first, that is like the biggest thing for me is to always put other people first always, always, always.” 4-1

“And so when I see someone buzz through that and they think, wow, wait a minute, I just did this. I didn't think I could do it. What else can I do? And that gets me excited.” 4-4

“Another thing I guess I'd say I'm passionate about is getting people to be inspired to find whatever niche it is that they have the skill set and have the passion for.” 2-5

“I just made up my mind going home that day that I was not going to live a life where I couldn't really make an impact... the other thing that I really like about my job over the first 26 years is really helping people to get on a career path and make a difference in their life that way.” 2-2

“So, I'm hoping that I'm able to inspire people to find what they can do within their own capabilities.” 1-3

One person in the socio-emotional group comments on how their personal needs are important but in the same sentence references the needs of others:

“I like to work so I can live. I think a balance is very important. I do enjoy working for a company that values people, I compare (my last company) and (my current company). At (my last company) when I first started, people were indeed resources, and resources are precious and you—you're trying to protect them. And over time, we had become assets and assets can be faded out and sold. And here, I think people are still the most important resource. And that's a really key part of the culture.” 3-4

A few of the statements from the self-referent group include others, but in the same thought, the person also references themselves. For example:

“I hate to ask for things. Like, as a single mom, I hate to ask for someone to watch my kids. I hate to have to say, can you please -- would you help me. I know how that feels. And I'm sure that other people that are in need sometimes may not feel good about asking for help, but if you are showing

them how to take care of themselves, everyone wants to be able to take care of themselves and have some dignity.”¹⁻⁶

Self-referent and other-referent comments are fairly equally distributed across all other descriptors.

Primary Motivational Driver

Individuals that are inclined to be more task oriented are more motivated by the actual goal or milestone whereas socio-emotional individuals focus on the purpose of the activity and the tasks or goals are only a means to a bigger end.

Although both task-positive and socio-emotional responses include the word “goal” in their vernacular, it is used differently. One hundred percent of the respondents that were categorized as task positive make references to being goal oriented or motivated by the accomplishment of the goal whereas 62% of the socio-emotional group reference goals.

Goals create targets or align thought processes and vary in terms of the amount of specificity and time frame (Snyder, 2000). The task-positive group uses goals more as the target or specific and measurable objective, whereas the socio-emotional group uses goals to align their activities towards a more holistic, far-reaching purpose. Eighty-four percent of the socio-emotional group reference or communicate a passion toward something that is very meaningful to them and 62% referenced a purpose that is driving their decisions. This compares to 18% that reference a passion and 27% that make references to purpose in the task-positive group. There is no significant variance across the descriptors.

The following statements are from individuals who tend to have a task orientation. They seem inclined to use goals to identify something that they feel they

have the self-efficacy to accomplish, or that gives them a sense of completion and/or obligation.

“This is what I'm going to try to get done today.”3-5

“There are times that I just, I can't wait to get to work. I can't wait to become engaged in a new problem. Where is the new problem?”4-2

“Well, I could – probably the most relevant one is the – is my goal to be home for dinner every night with my kids.”3-6

“And so, I think my goal – my job as his father is to help him – I don't want to feel guilty for the things he has, but I do want him to be grateful and by doing things for others it will actually demonstrate that higher purpose of like you know what, we do have – we have a responsibility as a matter of faith to do things for others.”3-6

In contrast to this, the socio-emotional group uses goals as steps in a process that are relevant to the extent that they provide guidance towards a greater purpose. This group is motivated by the bigger, overarching objective. The goals do not seem to be what drives their day-to-day activities or their decision-making process. Responses that illustrate this are:

“I think you should have goals and think about the future. But I am fine doing a 180 any point in time you know, I am very comfortable doing that.”4-4

“But I think my broader purpose is really helping find solutions to problems that actually work.”2-4

“For me it was about the overall concepts, working for the greater good of something, and the lesson that I'm learning and the lessons that I can show my kid that, that was a greater benefit at the time, and I still very much would make the same decision. I think that that was more important than the financial aspect of the position.”2-5

“Well, how can I then blend the personal goals that I have of making an impact on the world and like still have a job?”2-4

Temporal Perspective

There is a noticeable difference in the temporal perspective of the decisions being made. Decisions are made based on either the immediate task (transaction) or because the decision is foundational to transforming or achieving a greater, longer-term objective. This is best illustrated by the proverb of giving someone a fish vs. teaching someone to fish—if you give someone a fish they’ll eat for a day; if you teach someone to fish they’ll eat for a lifetime. Transactional leadership is tied to motivating others through a direct relationship between the task and the reward, whereas transformational leadership is recognized as influencing, inspiring and stimulating others (Tuckey, Bakker, & Dollard, 2012). It is possible to extend this framework to decision making. Individuals in group 1 that are more prone to task positive tendencies, also exhibit a more immediate and transactional perspective. They make decisions based on having an impact on a case by case basis such that they can connect the activity to a reward. This group demonstrates a desire to accomplish a goal because of the reward associated with its completion and getting satisfaction out of the task at hand. They reference setting goals that are in the near future, a one-off that can stand alone and once accomplished, allows them to move on to another goal. Sixty-four percent of the task-positive oriented group articulate a preference for accomplishing a task that has definite completion criteria. Examples of task positive statements are as follows:

“What is the big, nasty problem that we are going to tackle today? It takes a lot of hard work but the success is so rewarding.” 4-2

“Well I mean at a very superficial level, having some success in my career has allowed me to provide for people.” 4-5

“I’m working with individuals and I can again align what they love and their passion and their strengths to what we need in the business, it’s like the

perfect marriage and it's, you know, I just have this great sense of satisfaction when I can make—I can help facilitate that process and I can help make that happen. It's very rewarding to me. I found great satisfaction in that." 3-3

In contrast, 15% of the socio-emotional group talk about tasks that once finished can be considered complete, whereas 92% of this group speak of their accomplishments as laying a foundation for a job that is far reaching and may not be completed by them personally. Often, they see their role as inspiring others to take the lead; making a decision to do something based on the long-term implications. Individuals that are more socio-emotional in nature seem to exhibit behaviors and attitudes that are more transformational. They are motivated to teach others to fish, creating a larger group of people who are working towards the same purpose. They are driven to create a foundation for future progress, aligning people and inspiring people to transform something that is much bigger than themselves. For example:

“And so, I want to be able to give them guidance, help maybe focus them, give them my experience, but ultimately empower them to really stretch and push them to go to places where they didn't think they could go before.” 2-1

“I want to live for all of us to get better and have better lives.” 1-4

“I think what drives who I am is the ability to help others get to where they – where they want to be.” 4-3

Males indicate a preference for having the end goal clear twice as often as females, but there is not much variance across other descriptors.

Life Work Integration versus Separation

People associated with socio-emotional tendencies, see a connection between what they do at work and what they do outside of work more than task oriented individuals who prefer separating their work from their personal life.

Fifty-five percent of the task-positive group are very clear that life and work are separate and 77% of the socio-emotional group are equally clear that they seek work/life integration. Seventy-seven percent of the socio-emotional group also indicate that what they do is very personal and meaningful to them. This contrasted to only 36% of the task-positive group that make references to what they do at work as being personal.

Examples of statements from the task-positive group are:

“Even if I'm here longer, I still try to just -- whatever I need to do, I do it here and I try not to do it at home.”3-5

“Work-life balance is about one of the most important things we can strive for. And you know you hear a lot about work-life integration. I don't really believe in that.”3-1

“I am very focused, intently focused on trying to get home in time for dinner so we can have a family-style dinner.”3-6

Socio-emotional driven individuals are driven to achieve a purpose that transcends the activities throughout their day, at work and at home, as demonstrated by the following quotes:

“So, I can take my knowledge of sustainability and have it be part of who I am, way beyond the walls of (my current company).”4-3

“This, to me, was like a self-fulfillment thing. I can go to work and do what I do every day and make my income this way.”2-5

“I played soccer, and so it's an inner-city program where they combine soccer with poetry and creative writing, which I love. And so, I think I was able to see the connection. It's not just at work, but how you combine your life with something that you're—that you're doing on a day-to-day basis.”
4-3

“I felt like I was able to connect and preserve the best of the world, and do it for a living. It just felt like such a natural connection.”4-3

Discussion

High performing leaders who work for corporations that espouse a higher purpose vision were studied and it is found that leaders are able to articulate their purpose and they are able to express alignment of their purpose or personal goals with that of the organization. One of the key discoveries is that personal purpose and goals play a role in a symbiotic relationship with a company vision and one's articulation of how they are motivated and engaged—but in different ways depending on whether a person is primarily socio-emotional driven or task driven. It is observed that some of these executives have a deep and far-reaching sense of purpose which seems tied to driving the intent of the organization's higher purpose vision. When alignment is felt through the sense of the greater purpose, there is a symbiotic nature to this alignment; a deep, almost spiritual, commitment to deploying all aspects of their life, e.g., work and home, to making the world a better place and helping the organization be a contributing part of their personal purpose. Others have a task-oriented way of describing their purpose which manifests itself as an instrumental way of helping move the organization toward its overall purpose through the achievement of goals and objectives. When alignment is felt through the organization's support of one's personal goals, there is a great sense of commitment, but a clear delineation between work and life ambitions.

This difference influences how high-performing leaders are motivated to act and engage. Task-driven individuals are more self-referent; motivated by the actual accomplishment of goals/milestones; more likely to make decisions based on being able to see the completion of the task in the near future, and clear that life and work were separate. Individuals who are socio-emotional in nature tend to be more other-oriented;

more likely to focus on the greater purpose of an activity; more likely to make decisions with a long-term, big picture in mind; and more likely to see their work as an integral versus separate part of their life.

It is important to note that both groups speak of the importance of connecting with others and relationships with people. Half of the task-positive group make references to team identity whereas no one in the socio-emotional group speak about the personal connections to a team. There is an opportunity to explore this deeper in future research.

Reference Context

The senior leaders interviewed gravitate toward either a self-referent or other-referent perspective which aligns with having task positive tendencies or socio-emotional tendencies respectively. This primary reference impacts their decisions around whether to act on and stay engaged in an activity. The tendency to gravitate towards a self-referent or other-referent position may indicate that there are two different categorical perspectives of, or possibly a continuum from, a task to socio-emotional orientation that correlates to an individual's reference. Individuals that are more self-referent frame their decisions and determine their desire to act and engage based on how it impacts, affects, or connects to them, personally. Other-referent individuals are more motivated to act or commit if the decision or objective is framed in relation to its impact on others.

Self-determination theory distinguishes autonomous and controlled motivation, both of which include extrinsic motivation. Autonomous motivation combines extrinsic and intrinsic factors that impact the identification of the activities value whereas controlled motivation is driven by extrinsic rewards or punishment; in both cases, they are in relation to one's sense of self (Deci & Ryan, 2008). Ryan and Deci (2000b)

propose that self-determination is a basic need. This need is understood to be a universal motivator such that by encouraging rewards and independent action, leaders can transfer control to followers and increase their self-determination and feelings of efficacy (Tuckey et al., 2012). This research opens the possibility that while increasing one's self-determination through value and rewards that are meaningful to the individual may be very motivating for some, not all high performing senior leaders are motivated by self-rewards and self-value. The same company vision may be internalized differently based on one's primary reference. Self-determination theory is supported by the task positive group who connect with personal value and rewards. Yet some people, as indicated by the socio-emotional group, may actually be more motivated if the message is put into the perspective of the greater good, or how they could inspire others, taking it out of a reward and self-value perspective.

Primary Motivational Driver

Individuals that are inclined to be more task oriented are more motivated by the actual goal or milestone, whereas socio-emotional individuals focus on the purpose of the activity and the tasks or goals are only a means to a bigger objective. The task-positive leaders analyze the measurable result or impact of the accomplishment of the goal to make their decisions regarding whether or not to proceed. The socio-emotional group seems to focus on the impact it has on the more holistic, far-reaching purpose.

In the task-positive network versus the default mode network theory, Boyatzis et al. (2014), discover a pull different than the traditional intrinsic and extrinsic tension. Their research points to an empathetic versus analytical tension, indicating people are driven by emotional or cognitive reasoning. The noticeable segregation of motivation

between being task driven or socio-emotionally driven may support this theory; possibly adding an additional dimension. Some leaders analytically evaluate the objective to determine their ability to accomplish the task at hand, whereas others emotionally evaluate their ability to inspire others to achieve a greater good. Individuals who are driven by the task review the goal analytically, to determine the degree to which tangible acknowledgment of their accomplishments will come through via a sense of productivity or validation. Socio-emotional individuals are passionate about the overarching purpose and motivated by something bigger than themselves, often other focused, which may not provide tangible or immediate results. For them, it is personal, and they are motivated and engaged when they are able to inspire others to help make a difference in the overarching objective. It may be that this desire to help or inspire others to join a cause is motivated by empathy, in which case this task driver versus purpose driver tendency supports the framework of the empathetic and analytical tensions. If the motivation is because of an alignment to a greater purpose—a goal with a longer perspective with measurements for success, albeit less obvious—this group may be processing their decisions through both an analytical and empathetic lens, possibly extending the framework of the empathetic and analytical tension theory. This data supports the need to have additional dimensions beyond the intrinsic and extrinsic tension such as the tensions proposed by Boyatzis et al. (2014).

Temporal Perspective

There is a noticeable difference in the temporal perspective of the decisions being made by people who are task positive versus socio-emotional. Decisions are made based on either the immediate task (transaction) or because the decision is foundational to

transforming or achieving a greater, longer-term objective. This theme seems to impact why one makes the decisions he or she makes based on the locus of time used in reference to the goal or objective, e.g., one-off, task specific or a greater, longer-term purpose orientation. This speaks to the time element that impacts the thought process behind the creation of goals referenced previously (Snyder, 2000). From the work on self-efficacy done by Bandura, people are motivated by the level of personal satisfaction they have around their ability to perform. This intrinsic motivation is sustained through the achievement of sub-goals that connect to larger future goals (Bandura, 1997). Bandura is also referencing the temporal element and how it impacts the desire to accomplish tasks or sub-goals in order to achieve the bigger objective.

The transactional versus transformational leadership model has been used by practitioners to understand how to move their employees beyond a state of self-interest to a shared vision by providing meaning and purpose to their work. The underpinning is that a transformational leadership style uses inspiration through the connection to a higher purpose to motivate and engage followers to achieve a desired performance (Bass, 1990). This research indicates that this transformational leadership style may not always be better. The style of leadership best deployed may depend on where the individual falls on the continuum between being transactional or transformational. This supports the assertions summarized by Kowal Smith (2010), Bass (1990), and Lowe et al. (1996) that the best leaders use both styles. A possible contribution to this body of work is that a person who is more transactional may prefer, or possibly need, the aspirational vision to be translated into milestones, tasks or goals that, upon completion, would move the individual towards the desired end state. A transactional perspective's preference would

be to clearly see the end goal on the horizon. A more transformational person would flourish under an inspirational approach of aligning around a meaningful purpose, and being given flexibility to work around, through or even without specific goals.

Life Work Integration versus Separation

Task-positive and socio-emotional people seem to look at the integration or separation of work and life differently which appears to be connected to how they process decisions to act or engage. This finding seems to speak to the role their personal purpose or personal goals play in creating alignment with that of the organization and how integrated their work is with the other aspects of their life. Dik and Duffy (2009) establish the construct calling includes an external summons to a higher purpose and an alignment to a personal purpose that is other focused, or an advancement of a greater good. “A calling is a transcendent summons, experienced as originating beyond the self, to approach a particular life role in a manner oriented toward demonstrating or deriving a sense of purpose or meaningfulness and that holds other-oriented values and goals as primary sources of motivation” (Dik & Duffy, 2009: 427). One implication of their view is that individuals connect their work activity to their overall sense of purpose and meaning, or pursue careers that allow their work to be their calling. In either case, this implies an integration of work and life as one’s vocation becomes a tool to accomplish their aspirational purpose. This desire to achieve a personal purpose creates motivation that extends beyond the office.

This research indicates that alignment to visions may exist in two very different ways, either as an alignment to a vision, or purpose, or support of personal goals. It may not be necessary to inspire people to see the greater good, or to stretch beyond themselves

to be motivated, engaged and aligned with a higher purpose vision. Some people can have a personal purpose that is best described in a goal-oriented fashion that is very instrumental in helping a company achieve its higher purpose vision, with a comfortable separation between work and life. At the end of the day, they will help the organization achieve its goal because they feel aligned to the company's vision even though they have a deep desire to keep their personal ambitions and the goals of the company separate.

Implications for Practice

People often choose a lower income to work in the not-for-profit world for personal reasons. This desire to be a part of something bigger, to make a difference, is something organizations may be able to tap into if their company vision is aligned with an employee's personal ambitions. Once this phenomenon is understood, it can be translated into a language that would help organizations understand how to harness this personal drive and intrinsic motivation.

The engagement and motivation of individuals who have a personal purpose or personal goals that can be accomplished through the work they do for an organization is powerful and, once understood, could lead to a more flexible and personalized style of leadership. If an organization has a higher purpose vision that attracts employees with a vision symbiotic with that of the business, many of the traditional forms of external motivation may not be necessary or even appropriate. By understanding why and what motivates task oriented versus socio-emotional people to make decisions, a leader can apply the levers that trigger self-motivation instead of relying on a one size fits all.

A leader could increase motivation and engagement by providing alignment, resources, and support in the form and perspective best understood and desired by each

employee, then stepping away and allowing the employee to access and pull from the personal drive that comes from achieving their own aspirational purpose or goals in life. Similar to the conductor of an orchestra, the leader's primary duties would be to unify the organization, set the pace and tempo, and then listen, observe and direct as necessary to assure the organization is moving in the right direction. Employees who work for an organization that has a higher purpose, and are led by leaders who understand their drivers, can feel fulfilled and motivated as they use many of their waking hours to work towards their personal calling or purpose. At the end of the day, they can feel that their efforts are toward creating and supporting their ideal self, not the "ought self," desired by someone else.

Prior to this study, there was evidence indicating individuals tend to be either analytical or mechanical in their reasoning—a.k.a. task driven, or social—relational in their reasoning—a.k.a. socio-emotional (Boyatzis et al., 2014). The work on task versus socio-emotional leaders indicates that the two tendencies have practical applications to organizations. Task-oriented leaders, similar to transactional leaders, are perceived as most effective when they are leading in a situation that is operational and socio-emotional leaders, similar to transformational leaders, are perceived as more effective when change is necessary - requiring a greater sensitivity and awareness of others (Boyatzis et al., 2014); suggesting that leaders need to adjust their style to match the situation. This study supports this emerging understanding by indicating that there is a tendency to not only behave in coordination with one's natural predisposition, but suggests it goes much deeper than this. Leaders tend to also process information and make decisions differently based on their natural tendency to be task focused or socio-emotional. The implications

of this being a natural tendency versus learned behavior that is easily modified has implications to the theory that leaders are able to focus on the task as well as the relationships and greater purpose simultaneously. It may not be as easy as teaching leaders how to be more socio-emotional. Effective leadership may require the enough emotional intelligence, specifically around their awareness of self, to realize that their tendency to be either task driven and analytical or social and emotional may make them less effective as a leader in some situations and with some types of people.

Future Research

This phase was done within for-profit organizations, but the indications that symbiotic visions impact people in different ways is strong enough that it would be illuminating to do similar research in not-for-profit organizations to understand the similarities and differences.

This phase illuminates the possible benefits of connecting to an individual's aspirational purpose or goals in a meaningful way through the related task positive versus socio-emotional construct. Future research should be done specifically on goal versus purpose drivers. To do this, clarification of the terms will need to be done to create unbiased and other determined classifications. Even with the limitations of this phase, two categories emerged. Future research should be done on how to connect one's personal purpose and goals to a company's higher purpose and how to fit it into current and developing leadership theory.

There is work being done to understand what leaders need to do to motivate and engage their employees. Further research could be done to understand the relationship between leadership theories and the follower's response. The discovery of an analytical

versus empathetic tension is very important to understanding how followers make decisions. This research supports this theory and may be able to extend it to understand if this is a two-dimensional framework or a continuum impacted by one's motivational driver. More research should be done to understand this relationship and the implications to leadership and communication styles.

Although both groups reference the importance of relationships, 50% of the task-focused group speak about their identification with teams compared with no one in the socio-emotional group referencing teams or the personal identity associated with a team. Relationships are explored in the context of this phase only to understand if they exist or are absent. Additional research should be done to understand the role relationships and team identities play in task-positive versus socio-emotional decision styles.

Limitations

This phase is exploratory in nature and designed to discover the role of personal purpose and personal goals when a symbiotic relationship with a higher purpose company vision and positive relationships existed or are absent. Therefore, interviews are conducted with senior leaders that are considered high performers in organizations that have a recognized higher purpose vision. This phase does not consider what happens when high-performing employees have a personal purpose but work within an organization that does not have a higher purpose vision, or what happens when employees are not senior leaders in the organization nor are considered high-performers. More research would need to be done before this could be applied to the greater employee population.

This phase does not assume that personal purpose is stable. Personal purpose and goals can evolve and change over time and this study only captures a point in time in which the senior leaders interviewed identify with the higher purpose vision of their organization.

This phase does not imply that goal-driven or purpose-driven tendencies are good or bad, simply different. A clear definition of both terms is not disclosed prior to the interviews in order to not bias the selection of the participants or the direction of the responses to the questions. The apparent bias against being goal based and various understandings of the meaning of being purpose driven create a limitation that is mediated as much as possible by using an already existing construct to categorize the themes based on Saldaña's (2013) approach to allowing conceptual frameworks to emerge in the coding process. The first question is used to place people into groups that are defined by prior research on the topic of motivational drivers, but this should be verified through another study that provides more clarification on the difference between the two drivers.

A fourth limitation is that all of the interviews are done with people in leadership positions. A similar study should be done of individuals not in leadership positions to understand if that variable impacts the findings.

Conclusion

Purpose and goals play a role in alignment to visions, motivation, and engagement. High performing leaders are able to articulate and understand the symbiotic nature of their purpose or personal goals with that of the organization, yet how they frame their motivation and engagement is different depending on their orientation.

By understanding the roles personal purpose and goals play in alignment to company vision, motivation, and engagement, a leader can apply the levers that trigger self-motivation. Additional research in this area could break the code to helping leaders increase motivation and engagement through alignment, and by providing resources and support in the form and perspective best understood and desired by each employee, allowing the leader to then step away as employees access and pull from the personal drive that comes from achieving their own aspirational purpose or goals in life.

CHAPTER III: THE IMPACT OF INDIVIDUAL AND COMPANY PURPOSE

Introduction

The need to focus, energize, and retain good employees continues to become more critical due to competitive pressures and the mobility of the workforce.

Organizations are seeking to achieve this by increasing the level of engagement and commitment of their workforce. This pursuit is logical as the level of engagement has been shown to positively impact performance (Macey & Schneider, 2008) and committed employees stay with their employer longer (Boyatzis et al., 2012; Cardador et al., 2011; Mowday et al., 1979).

Yet with significant effort and focus over the past decade and still only one-third of the U.S. workforce indicating they feel engaged—the problem has not been solved (Adkins, 2015; Beck & Harter, 2014). To move the dial on engagement and commitment, it is necessary to re-explore engagement and commitment and identify other, more effective ways leaders can impact them.

This phase continues to explore the role of purpose. Personal purpose drives personal engagement. Seeking meaning, one of the predecessors to, and components of personal purpose, is a choice and it is deliberate (Frankl, 1959a)—making it tangible. If a personal purpose has a positive relationship with engagement and commitment, organizations would have another tangible tool to increase focus and retention of their employees.

The concept of a higher purpose—a purpose that benefits others apart from the individual (Duffy & Sedlacek, 2007)—is being applied to organizations (Mackey & Sisodia, 2014; Sheth et al., 2003; Waddock & Graves, 2000). Having a company purpose

is tangible and has been demonstrated to positively impact engagement (Shuck & Rose, 2013). It is logical that a company with a higher purpose—one that is about more than simply profits—would therefore positively correlate with engagement and commitment as well.

As previously demonstrated, positive relationships positively impact engagement and commitment (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002) and are a key driver in initiating sustainable change (Boyatzis et al., 2012).

Finally, whereas engagement and commitment reflect elements of company performance, what a person brings to the job is also important. Understanding the impact of personal and company higher purpose, and the relational climate within the organization around a shared vision, have on life satisfaction compliments and balances out engagement and commitment—which are both company focused—by bringing in a personal dimension.

The premise being explored is that the tangible elements of having a personal purpose, company higher purpose, and positive relational climate around sharing this purpose have a positive impact on engagement, commitment, and life satisfaction. The specific research question for this phase of the study is:

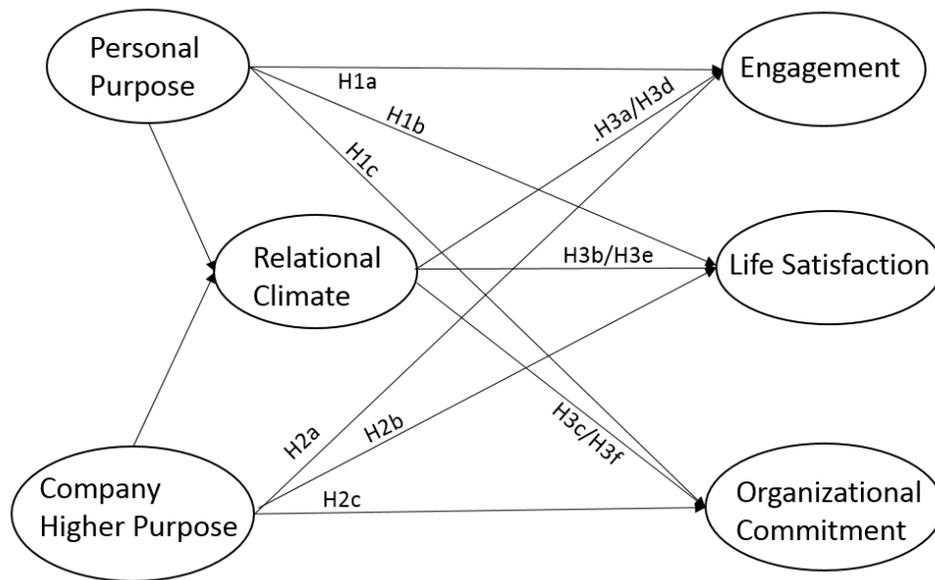
What impact does having a personal purpose and a company having a higher purpose have on one's engagement with and commitment to work and their level of satisfaction with life—with and without a relational climate that supports sharing a company vision?

Theory and Hypotheses

A company purpose, whether it is considered a higher purpose or not, comes from the organization. A personal purpose, on the other hand, needs to be identified and developed by the individual. Measuring the presence of a company higher purpose

statement and personal purpose captures other-imposed and self-created dimensions that have been theorized to have a positive impact on engagement, commitment, and life satisfaction. Engagement, organizational commitment, and life satisfaction capture multiple dimensions from the impact on the organization (engagement and organizational commitment) to the impact on the individual (life satisfaction). This phase seeks to also understand the dimension of relational climate and the impact it has on the above relationships. The hypothesized model with the proposed hypotheses is shown in Figure 5.

Figure 5. Hypothesized Model



Engagement

The understanding of engagement and the impact on the work people do is not new. In 1990, *personal engagement* and *disengagement* is described as the continuum people experience when they are personally connected to, and fully present in, a work situation (Kahn, 1990). Engagement is also defined as a state of mind that is associated

with a willingness to exert energy, perseverance, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003)—a person's connection to, and the gratification they get from the work they do (Harter et al., 2002). Gallup correlates *employee engagement* with company performance (Adkins, 2015) and companies track engagement as a leading indicator of performance.

Organizational Commitment

Although engagement shares a dimension of commitment, it is not the same construct as organizational commitment. Engagement is a psychological state that affects commitment (Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Elangovan et al. (2010) propose that although one's individual purpose may increase engagement, this may not translate to organizational commitment as people may feel engaged with the work they do but not necessarily committed to the company. Therefore, both are explored.

Life Satisfaction

One of the themes that comes through quite clearly in the qualitative phase is a general sense of satisfaction with life. One's satisfaction with life can be the result of many factors, health, job, family, etc., yet no one aspect is dominant over any other in the first phase. The reference to life satisfaction is very general in nature. Although enjoying one's job is logically one factor (Sekaran, 1983), social and emotional support from family and others are strong factors in one's overall satisfaction (Adams et al., 1996). For this reason, it is important that one's assessment of their satisfaction with life be an overall evaluation versus an assessment of specific elements (Diener et al., 1985). When asked in a holistic way, not connected to a point in time, life satisfaction scales tend to be

relatively stable and consistent (Diener, 2014). Understanding the impact on life satisfaction of having a personal purpose, company purpose and a relational climate that supports a shared vision adds an individual benefit to balance out the benefit to the organization of engagement and commitment.

Personal Purpose

The presence of a purpose and a calling motivates and drives people toward an accomplishment (Damon et al., 2003; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000); people are stimulated, fulfilled and dedicated (Bakker et al., 2008). An increased level of purpose will increase life fulfillment (Zika et al., 1992) and happiness (Debats et al., 1993). And embracing a purpose in the work that one does is correlated with the perception of a positive work experience, gratification, and well-being (Bonebright, 2000; Duffy & Dik, 2013). Aspirational dreams of our future, or our purpose in life, also describe a key element in defining our ‘Ideal Self.’ The ideal self is what an individual wants their future to be—a realization of their dreams which are a function of their personal purpose (Boyatzis & Akrivou, 2006). There are two key components to one’s personal purpose: the actual dream or image that makes up the content of a purpose, and hope—the positive emotional driver that leads an individual towards their future image or state (Boyatzis & Akrivou, 2006). The positive impact of having a personal purpose on engagement is shown in an empirical study (Buse & Bilimoria, 2014). The following hypotheses are built on the premise that having a personal purpose will positively influence not only engagement but life satisfaction, and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 1a. Personal Purpose has a positive impact on Engagement.

Hypothesis 1b. Personal Purpose has a positive impact on Life Satisfaction.

Hypothesis 1c. Personal Purpose has a positive impact on Organizational Commitment.

Company Higher Purpose

A company vision is a desired state of products, services, and an organization that a leader wants to realize (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). It is an idyllic and distinctive representation of the future (Kouzes & Posner, 1987).

The notion is that a company higher purpose positions a company to build a financially sustainable organization that creates both social good (e.g., making the world a better place) and social capital (e.g., trusting and committed relationships with all stakeholders) (Beer et al., 2011). A higher purpose goes beyond generating only profits and shareholder value (Mackey & Sisodia, 2014).

Simply having a company purpose is tangible and positively impacts engagement (Shuck & Rose, 2013). It is logical that a company with a higher purpose—one that is about more than simply profits—will therefore positively correlate with engagement and commitment as well. Whether or not a company having a higher purpose impacts the perception of life satisfaction is not yet explored.

Hypothesis 2a. Company Higher Purpose has a positive impact on Engagement.

Hypothesis 2b. Company Higher Purpose has a positive impact on Life Satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2c. Company Higher Purpose has a positive impact on Organizational Commitment.

Relational Climate

One's relationships at work have been demonstrated to be relevant, yet relationships and types of relationships can be broad. It is necessary to appropriately capture the nature of relationships and minimize the impact of the situation. To overcome

the influence of the situational perception, this phase of the study uses a construct that measures the climate created at work as a result of the relational culture developed over time—in particular, the relational nature of the organization around the sharing of information. Relational climate is the perception of a mutual understanding and identification with a group or company (Rochford, 2015). One’s decision to engage at work and make a commitment to the organization would appear to be influenced by the mutual understanding and identification with the company and/or people within the organization. The influence could be significant enough to be a critical element in how having a purpose impacts engagement, life satisfaction, and commitment.

Hypothesis 3a. The relational climate mediates the relationship between Personal Purpose and Engagement.

Hypothesis 3b. The relational climate mediates the relationship between Personal Purpose and Life Satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3c. The relational climate mediates the relationship between Personal Purpose and Organizational Commitment.

Hypothesis 3d. The relational climate mediates the relationship between Company Higher Purpose and Engagement.

Hypothesis 3e. The relational climate mediates the relationship between Company Higher Purpose and Life Satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3f. The relational climate mediates the relationship between Company Higher Purpose and Organizational Commitment.

Method

A quantitative phase is done to empirically understand the impact of personal purpose, company purpose and the relational climate on engagement, life satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Data is collected from individual leaders in U.S.-based for-profit organizations large enough to have at least 20 people in a senior manager, or

higher, position. The individuals that complete the survey are from 12 companies in four industries: manufacturing (4), financial services (2), insurance (2), and professional services (4). Participating organizations are recruited through networking. After cleaning the data, there are 546 completed surveys.

Measures

Participants are asked about their personal purpose, company purpose, relational climate, engagement, life satisfaction, and organizational commitment using the following scales. The questions associated with each scale are in Appendix A.

Personal Purpose

The Ideal Self scale is used because it reflects the intentional and desired future a person has upon reflection of their personal purpose (Boyatzis & Akrivou, 2006). All five Ideal Self scales (ISH - hope, ISP - sense of purpose, ISHV - holistic vision, ISM - deeper meaning, and ISF - fun) are included in the survey using a 7-point Likert scale from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (7). Purpose, holistic vision, meaning, and fun make up different aspects of the context of a personal purpose and the hope component is the emotional driver to achieving this purpose.

Company Higher Purpose

A company purpose is an articulation of its idyllic and desired future state (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Kouzes & Posner, 1987) and has the potential of providing more meaning to employees than the traditional single focus of earning more profits. It is established from the qualitative phase that senior managers who identify with their organization’s higher purpose make a personal connection to their own goals and/or personal purpose. People that find meaning in their work have a higher degree of

satisfaction with and commitment to the work they do (Steger, Dik, & Duffy, 2012). The understanding of a higher purpose vision is rather new and existing literature does not identify items and scales that allow individuals to assess their perception of whether or not their organization has a vision that is about making a positive impact on the world versus bottom line profits. Therefore, three questions are created using the guidelines recommended by Blair, Czaja, and Blair (2014). Respondents are assessed as to if they feel their company purpose or vision can be characterized as a higher purpose vision by asking them to rate, on a 7-point Likert scale from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (7), their responses to: (a) The primary purpose of my organization is to make profit; (b) The purpose of my organization includes more than making a profit; (c) The purpose of my organization is to make a positive impact on people other than just the investors. The questions are reviewed by a small sample of professionals and included in a pilot to assess the conceptual logic and wording of each question. The Cronbach Alpha for this scale is 0.749, which is above the recommended limit of 0.70 (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010).

Relational Climate

The relational climate scales are selected because they are developed to capture an assessment of the culture created through the dynamic interaction of dyads, teams, and the overall organization. The scale developed by Rochford is based on the Emotional Attractor concept (PEA and NEA) in Boyatzis’ Intentional Change Theory (Boyatzis & Rochford, 2015; Boyatzis, Rochford, & Taylor, 2015). It captures the climate within the organization around relationships by assessing the perception of shared vision (the extent to which employees share a common understanding of the company’s purpose, mission,

and vision), compassion (the extent to which employees reach out to assist or empathize with fellow employees) and relational energy (the extent to which relationships with fellow employees create positive energy and an eagerness to act). The climate is preferred as it captures the culture around the shared perception versus an individual's perception (Rochford, 2015). All three subscales are included and scored on a 7-point Likert scale from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (7).

Job Engagement

Engagement is selected because it emphasizes involvement (Maslach & Leiter, 1997) and being fully present (Kahn, 1992)—characteristics desired in employees by their employers. The well-established Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) is included in the survey in its entirety. Items are scored on a 7-point Likert scale from “never” (1) to “always” (7) (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003).

Life Satisfaction

The Diener et al. (1985) Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) is used to assess the respondent's perception of their life satisfaction as a whole versus a cumulative positive affect or intensity of happiness at the moment. Life satisfaction measures one type of well-being, and although well-being is subjective by nature and temporally sensitive, the SWLS scale demonstrates consistency over short periods of time (Diener et al., 2013; Larsen, Diener, & Emmons, 1985). Five items are included using a 7-point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (7).

Organizational Commitment

Mowday et al. (1979) developed Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) scales geared toward organizational commitment of an individual in light of their

attitudinal commitment to the organization. Organizational commitment, for the purpose of developing the OCQ instrument, include an acceptance of the organization's values and goals, a willingness to do what is needed, and a strong intent to stay with the company. Attitudinal commitment is chosen over behavioral commitment to understand how employees perceive their commitment, which is very personal in nature, versus how they may choose to demonstrate their commitment, which may have other motivations behind the actions (Hecht & Allen, 2009). The original scale contains 15 items, six of which were negatively worded statements—included with the intent to guard against socially desirable or biased answers. The controversy around using reverse or negatively worded survey questions has been going on for decades with questionable utility (Barnette, 2000). Mowday et al. (1979) recognizes the concern that the length of the survey could be a deterrent to getting busy executives and acknowledged that, in these situations, the nine positively stated items are sufficient. The 9 questions are presented on a Likert scale from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (7).

Results

Measurement Model

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) is done in SPSS to identify how many factors are necessary to explain the association of variables. The Factor Loadings table is shown in Appendix B. The ideal-self scales *hope* and *purpose* come together to form one factor. This combination is supported as *hope* is the emotional driver behind one's personal purpose (Boyatzis, 2006). The hypothesized construct of personal purpose is best reflected by both the purpose and hope elements of the ideal self-scale because they contain the elements of defining one's purpose as well as the positive emotional driver

included in the hope component (Boyatzis, 2006). This is reflected in the questions, e.g., 1) I feel inspired by my vision of the future; 2) My vision reflects many possibilities; 3) My vision includes my desired legacy in life; and 4) My vision of the future reflects the things most important to me. This construct was identified as Personal Purpose.

To identify the simplest and best representation of factors, the variables that demonstrated cross-loadings with a delta smaller than 0.02 (Hair et al., 2010) are deleted using an iterate process. The final configuration with the 6 factors of interest demonstrates strong convergent and discriminant validity with all loadings being greater than 0.41 and factor correlations less than 0.609 which is less than the recommended cut-off of 0.7 (Hair et al., 2010).

The factors are reflective of the constructs and not causal. There are considered reliable and consistent with Cronbach's Alphas all above the recommended limit of 0.70 (Hair et al., 2010). Descriptive statistics, including the mean, standard deviation, number of variables, correlations and Cronbach's Alphas for the final constructs are listed in Table 4.

Table 4. Mean, Standard Deviations, Number of Variables, Cronbach's Alphas

		Mean	SD	# of Items	PP	ENG	OC	LS	RCSV	CP
1	Personal Purpose (PP)	5.848	0.106	10	0.909					
2	Engagement (ENG)	5.465	0.128	9	0.498	0.909				
3	Org Commitment (OC)	5.584	0.108	7	0.337	0.625	0.901			
4	Life Satisfaction (LS)	5.542	0.100	5	0.444	0.291	0.292	0.867		
5	Relational Climate Shared Vision (RCSV)	5.346	0.073	4	0.330	0.491	0.523	0.216	0.910	
6	Company Purpose (CP)	4.200	0.213	3	0.179	0.317	0.424	0.163	0.448	0.749

* Cronbach's Alphas are on the diagonal

The final measurement model, as shown in Appendix C, exhibits good statistical, relative and absolute model fit with a CMIN/df of 1.977 ($p < .000$), GFI of 0.892, NFI of 0.907, CFI of 0.952, SRMR of .0412 and an RMSEA of 0.0421—all within acceptable range (Hair et al., 2010).

Reliability and Validity

The measurement model demonstrates evidence of reliability with Composite Reliability (CR) values above 0.70 for each construct (Hair et al., 2010). Convergent validity is evident with an Average Variance Explained (AVE) for each factor above 0.50 (Hair et al., 2010). The model also displays discriminant validity with each factor’s (i) Maximum Shared Variance (MSV) being less than its AVE, (ii) Average Shared Variance (ASV) being less than its AVE, and (iii) square root of its AVE being greater than the values for all correlation coefficients—AVE, MSV, and ASV (Hair et al., 2010), as shown in Table 5.

Table 5. Validity and Reliability

	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV	$\sqrt{\text{AVE}}$
PP	0.911	0.514	0.261	0.143	0.717
ENG	0.913	0.545	0.419	0.227	0.738
LS	0.882	0.603	0.205	0.084	0.777
RCSV	0.912	0.722	0.266	0.172	0.850
CP	0.778	0.563	0.211	0.119	0.750
OC	0.897	0.560	0.419	0.213	0.749

PP = Personal Purpose, ENG = Engagement, LS = Life Satisfaction, RCSV = Relational Climate around Shared Vision, CP = Company Higher Purpose and OC = Organizational Commitment.

The delta between the regression weights with and without the common latent factor are below the recommended threshold of 0.20 (Hair et al., 2010) supporting that common method bias is not an issue.

Structural Model

The hypothesized relationships focus on the direct and indirect impact of personal purpose and company purpose on engagement, life satisfaction, and organizational commitment with relational climate as a mediator.

The structural model has good statistical, relative, and absolute model fit with a CMIN/df of 2.059 ($p < .000$), NFI of 0.903, CFI of 0.948, SRMR of 0.0691 and a RMSEA 0.044 (Hair et al., 2010). Five out of the six direct relationship hypotheses are supported. Hypotheses 1a, 1b and 1c are all supported (H1a; $\beta = .407$, $p < .000$ / H1b; $\beta = .444$, $p < .000$ / H1c; $\beta = .213$, $p < .000$), indicating that having a personal purpose has a positive impact on one's level of engagement, life satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Hypotheses 2a and 2c are also supported (H2a; $\beta = .165$, $p < .000$ / H2c; $\beta = .292$, $p < .000$), reflecting that the existence of a company purpose that is about more than profits positively impacts one's engagement and organizational commitment. Hypothesis 2b, however, is not supported (H2b $p = .163$). Interestingly, the presence of a company higher purpose does not have a significant impact on one's satisfaction with life. A summary of the direct effects and their corresponding p values is shown in Table 6 and in Figure 6.

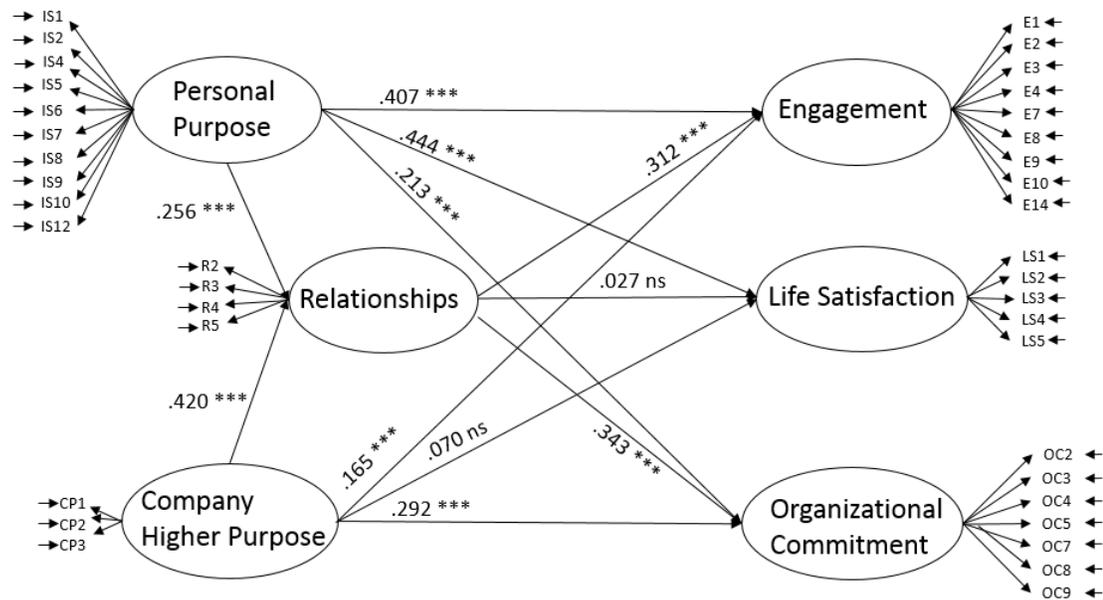
Not hypothesized, but interesting to note, is that relational climate around shared vision directly impacts engagement and commitment, but as with company higher purpose, it does not directly impact life satisfaction.

Table 6. Summary of Direct Effects

<i>Hypothesized path</i>	<i>Standardized Regression β</i>	<i>P value</i>	<i>Supported?</i>
H1a + Personal Purpose → Engagement	.407	***	Yes
H1b + Personal Purpose → LifeSat	.444	***	Yes
H1c + Personal Purpose → OC	.213	***	Yes
H2a + Company Purpose → Engagement	.165	***	Yes
H2b + Company Purpose → LifeSat	.070	.163	No
H2c + Company Purpose → OC	.292	***	Yes
RCSV → Engagement	.312	***	
RCSV → LifeSat	.027	.621	
RCSV → OC	.343	***	

*** p value < .000

Figure 6. Structural Model with Standardized Regression Weights for Direct Effects



The percentage of variance explained for each dependent variable is even more revealing. The amount of variance explained by personal purpose only, in engagement and life satisfaction, 29% and 21% respectively, is significantly higher than the variance explained by company purpose alone at 16% and 3% respectively. When someone that

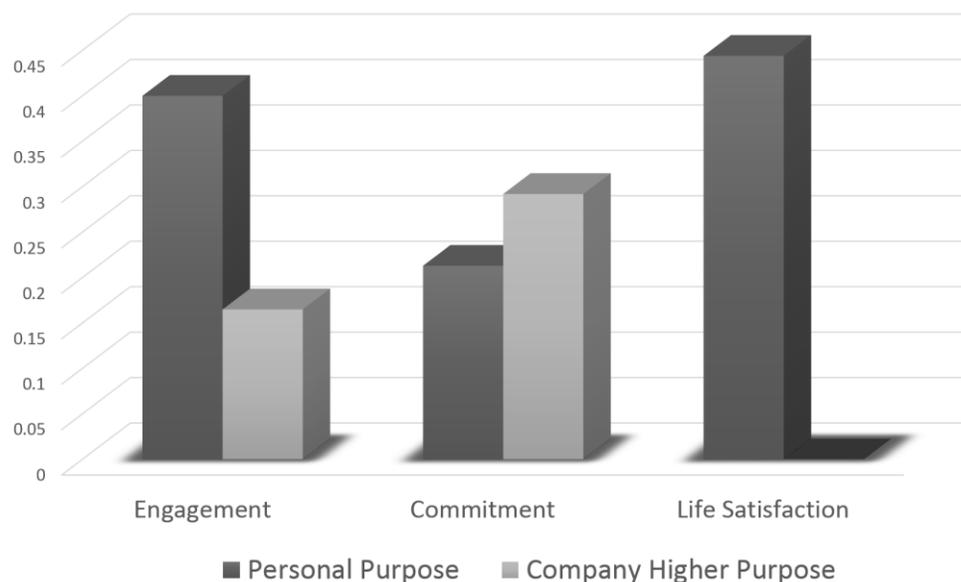
has a personal purpose feels their company vision is shared, this percentage of variance explained increases to 40% for engagement, remaining the same for life satisfaction. So not only does a personal purpose increase the level of engagement over just having a company higher purpose vision, but sharing this vision increases this elevated level of engagement even more as shown in Table 7 through the R² comparisons for each dependent variable and Figure 7.

Table 7. R² Comparisons for Dependent Variable

<i>Predictor Variables</i>	<i>Engagement</i>	<i>Commitment</i>	<i>Life Satisfaction</i>
PP, CP and RCSV	0.398	0.37	0.21
PP and CP only	0.335	0.295	0.211
PP and RCSV	0.408	0.333	0.216
PP only	0.285	0.144	0.216
CP and RCSV	0.29	0.363	0.049
CP only	0.161	0.254	0.033

PP = Personal Purpose, ENG = Engagement, LS = Life Satisfaction, RCSV = Relational Climate around Shared Vision, CP = Company Higher Purpose and OC = Organizational Commitment.

Figure 7. Standardized Regression Weight Comparison



Hypotheses 3a–3f are all reflective of the mediating effect of relationships around shared purpose. The perception of a positive relational climate around a shared purpose demonstrates complimentary mediation (Zhao, Lynch, & Chen, 2010), enhancing the positive effect of both personal purpose (PP) and company purpose (CP) on engagement and organizational commitment. This same perception of a positive relationship around shared purpose does not mediate the relationship between personal purpose and life satisfaction. The direct relationship is significant, and there is no complimentary effect of RCSV. RCSV does not mediate the relationship between having a company purpose and life satisfaction either. It is important to note that the direct relationship between company purpose (CP) and life satisfaction is not significant with or without mediation. A summary of the mediated effects and their corresponding p values is shown in Table 8.

Table 8. Summary of Mediated Effects

<i>Hypothesized path</i>	<i>Total Effect</i>	<i>Direct Effect</i>	<i>Indirect Effect</i>	<i>Mediation Type</i>
H3a PP → RCSV → ENG	.608 (.002)	.411 (.002)	.060 (.003)	Complimentary
H3b: PP → RCSV → LS	.685 (.002)	.513 (.003)	-.033 (.574)	Direct Only
H3c: PP → RCSV → OC	.432 (.006)	.171 (.006)	.068 (.003)	Complimentary
H3d: CP → RCSV → ENG	.187 (.005)	.043 (.003)	.055 (.003)	Complimentary
H3e: CP → RCSV → LS	.062 (.079)	-.029 (.186)	-.028 (.560)	No Mediation
H3f: CP → RCSV → OC	.310 (.003)	.127 (.004)	.063 (.003)	Complimentary

PP = Personal Purpose, ENG = Engagement, LS = Life Satisfaction, RCSV = Relational Climate around Shared Vision, CP = Company Higher Purpose and OC = Organizational Commitment.

Discussion

The purpose is to contribute to the understanding of the role purpose plays in company and personal outcomes. The quantitative phase explores the impact of having a personal purpose, company higher purpose, and positive relational climate around sharing

this purpose on engagement, commitment, and life satisfaction. Knowing that intrinsic motivation is more powerful than extrinsic motivation and that purpose ignites this internal motivation opens up the possibility that leaders could be more effective in increasing engagement and commitment if they tap into purpose at the individual and corporate level. This research empirically supports that when a company has a higher purpose, beyond making a profit, employees are more likely to engage in their work and commit to their organization, but this phase of the study found an even stronger positive effect on engagement when someone has identified a personal purpose. When there is a perception of a company higher purpose, and these employees have their own articulated personal purpose, engagement, and organizational commitment are increased. The positive impact on life satisfaction from having a personal purpose over a company higher purpose is also significant.

Having a company purpose is the equivalent of using only one tool when you have a completely different tool available to you that can do the same job—only better. Even more powerful is that, unlike company purpose, having a personal purpose has a positive impact on one's life satisfaction. This powerful tool can drive a higher level of engagement and commitment to the organization as well as increasing an employee's satisfaction with life overall—something a company higher purpose alone does not positively impact. Developing a higher purpose for an organization, helping employees identify their personal purpose and creating a positive relational climate are all tangible things leaders can impact and measure. The practitioner community already has access to techniques and tools to support the creation of a higher purpose vision based on the understanding that this will impact engagement, without realizing the additional benefit

of a positive relationship to organizational commitment. There are also tools developed to help employees identify and or articulate a personal purpose for an individual's personal benefit. This phase brings to light that both are affective tools to influencing engagement and commitment, with a personal purpose not only having a greater impact but also increasing life satisfaction; introducing the possibility of an amplified impact by not just using one or the other, but applying both.

Equally revealing is that positive relationships around a shared vision do not mediate the relationship between company purpose or personal purpose and life satisfaction. Working for a company that has a higher purpose does not impact one's satisfaction with life, with or without this purpose being shared. Having positive relationships around a shared vision does not mediate the relationship between personal purpose and life satisfaction either but the direct relationship between having a personal purpose and life satisfaction is quite strong. Employees in management roles have a greater sense of satisfaction with life if they have identified their own personal purpose. Satisfaction with life is correlated to contentment—a degree of happiness and well-being—which is an element of flourishing (Ciulla, 2002). Well-being is a construct made up of positive emotions, engagement, interest, meaning, and purpose, measuring how happy one is (Seligman, 2013). The implication of this research is that even though sharing a vision does not improve life satisfaction, progressive employers who want to increase contentment and well-being for their employees have a means to do this. Helping employees identify with a personal purpose, even if it is not connected to the organization's purpose, may directly impact their well-being.

The theoretical and practical implications to this research are powerful. One of the leader's primary roles is to motivate and engage their employees, but knowing how to do this is a challenge. Now leaders can manage to certain tangible objectives that will have the positive impact on the engagement and commitment they are striving for. Second—the responsibility and onus for improving an employee's engagement is currently on the leader and not on the follower. This research is done from the individual's perception, a.k.a. the "follower," revealing that identifying one's personal purpose will increase their personal satisfaction with life. Instead of taking on all the responsibility to motivate and engage employees—a one-sided effort, leaders could facilitate the personal discovery of an employee's purpose. Employees could be given the responsibility of identifying their personal purpose - motivated by the positive impact on their life satisfaction. Yet the organization could also benefit from a higher level of engagement and commitment.

Limitations

This research breaks ground in the area of the positive impact having a personal purpose can have not only on the individual but on organizations as well; yet with all preliminary research, there are limitations. First, this research is done with employees that are in management positions, in U.S. for-profit organizations, primarily in the Midwest. Identifying with one's personal purpose should not be limited to employees in management positions. More research would need to be done before this could be applied to the greater employee population.

Second, the process for selecting organizations within which the survey was distributed is not random, but based on company size and accessibility. The selection of participants within each organization is random, however, but within relatively small

populations for some of the organizations selected. The criteria for having at least 20 people in senior management positions with some organizations having over 300 possible participants minimizes the impact of this limitation, but it would be beneficial to expand the scope of the organizations surveyed.

Third, our results are correlational and directional, not causal. The research only indicates that having a company higher purpose, a personal purpose and/or a positive relational climate around shared vision are positively correlated with engagement, commitment, and life satisfaction. And purpose is temporal and can change over time. For both of these reasons, there is value in doing additional research to look at purpose over time with both longitudinal and dynamic modeling designs.

Finally, this research focuses in on the relational climate around sharing a company vision. There are many other dimensions to relationships with an organization. The impact of different relational dimensions on elements of employee performance and satisfaction should be studied to develop a more robust understanding of company and personal purpose.

Despite these limitations, the findings provide a strong foundation for understanding the powerful impact helping employees identify and articulate their personal purpose can have on them personally as well as benefiting the organization.

Future Research

This phase demonstrates that a personal purpose, without any consideration for whether this personal purpose is related to or connected to the organization's purpose, positively impacts engagement, organizational commitment and one's satisfaction with life. Simply having a personal purpose has a positive impact. It is apparent from the

qualitative phase that some employees do make a personal connection between their personal purpose in life and the purpose of their organization and they feel they are accomplishing their life goals through the work they do at their organization because of this symbiotic relationship. This symbiotic relationship needs to be quantified. How much more might the impact on engagement, commitment and life satisfaction be if a person's personal purpose is symbiotic to—mutually beneficial in nature with—their organization's purpose? Additional research should be done to understand the impact of a symbiotic relationship on factors that impact performance, retention, and satisfaction.

Second, this phase of the study is done within for-profit organizations, but the indications that the impact of the presence of a personal purpose is strong enough that it would be illuminating to do similar research in not-for-profit organizations to understand the similarities and differences.

Third, the possibility that leaders could increase the engagement and commitment of their employees by holding them accountable for developing a personal purpose begins to shift the onus of responsibility from the leaders to a shared obligation. This requires a better understanding conceptually and additional research would need to be done to explore the implications and possibilities.

Conclusion

This phase quantifies the positive effect of having and sharing a higher purpose vision within an organization. The unique contribution of this phase is two-fold: it empirically demonstrates that the self-awareness of a personal purpose elevates one's engagement in, and commitment to, their job and elevates levels of satisfaction with life. And it quantifies the complimentary and enhancing effect of developing a relational

climate around sharing a company vision on the relationship between a company higher purpose and a personal purpose on both engagement and commitment. This gives leaders three tangible and measurable tools - company purpose, personal purpose and a positive relational climate around a shared vision - to increase the engagement and commitment of their workforce, and in the case of personal purpose, improve life satisfaction.

Organizations can have confidence that developing a higher purpose vision provides value to the company through a more engaged and committed workforce. Also by creating a climate in which this vision is shared and providing resources and support for identifying an employee's personal purpose, leaders can help employees access and pull from the personal drive that comes from achieving their own aspirational purpose or goals in life. Demonstrating that the ideal state of high levels of engagement and commitment occur, with the added bonus of increased satisfaction with life, when an organization has a higher purpose, understands how to share their company purpose and helps their employees identify their personal purpose.

CHAPTER IV: THE IMPACT OF BOTH INDIVIDUAL AND PERCEIVED COMPANY HIGHER PURPOSE AND TRANSFORMATIONAL ORIENTATION

Introduction

In order to stay relevant and profitable in an ever-increasing competitive environment, leaders are not only helping companies compete for market share and sales, but they are competing to attract and retain high-performing employees. The means to win on both fronts appear to be opposing, forcing leaders to focus on one over the other. In the traditional sense, competing for market share and growth requires organizations to focus on external forces, such as status, sales, and profits (Kempster, Jackson, & Conroy, 2011). Whereas attracting and retaining employees requires creating a way for employees to connect emotionally to the organization due to people having a greater sense of commitment when they see the connection to a societal purpose (Kempster et al., 2011).

The two are not as diametrically opposed as once assumed. Jim Collins and Jerry Porras studied 18 companies over 6 years to understand the characteristics of companies that outperform over an extended period of time. Their research debunks a common myth that visionary companies, companies that transcend several leaders and maintain a long track record of success, focus primarily on maximizing profits and beating the competition (Collins & Porras, 2005).

In their book *Built to Last*, several of the themes that emerge create a picture of how successful organizations can grow and be profitable by connecting emotionally to their high performing employees. They describe 1) ‘building a clock versus telling time’—organizations that focus on a core value system and ideology instead of relying on a charismatic leader, great product ideas and only bottom line profits; 2) a “cult” like culture that although it does not fit everyone—allows the employees that connect

personally to hold fervently to a collective set of values and ideologies; 3) having BHAGs, Big Hairy Audacious Goals, which creates a team spirit that unifies and focuses the organization; and 4) the BHAG's, as well as the vision for the future, drive day-to-day decisions and longer term elements of strategy and are built out of the set of core values and ideologies that are integrated within the fiber of the organization.

Porras and Collins are talking about what Arogyaswamy and Byles (1987) define as corporate culture; the often implicit, shared and transmittable values and ideologies, created by the organization. Culture includes elements from how people dress and the words they use, to how people make decisions, communicate and interact with each other (Schwartz & Davis, 1981). There is a powerful unity and focus that can come from creating a strong cultural, social or group identity due to an increase in in-group loyalty and ethnocentrism that occurs (Hogg, 2001).

A key element of company culture is knowledge, especially the tacit or implicit knowledge that is made up of beliefs and perceptions that are “so ingrained that we take them for granted” (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995: 8). Where explicit knowledge can be documented and referred to, tacit knowledge becomes part of the fiber of an organizational culture. A culture's effectiveness, including this implied knowledge, is contingent on how tightly it is linked to the corporate strategy as well as cohesion and consistency within the organization (Arogyaswamy & Byles, 1987; O'Reilly, 1989). Organizations with a strong culture have higher levels of agreement and consistency in how employees respond or act (O'Reilly, 1989).

Culture is not only complex but an ever-changing dynamic making it very difficult to empirically study. The scope of this phase is limited to one small slice of

culture that comes through as a dominant theme in the research done by Porras and Collins—the orientation a company has towards individually and collectively envisioning, believing, and perceiving a future state—from the individual level and from an aggregated perspective within organizations. For the purpose of this study, the orientation toward a positive future state is identified through a company’s higher purpose, employees having a personal purpose and the individual’s and company’s cultural orientation towards being transformational—and the effect these antecedents have separately, and in various combinations, on engagement and commitment—two factors associated with company performance and employee retention (Adkins, 2015; Harter et al., 2002; Kahn, 1990).

Theoretical Framework

Company Higher Purpose

By its very nature, a company vision includes an element of an ideal future state (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Kouzes & Posner, 1987) that echoes the values of an organization (Shamir et al., 1993). This vision, when shared, is an important tool to drive change and align behaviors throughout the organization (Hodgkinson, 2002; Van Oosten, 2006). The vision, when understood and embraced by the organization, acts as a compass that guides the company towards its future. Without a vision, organizations react to the current situation and do not create their future (Collins & Porras, 2008). When the development of a company vision is shared and employees participate in the creation of the organization’s future, their personal investment comes through as energy and hope (Van Oosten, 2006).

The concept of a higher purpose vision is relatively recent and goes beyond generating only profits and shareholder value (Mackey & Sisodia, 2014; Sheth et al., 2003; Waddock & Graves, 2000). A higher purpose is characterized as a company building not just a financially sustainable organization but one that creates both social good (e.g., making the world a better place) and social capital (e.g., trusting and committed relationships with all stakeholders) (Beer et al., 2011).

Personal Purpose

Personal purpose also has an element of envisioning a future state that is used to guide individual choices (Boyatzis & Akrivou, 2006; Seligman, Railton, Baumeister, & Sripada, 2013). Frankl (1959b) identifies purpose and meaning as more than just derivatives of motivation but as the levers used purposefully to overcome circumstances.

Purpose and meaning are separate phenomena that although highly related, actually build off of one another (Rainey, 2014: 22). McKnight and Kashdan (2009) articulate this well by stating, “Purpose is a central, self-organizing life aim that organizes and stimulates goals, manages behaviors, and provides a sense of meaning. Purpose directs life goals and daily decisions by guiding the use of finite personal resources. Instead of governing behavior, purpose offers direction just as a compass offers direction to a navigator” (p. 242). They also state that meaning does not drive purpose, but when one has a sense of purpose, they can find meaning in the work they do towards that purpose.

Personal purpose and a calling are also often used interchangeably and they both drive action and define one’s identity but a calling is thought to be bestowed upon one by

a higher power or a response to a strong inner passion, and a purpose is discovered or found (Elangovan et al., 2010).

Having a personal purpose is not only beneficial to the individual, but it is identified through the 2nd phase of this study that having a personal purpose has a greater impact on engagement within an organization than the company having a higher purpose.

Transformational Orientation

The third element—transformational orientation—transcends both company, through its cultural orientation, and the individual, through one’s personal orientation. The work done on prospection, or future envisioning at the individual level, shows how an individual’s, and company’s cultural, orientation could be connected. Humans can predict hedonic consequences of events that they have never experienced through simulations based on singular or a combination of prior experiences (Gilbert, 2007). A combination of prior experiences should logically play a role in a socially identified group such as an organization in developing a future state that resonates at the individual and company level.

There currently is no measure of company’s cultural orientation; therefore, no means to identify alignment, and if alignment exists, what impact it might have on company outcomes. Transformational orientation is selected because two of the key elements of a transformational leader are to share a vision that is aspirational in nature and goes beyond the individual, as well as igniting a personal connection to the greater good (Bass, 1990; Lowe et al., 1996). Transformational leaders achieve this by inspiring employees in a way that they can identify with their leader, meeting their emotional needs, intellectually stimulating them and/or personally connecting through coaching and

advising (Bass, 1990). In all three approaches, the leader is helping the employee make a personal connection to either what the leader believes in, or the greater vision.

Although transformational leaders will vary in their personal style, there is a commonality in the behaviors they exhibit (Bass, 1990). It is reasonable that these elements of a transformational leader can be applied to an individual's and an organization's cultural orientation. The Transformational Leadership Theory and the aspects of a transformational leader are used to create an index that can measure an individual employee's perception of their own orientation towards being transformational as well as aggregating multiple responses within an organization to understand the perception of a company orientation towards being transformational or transactional in nature.

Engagement

The ability to measure the existence of, and alignment to, a company's cultural orientation, the existence of a personal purpose, an individual's transformational orientation and a company higher purpose is useful to the practitioner community *if* it has an impact on company outcomes. Engagement is used because it is positively correlated with company performance (Macey & Schneider, 2008) and commitment to an organization is selected because it increases retention (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Cardador et al., 2011; Kapoor & Meachem, 2012; Mowday et al., 1979).

Personal engagement and disengagement denote how people connect to, and participate in, their role at work (Kahn, 1990) through their level of involvement and satisfaction with their work (Harter et al., 2002). Engagement is defined as a positive and pleased state of mind, categorized by vigor, commitment, and captivation; commonly

understood to generate higher levels of energy and a strong connection to work (Bakker et al., 2008; Boyatzis et al., 2012). The more personally relevant and meaningful something is, the more emotionally and physically one is invested in moving towards it; impacting one's energy, focus and drive (Boyatzis et al., 2012).

The desire to achieve one's "ought self," or the self that we feel we ought to be, is less than the desire to reach for our ideal self (Boyatzis, 2008). This illustrates a difference between the individual that is striving to achieve a company vision that is not their own, and the individual that is striving to achieve their personal purpose through the work they do for an organization, or an organizational vision that they are personally invested in or connected to.

Organizational Commitment

Engagement and organizational commitment measure two different things. Although a person may have a strong sense of engagement, this does not necessarily translate to commitment (Elangovan et al., 2010). Whereas engagement is about energy and focus and is linked to productivity and profitability (Loehr & Schwartz, 2003), commitment is about loyalty (Mowday et al., 1979) and relates to one's identification with, and attachment to, their organization as demonstrated through the link between commitment and lower turnover (Goleman & Boyatzis, 2009), lower absenteeism, and longer tenure, with commitment being a stronger predictor of turnover than job satisfaction (Mowday et al., 1979).

Commitment to an organization is not passive, but an active connection in which employees contribute emotionally and physically to the betterment of the company. Commitment can manifest itself through behaviors or attitude and is characterized by an

acceptance of the organization's goals and values, a willingness to work towards these goals and a desire to stay involved (Mowday et al., 1979).

Research Question

This phase explores the impact having a personal purpose *and* a company having a higher purpose has on engagement and commitment and if there is a relationship between personal purpose and a company higher purpose on an individual's, and a company's cultural, orientation towards a transformational nature.

Hypotheses

The Impact of Personal Purpose and Company Purpose

Having a purpose motivates and drives people toward an accomplishment (Damon et al., 2003; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000), and is especially motivating when this purpose is personal and meaningful (Deci & Ryan, 2008). Having a personal purpose is tangible, and something senior leaders are able to articulate and connect with their company purpose as seen in the qualitative phase of this study. The positive impact of having a personal purpose on engagement (Buse & Bilimoria, 2014) and commitment has been demonstrated and empirically supported in the second phase of this study from managers up through top executives. A company higher purpose vision is also future-oriented, tangible, and is demonstrated to positively impact engagement (Shuck & Rose, 2013) and commitment. The second phase of this study demonstrates that individually having a company higher purpose and employees having a personal purpose both positively impacts engagement and company commitment. What has not been explored is if the existence of a personal purpose will moderate the positive impact of company purpose on engagement and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 1a. Personal purpose will increase the impact of the perception of a company purpose on engagement.

Hypothesis 1b. Personal purpose will increase the impact of the perception of a company purpose on organizational commitment.

Secondly, since both personal purpose and company purpose relate positively with engagement and commitment, it is predicted that the existence of a personal purpose, when a company purpose already exists, will increase this impact.

Hypothesis 2a. Having a personal purpose and a perception of a company purpose will have a greater impact on engagement than having only a perception of a company purpose.

Hypothesis 2b. Having a personal purpose and a perception of a company purpose will have a greater impact on organizational commitment than having only a perception of a company purpose.

Transformational Orientation

Transformational leaders motivate employees through inspiration, creating and focusing on a picture of a future state, generating positive energy and intellectually stimulating them—and as a result, employees are apt to work harder toward the goal or vision being communicated (Bass, 1985, 1990). This style of leadership is correlated with the achievement of significant change and increased effectiveness (Lowe et al., 1996). In contrast, a transactional leader is more prone to focusing on the goals and tasks at hand, searching for deviations from rules and standards and intervenes only if a deviation is identified. Predicting that the words to describe both styles are different, the words associated with being transformational and transactional could be used to understand an individual's tendency to be one or the other.

Hypothesis 3a. There is a difference in the transformational versus transactional words individuals use to describe themselves.

Once one's inclination is understood, the difference between one's transformational and transactional tendency could be used to create an individual's transformational orientation index. This index would be reflective of how transformational the individual believes themselves to be, which could then be compared relationally to them having a personal purpose. Because both personal purpose and transformational leadership are future directed, it is predicted that individuals who have a personal purpose will have a higher degree of Individual Transformational Orientation (ITfO).

Hypothesis 3b. There is a difference in an individual's transformational orientation (ITfO) depending on an individual perception of having a personal purpose.

Lowe et al. (1996) derives that the environment and organizational characteristics impact the degree in which transformational leadership is effective. As previously identified, the environment and organizational characteristics are elements of a company culture. Similar to above, it is logical that the words collectively used by employees within the same company to describe the environment or organizational culture could be used to create an index of a company's transformational orientation. With a very similar reasoning as with Hypothesis 3, a company higher purpose is also future directed, supporting a hypothesis that employees who perceive their organization as having a higher purpose will identify their company with a greater degree of Company Transformational Orientation (CTfO).

Hypothesis 4. An individual's perception of their company's transformational orientation (IPCTfO) will vary based on the individual's perception that their company has a higher purpose.

Transformational leaders are characterized as being charismatic, inspirational, intellectually stimulating, and attentive to the individuals which is in contrast to a transactional leader who tends to tie performance to rewards related to goals and manages by exception (Bass, 1990). Organizations are made up of a group of people that work individually and collectively to achieve objectives, goals, and a company vision. It is logical that these same characteristics that are normally applied to leaders can be used to describe individuals, an individual's orientation, as well as a company's cultural orientation. It is also reasonable that the multiplication of the individual's orientation and their company's cultural orientation towards being transformational at the aggregate level would reflect the intensity of a company's congruence on a continuum from being primarily transactional to being primarily transformational. For example, if the individual's orientation towards being transformational is high and the perception that the company's orientation towards being transformational by the employees within that organization is also high, then the multiplication of the two, or the intensity of the organizations congruence toward being transformational, would be very high. If the individual's orientation towards being transformational is high but the aggregate of the perception of the company's cultural orientation towards being transformational is low, by multiplying them together this would have a dampening effect on the intensity of the organizations transformational congruence. A company's orientation towards a transformational culture would be the difference between the intensity of the company's transformational congruence and the intensity of the company's transactional congruence.

Hypothesis 5. A company's orientation towards a transformational culture varies by company and is influenced by the individual's transformational orientation

(ITfO) and the individual's perception of their company's transformational orientation (IPCTfO).

Method

Data is collected from 546 leaders in primarily Midwest, U.S.-based for-profit organizations. Over 77% are in a senior management position with only 7.7% in a C-Suite, President or Managing Director position. Sixty-six percent are male, 96% of all respondents are 35 years of age or older, and over 80% have been with their organization for over five years. The individuals that completed the survey are from 12 companies in diverse industries: four from manufacturing, two from financial services, two from insurance, one distributor and three from professional services.

Organizations that are large enough to have at least 20 people in a senior manager, or higher, position are contacted through the researcher's network. Once approval to interview within the organization is obtained, a survey with a unique and unidentifiable code is distributed to a random selection of up to 300 senior managers or above by someone within the organization. This allows the data to be analyzed at the individual level as well as an aggregate level for each of the 12 companies. The demographics of the data collected is shown in Table 9.

Table 9. Demographics of Participants

Company #	#1	#2	#3	#4	#5	#6	#7	#8	#9	#10	#11	#12
Industry *	D	FS	PS	I	PS	I	M	FS	M	M	M	I
No. of responses	20	33	44	35	21	77	79	33	107	36	29	32
% of male	60%	57%	61%	51%	71%	42%	76%	58%	87%	86%	69%	53%
% > 35 years of age	90%	91%	86%	94%	100%	99%	99%	94%	99%	100%	100%	84%
% > 5 years in Co.	55%	70%	98%	86%	86%	78%	87%	79%	83%	92%	62%	69%
% in Exec position **	5%	0%	11%	0%	28%	8%	3%	3%	5%	23%	24%	3%

* Industry: D = Distributor, PS = Professional Services, FS = Financial Services, I = Insurance, M = Manufacturing

** Levels: Non-executive, Manager, Sr. Manager, Director, VP, and Executive (C-Suite, President, CEO, Managing Director)

Measures

The measures in this phase are a combination of existing scales and newly created scales as summarized below.

Job Engagement

Engagement is selected because it emphasizes characteristics desired in employees by their employers, involvement and being present. The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) is used with items being scored on a 7-point Likert scale from “never” (1) to “always” (7) (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003).

Organizational Commitment

The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) scales measure organizational commitment from an attitudinal perspective (Mowday et al. 1979), including an acceptance of the organization’s values and goals, a willingness to do what is needed, and a strong intent to stay with the company. Attitudinal commitment is chosen over behavioral commitment to understand how employees perceive their commitment, versus how they may choose to demonstrate their commitment, which may have other motivations behind the actions (Hecht & Allen, 2009). The six negatively worded statements are removed. This was supported by Mowday et al. (1979) as they recognize the concern that the length of the survey could be a deterrent. The questions are presented on a Likert scale from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (7).

Personal Purpose

The Ideal Self scale is used because it reflects the intentional and desired future at the individual level (Boyatzis & Akrivou, 2006). All five Ideal Self scales (ISH - hope, ISP - sense of purpose, ISHV - holistic vision, ISM - deeper meaning, and ISF - fun) are

included in the survey using a 7-point Likert scale from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (7). Purpose, holistic vision, meaning, and fun make up different aspects of the context of a personal purpose whereas the hope component is the emotional driver to achieving this purpose.

Company Higher Purpose

Because the understanding of a company higher purpose vision is new, a three question scale is created using the guidelines recommended by Blair et al. (2014). Individuals assess the degree to which they feel their company purpose or vision can be characterized as a higher purpose vision on a 7-point Likert scale from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (7). The questions include: (a) The primary purpose of my organization is to make profit; (b) The purpose of my organization includes more than making a profit; (c) The purpose of my organization is to make a positive impact on people other than just the investors.

Transformational Orientation

The extant research on Transformational versus Transactional Leadership is applied to leadership at the individual level. The existing literature does not identify ways to actually classify a company or an individual regarding their orientation towards being transformational or transactional. However the literature on transformational versus transactional leadership does provide a framework to classify the perception of this orientation. Bass (1990) articulates the behavioral styles of transactional versus transformational leadership. Transactional leadership is tied to motivating others through a direct relationship between a task and reward or punishment, whereas transformational leadership is recognized as influencing, inspiring and stimulating others (Bass, 1990).

Transformational leadership behaviors vary somewhat (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, & Moorman, 1990) but they share similar themes: 1) articulating a vision of the future, 2) providing a model that is aligned with a forward thinking vision, 3) encouraging acceptance to the larger goal, 4) providing support and encouragement, and 5) influencing the values, beliefs, and attitudes of followers. These attributes are used to develop a list of words that people identify with their personal perspective and that of their organization.

The classifications of 1) transactional - task, goal and list focused, and seeking a sense of accomplishment upon completion, and 2) transformational - inspirational and future focused, are used to generate a list of word commonly associated with each classification. This list is created through a text entry survey completed by 64 adult professionals in various industries and professions. Each participant is asked to list 5 to 10 words that describe people that fit into a transformational, and 5 to 10 words that describe people that fit into a transactional, classification. The survey provides two descriptions and allows the participant to toggle back and forth between the questions when listing words they feel fit into each classification. The words transformational and transactional are not used in the description to minimize the risk that this terminology is not broadly understood. The questions that define each category and request the generation of a list of word are shown in in Appendix D. The survey generates 181 words used to describe someone who is transactional and 176 words to describe someone who is transformational. Words, or phrases that are similar in nature, i.e. achievement oriented, achiever, achieving, are combined into one word or statement that captures the essence of that grouping. Words, or statements, that are referenced by more than three people *and*

could be positively interpreted (i.e. removing words like disorganized and distracted), are put in another survey. Words that are identified with each category and mentioned multiple times in the qualitative phase of this study are added if they have not already been identified.

This list of 100 words/phrases is sorted into one of four categories (transactional, transformational, both or other) by 32 scholars in the area of leadership and organizational development. The words identified as being transactional or transformational are ranked, and the top-ranking words in each category are used to create a list of 30 words with 50% describing someone who is transformational and 50% describing someone who is transactional. The final word selections are shown in Table 10.

In the quantitative survey, the words are listed alphabetically as shown in Appendix E, and participants are asked to rank each of the 30 words as “primarily” or “not primarily” describing themselves. Much later in the survey, they are asked to rank the same 30 words to describe their company. The survey is purposefully designed with multiple questions in between and such that participants cannot go back to a previous question after they have submitted their response to avoid referencing the words they have selected to describe themselves.

Table 10. Transformational and Transactional Words/Phrases Used in the Survey

	Transformational Words	Transactional Words
1	Achieving something big	Competitive
2	Big picture oriented	Deliberate
3	Conceptual	Efficient
4	Creative	Expecting promptness
5	Enjoy Discovery	Liking closure
6	Entrepreneurial	Linear
7	Innovative	Managing people and projects

8	Inspirational	Motivated by rewards
9	Instilling purpose in others	Process oriented
10	Intuitive	Tactical
11	Long term focused	Tangible
12	Open minded	Task-focused
13	Reflective	Time sensitive
14	Relationship focused	Systematic
15	Visionary	Very focused

Indices

Each participant is asked, but is not limited, to select up to 15 words/phrases out of this list of 30. In the analysis, transformational words are coded with a +1, and transactional words are coded with a -1. This allows for the creation of indices to summarize and compare the selection of transformational and transactional words or phrases in various ways to understand the spread of a single category and how different dimensions vary or are similar.

Some indices are created at the individual level, and some are created by aggregating the data within each organization—creating a perception of the company from multiple individuals within the organization. The individual orientation indices, 1) Individual *Transformational* Orientation (ITfO), and 2) Individual perception of Company's *Transformational* Orientation (IPCTfO) measure the degree to which a person considers themselves and their organization as having a transformational orientation, respectively. These indices are created by adding up the total number of transformational words selected (coded with a +1) and the total number of transactional words selected (coded with a -1). The greater the number, the more transformational the perception.

The data is from 12 companies. Twelve unidentifiable codes are used, making it possible to group the data by company. This allows for the creation of indices for the aggregated perceptions of the company, e.g. the mean of the aggregate of transactional words selected by individuals within each company and the mean of the aggregate of transformational words selected by individuals within each company. It also makes it possible to compare the individual perceptions within different organizations and the aggregated perceptions by age, gender, years within their current company and their level within the organization.

The four aggregate indices (Aggregate of the Individual's Transformational Words - AITf, Aggregate of the Individual's Transactional Words - AITs, Aggregate of the company's Transformational Words - ACTf, and Aggregate of the Company's Transactional Words - ACTs) are the means of the transformational/transactional words selected by all the individuals within each organization to describe themselves and their company respectively.

The mean of the aggregate indices is used to calculate an intensity of transformational/transactional congruence within each organization. By creating an index that measures the intensity of congruence, it is then possible to observe and understand the difference between these two scores to measure where on a transactional to transformational continuum an organization falls. The indices created for this analysis are listed in Table 11.

Table 11. Transformational and Transactional Indices

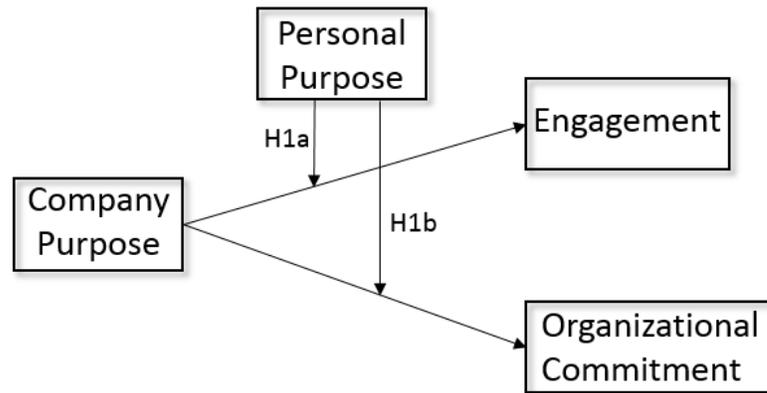
Index	Description	Configuration
ITfO	Individual <i>Transformational</i> Orientation	Individual <i>transformational</i> words minus Individual <i>transactional</i> words

Index	Description	Configuration
IPCTfO	Individual perception of Company's <i>Transformational Orientation</i>	Individual <i>transformational</i> words used to describe their company minus Individual <i>transactional</i> words used to describe their company
AITf	Mean of the Aggregate of Individual <i>Transformational</i> words	Aggregate of <i>transformational</i> words used by the individuals within each company to describe themselves
AITs	Mean of the Aggregate of Individual <i>Transactional</i> words	Aggregate of <i>transactional</i> words used by the individuals within each company to describe themselves
ACTf	Mean of the Aggregate of Company <i>Transformational</i> words	Aggregate of <i>transformational</i> words used by the individuals within each company to describe their company
ACTs	Mean of the Aggregate of Company <i>Transactional</i> words	Aggregate of <i>transactional</i> words used by the individuals within each company to describe their company
IOTfC	Intensity of Organizational <i>Transformational Congruence</i>	Mean of the aggregate of <i>transformational</i> words used by employees within each company to describe themselves multiplied by the mean of the aggregate of <i>transformational</i> words used to describe their company. $AITf (\text{mean}) \times ACTf (\text{mean})$
IOTsC	Intensity of Organizational <i>Transactional Congruence</i>	Mean of the aggregate of <i>transactional</i> words used to describe themselves multiplied by the mean of the aggregate of <i>transactional</i> words used to describe their company. $AITs (\text{mean}) \times ACTs (\text{mean})$
COTfC	Company Orientation towards a Transformational Culture	Intensity of Organizational Transformational Congruence minus Intensity of Organizational Transactional Congruence, $IOTfC \text{ minus } IOTsC$

Data Analysis

Multiple forms of analysis are used in this phase. First, structural equation modeling is used to measure the moderating effect of personal purpose on the positive relationship between perceived company higher purpose and the dependent variables of engagement and organizational commitment. The model used for this analysis is shown in Figure 8.

Figure 8. Structural Equation Model Showing Moderation



The constructs around personal purpose, company higher purpose, engagement, and commitment are identified using Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) in SPSS. The ideal-self scales of *hope* and *purpose* come together to form the construct of personal purpose. This is supported by the research identifying *hope* as the emotional driver behind one's personal purpose (Boyatzis & Akrivou, 2006) and is reflected in the questions, e.g., 1) I feel inspired by my vision of the future; 2) My vision reflects many possibilities; 3) My vision includes my desired legacy in life; and 4) My vision of the future reflects the things most important to me.

Cross-loadings with a delta smaller than 0.02 (Hair et al., 2010) are deleted using an iterative process. The final configuration with 4 factors is verified using confirmatory factor analysis in Amos, then tested using structural equation modeling.

Second, hierarchical linear regression (HLR) is used to measure the hierarchical impact of having a personal purpose when the perception of a company purpose already exists. HLR is used because it accounts for the variance in predictor variables when analyzed in a hierarchical fashion (Woltman, Feldstain, MacKay, & Rocchi, 2012).

Third, one-way Anova is used when a comparison of the means is most appropriate to identify if a difference is significant. For example, the transformational and transactional words selected to describe themselves personally are aggregated for each individual to create an index of individual orientation and the transformational and transactional words selected to describe their organization are aggregated for all the individuals within each organization to get a characterization of the perception of the company. A one-way ANOVA is then used to determine if there is a significant difference in the means of the transformational and transactional words selected by individuals to describe themselves, of their individual and aggregated perceptions of their organizations, across different groupings and in relation to having a personal purpose and a company higher purpose.

Finally, in addition to testing for a difference of means using a one-way ANOVA, patterns in the aggregated data of individual perceptions by company are observed to see if themes or patterns emerge that support further analysis on a larger scale.

Results

The four variables of personal purpose, company higher purpose, engagement and organizational commitment, shown in Appendix F, explain 56.4% of the variance. With a KMO of 0.931, the adequacy of the model is excellent, and a significant Bartlett Test of Sphericity indicates that the variables relate to each other enough to support exploratory factor analysis (Hair et al., 2010). The model demonstrates strong convergent and discriminant validity with all loadings being greater than 0.431 and no factor correlations above 0.61 which is below the recommended cut-off of 0.7 (Hair et al., 2010).

The reflective factors are considered reliable and consistent with Cronbach's Alphas of above the recommended limit of 0.70 (Hair et al., 2010). Descriptive statistics, including the mean, standard deviation, number of variables, correlations and Cronbach's Alphas for the final constructs are listed in Table 12.

Table 12. Mean, Standard Deviations, Number of Variables, Cronbach's Alphas

	Mean	SD	# of Items	ENG	PP	OC	CP
1 Engagement (ENG)	5.583	0.858	11	0.931			
2 Personal Purpose (PP)	5.894	0.715	10	0.489	0.903		
3 Org Commitment (OC)	5.637	0.982	7	0.610	0.310	0.883	
4 Company Purpose (CP)	4.200	1.190	3	0.315	0.161	0.399	0.749

* Cronbach's Alphas are on the diagonal

The measurement model as shown in Appendix G exhibits good statistical, relative and absolute fit with a CMIN/df of 0.1.915, GFI of 0.919, NFI of 0.932, CFI of .966 and an RMSEA of 0.041—all within acceptable range (Hair et al., 2010).

Hypotheses 1a and 1b predict that personal purpose will increase the impact of company purpose on engagement and organizational commitment. These hypotheses are not supported because the interaction effect of company purpose and personal purpose on engagement and organizational commitment is not significant. The model displaying regression weights is shown in Appendix H. This indicates that personal purpose does not strengthen the positive relationship between company purpose and engagement or organizational commitment.

Hypotheses 2a and 2b predict that having both a personal purpose and the perception of a company higher purpose will have a greater impact on engagement and

organizational commitment than only having the perception of a company purpose. A hierarchical linear two-step model tests company purpose (level-1) and personal purpose (level-2) in relation to the dependent variables of engagement (H2a) and organizational commitment (H2b). As shown in Table 13 the relationship between company purpose and engagement ($\beta = .287, p < .000$) as well as with organizational commitment ($\beta = .355, p < .000$) is significant and by adding personal purpose, the variability explained changes for both engagement and organizational commitment ($R^2 = 0.277$ and 0.191 respectively). The change in R^2 is significant for engagement and commitment (R^2 change = $0.208, p < .000$ and R^2 change = $0.194, p < .000$ respectively). This indicates that company purpose and personal purpose have a cumulative effect on engagement and commitment when both exist, supporting hypothesis 2a and 2b.

Table 13. Hierarchical Linear Regression Results

	Engagement		Organizational Commitment	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2
Company Purpose	0.287***	0.231***	0.355***	0.322***
Personal Purpose		0.448***		0.262***
R-square (adjusted)	0.08	0.277	0.124	0.191
R-square change		0.208***		0.194***

Hypothesis 3a predicts a difference in the number of transformational versus transactional words selected by individuals to describe themselves. This hypothesis is supported as indicated by a significant difference in the means (p -value = $.000, f$ -score = 5.357).

This hypothesis is also supported by the variance in the number of words selected when grouped by years in the company, level in the company and by industry. The

variance and directional impact in the number of transformational versus transactional words an individual selects to describe themselves varies by the level one is in their organization ($p = .012$, $\beta = 0.107$ and $p = .004$, $\beta = -0.123$ respectively). The variance by years in the company is not significant for transactional words selected yet significant for the number of transformational words selected by individual ($p = 0.02$, $\beta = -0.099$).

Whether someone perceives themselves to have a transformational orientation (ITfO = the number of transformational words selected to describe themselves minus the number of transactional words) is significantly different by company demonstrated by the difference in the means ($p\text{-value} = .033$, $f\text{-score} = 1.934$) and the level within the company as demonstrated by a significant difference in variance ($p\text{-value} = ***$, $\beta = 0.150$).

The individual's perception of their company's transformational orientation (IPCTfO = the number of transformational words selected to describe their company minus the number of transactional words selected) is significantly different by company as demonstrated by the difference in the means ($p\text{-value} = .000$, $f\text{-score} = 18.981$) and industry as demonstrated by a significant difference in variance ($p = ***$, $\beta = 0.178$). The results are shown in Table 14.

Table 14. Analysis Results

	Company one-way ANOVA p-value / F score	Yrs. in Co. p-value / Standardized beta	Lvl. in Co. p-value / Standardized beta	Industry p-value / Standardized beta
Number of Transformational words selected to describe themselves	.014 / 2.179	0.02 / -0.099	0.012 / 0.107	ns

Number of Transactional words selected to describe themselves	ns	ns	0.004 / - 0.123	ns
Individual Transformational Orientation ITfO	.033 / 1.934	ns	*** / 0.150	ns
Individual's Perception of their Company's Transformational Orientation (IPCTfO)	*** / 18.981	ns	ns	*** / 0.178
Personal Purpose	ns	ns	ns	ns
Perceived Company Higher Purpose	.024 / 1.79	ns	0.001 / 0.146	*** / .183

Hypothesis 3b predicts that an individual's transformational orientation (ITfO) would be different depending on an individual perception of having a personal purpose. This hypothesis is supported ($p = ***$, $f\text{-score} = 2.166$) using a one-way ANOVA to test the difference in the means. Having a personal purpose does not vary by company, industry, level in the company or years one has been in a company.

Hypothesis 4, predicting that an individual's perception of their company's transformational orientation (IPCTfO) will be different based on the individual's perception that their company has a higher purpose is also supported by a significant difference in the means ($p = ***$, $f\text{-score} = 4.315$). The mean of the perception that one's company has a higher purpose varies by company ($p=.024$), industry ($p=.002$), and level within the company ($p=.001$) but not by years within the company (ns).

Hypothesis 5 predicts that a Company's Orientation towards a Transformational Culture will vary by company and will be influenced by Individual Transformational Orientation (ITfO) and the Individual's Perception of a Company's Transformational Orientation (IPCTfO). A Company's Orientation towards a Transformational Culture (COTfC) varies by company. This is tested by creating an intensity of orientation rating

to represent the degree of Intensity of Orientation towards a Transformational (IOTfC), and Transactional (IOTsC), Culture. A mean of the Aggregate of Individual Transformational (AITf) and Transactional (AITs) words used to describe themselves and a mean of the Aggregate of Transformational (ACTf) and Transactional (ACTs) words used to describe the company is calculated for each company. To create the Intensity of the Orientation towards a Transformational Culture (IOTfC), the mean of the number of transformational words selected by all respondents to describe themselves in each organization is multiplied by the mean of the transformational words selected by all respondents to describe their company ($IOTfC = AITf \times ACTf$). The greater the number of transformational words selected by the participants to describe themselves, as well as their organization—the greater the intensity of the orientation towards being transformational. Likewise, the greater the number of transactional words selected by the participants to describe themselves, as well as their organization—the greater the intensity of the orientation towards being transactional. By multiplying the individual and company aggregates for each category together, the number is not just reflective of an organization being perceived as being more transformational or of employees that may be feeling like they are more transformational, but a factor of both. The same process is used to calculate the transactional intensity. The results by company are shown in Table 15. The data in the table is sorted by the lowest to the highest Company Orientation towards a Transformational Culture (COTfC) as seen in the last row. Cases in which the means of each index (the Aggregate of Individual and Company Transformational words (AITf and ACTf) and the Aggregates of Individual and Company Transactional words (AITs and ACTS)) are above the average of the mean for each category are highlighted. As seen in

row 1, 6 companies have an Aggregate of Transformational Words that is above the average of the mean of all companies. Compared to only 3 companies having an Aggregate of Transactional Words that is above the average of the mean of all companies as seen in row 4.

A Company's Orientation toward a Transformational Culture is calculated by subtracting the Intensity of an Organization's Transactional Culture - row 6, from the Intensity of an Organization's Transformational Intensity – row 3 ($COTfC = IOTfC - IOTsC$). A higher number indicates a stronger Orientation towards a Transformational Culture and a lower number indicates that the company has less of an Orientation towards a Transformational Culture. The COTfC index ranged from (-72.56) to (+32.95), indicating a range of the degree of a cultural orientation towards being transformational. A one-way ANOVA test indicates that there is a significant difference in the means of the COTfC between companies ($p < .000$). Patterns in the data are also observable. The numbers highlighted in the last row are the Company Orientation towards a Transformational Culture scores that are above the mean. Company 4 has a COTfC of -32.37 which is above the mean of -34.71 but still negative. Company 9 has a COTfC of -1.11. Company 5 has a positive COTfC of 4.45, and Company 11 has a positive COTfC of 32.96. In three cases, the COTfC is either very close to being positive or positive and they are the only companies in which all the *transactional* indices (AITs, ACTs, and IOTsC) are below the average mean for each index. In the two cases in which the COTfC is the highest, both the aggregate of the individual transformational words (AITf) and aggregate of the transformational word used to describe their company (ACTf) are above the average of the mean for all companies.

Table 15. Transformational and Transactional Indices by Company

	Company #	Ave	#12	#10	#6	#2	#3	#8	#7	#1	#4	#9	#5	#11	
	Industry	of the	I	M	I	FS	PS	FS	M	D	I	M	PS	M	
	N	means	32	36	77	33	44	33	79	20	35	107	21	29	
Aggregate of Individual Transformational words	AITf	Mean	9.54	9.01	9.66	9.17	8.91	8.55	10.29	9.67	9.55	9.60	9.36	10.48	10.22
		SD		2.73	2.88	3.11	2.32	3.22	2.68	2.76	2.11	2.76	2.53	2.71	2.69
Aggregate of Company Transformational words	ACTf	Mean	6.86	4.57	5.76	5.22	4.73	7.86	6.22	6.70	7.10	6.86	7.94	8.76	10.63
		SD		2.62	3.80	3.40	2.41	3.38	3.16	2.97	3.12	3.36	2.79	2.72	2.77
Intensity of Transformational Culture	IOTfC	AITf x ACTf	65.94	41.18	55.64	47.87	42.14	67.20	64.00	64.79	67.81	65.86	74.32	91.80	108.64
Aggregate of Individual Transactional words	AITs	Mean	9.48	9.47	9.86	9.42	9.21	10.91	9.46	9.30	9.20	9.63	9.11	8.86	9.31
		SD		3.10	3.13	2.92	3.44	2.83	3.10	2.89	3.05	3.61	2.97	3.83	2.83
Aggregate of Company Transactional words	ACTs	Mean	10.60	12.01	12.14	11.30	10.76	11.11	11.15	11.06	11.15	10.20	8.28	9.86	8.13
		SD		1.96	2.50	2.77	1.79	2.92	2.44	2.37	2.50	3.49	2.93	2.61	3.42
Intensity of Transactional Culture	IOTsC	AITs x ACTs	100.65	113.73	119.70	106.45	99.10	121.21	105.48	102.86	102.58	98.23	75.43	87.36	75.69
Company Orientation Towards a Transformational Culture	COTfC	IOTfC - IOTsC	-34.71	-72.56	-64.06	-58.58	-56.96	-54.01	-41.48	-38.07	-34.78	-32.37	-1.11	4.45	32.95

Table is sorted by COTfC (lowest to highest)

Industry: D = Distributor, PS = Professional Services, FS = Financial Services, I = Insurance, M = Manufacturing

Discussion

The existence of a personal purpose and a company higher purpose are statistically more impactful than having only one or the other. Phase two of this study reveals that a personal purpose, without any consideration for whether this personal purpose is related to or connected to the organization’s purpose, positively impacts engagement and organizational commitment. Simply having a personal purpose impacts one’s commitment to the organization yet it has a greater impact on one’s level of engagement than one’s company having a higher purpose. This indicates that helping employees identify with a personal purpose will be more impactful than having a higher purpose for the organization. Yet organizations that have the ability to create, or have already identified, a higher purpose vision can benefit from also helping employees develop a personal purpose.

This phase reveals that simply having a personal purpose does *not* make a company higher purpose more impactful on engagement and commitment. It is

established through the qualitative phase that employees can make a personal connection between their personal purpose in life and the purpose of their organization and they feel they are accomplishing their life goals through the work they do at their organization because of this symbiotic relationship. A similar effect to the analogy of being head over heels in love—indicating a multiplicative relationship—was expected. People who experience love in such an emotional way believe that others could experience the same thing. Yet those that have never felt love to such a degree have a very difficult time believing it can be true. Having a personal purpose is a powerful motivator once someone has experienced it—therefore, it was expected to augment the impact of a company's higher purpose. This did not occur, possibly because a company's higher purpose may be aspirational but it may not be personal, so the interplay of one on the other doesn't work. Or possibly because there is often a great deal of skepticism of a company's true intentions.

There is, however, a greater impact on engagement and commitment when *both* a personal purpose and a company higher purpose exist. A personal purpose is just that—personal—and it does not have to be correlated or symbiotic with the higher purpose of the company to have an impact on engagement and commitment. A company higher purpose could be seen as something completely different and because it is the company's purpose, it may not be personal. Having a personal purpose did not vary by company, industry and the level in the company, whereas the perception of a company higher purpose did as shown in Table 14. They do not evolve or change together, and one does not enhance the other, but they do have a greater impact on engagement and organizational commitment when they both exist.

Before analyzing the indices around a transformational and transactional orientation, it is helpful to explore the situations in which they may be similar or different to verify that they indeed measure different things. Transformational and transactional orientation are not affected by the internal factors, but they do appear to be affected by external factors. For example, 1) the number of Transformational Words used to describe oneself, 2) Individual Transformational Orientation, 3) Perception of Company's Transformational Orientation, 4) the existence of a Personal Purpose, and 5) the Perception of a Company Higher Purpose did not vary by gender or age. These factors don't evolve or change simply as one ages and they are not more apparent in males or females. They do vary however based on external factors such as the company one works for, years with the same company and one's level within the organization. Specifically, the number of transformational words one selected and their individual *transformational* orientation (ITfO) varies by company, years in a company and by the level in the company. Their individual *transactional* orientation does not vary by company or years in company, but it does vary by the level within a company. The influence of external factors may indicate the influence of culture.

The fact that the number of transactional words does not vary by company is not surprising as all companies, and most if not all jobs, have a transactional element to them. This may imply that people see themselves as transformational or transactional in nature but are required to be very transactional in their role. As they expand into greater leadership roles, and move up to higher levels within the organization, they adjust their style to meet the needs of their new role. This is supported by the previous finding that through training, leaders can become more transformational (Bass, 1990) and reflects

prior research that indicates the frequency of transformational leadership behaviors changes based on the level of the leader as well as the organizational setting (Bass, 1990; Lowe et al., 1996). This supports the premise that the transformational words are indeed different than the transactional words. Knowing that leaders become more transformational in their style and the selection of transformational and transactional words selected changes by level within the company also supports the premise that the words used to create the indices reflect transformational and transactional leadership characteristics.

The basis for the assumption that 1) Individual Transformational Orientation, 2) a Company's Transformational Orientation, 3) the existence of a Personal Purpose, and 4) the perception of a Company Higher Purpose are all elements of an organization's culture is reflected by the significantly statistical difference of each variable across companies. A concern could be that organizational cultures vary based on many factors, not just future-oriented elements. Prior research has demonstrated that culture is defined around the values, ideologies, beliefs (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Peters, Waterman, & Jones, 1982; Sathe, 1983; Schein, 1985) and environment (Emery & Trist, 1965) all of which play a role in defining purpose and vision. So, it is not appropriate to assume that a company higher purpose, personal purpose and a transformational or transactional orientation completely define culture, but there is theoretical and now empirical support for them playing an important role.

The implications of understanding the role future directed elements of a company culture plays in the success of developing and executing a strategy could help unravel the

mystery as to why some companies are much more successful in the critical process of defining, socializing and achieving their strategy.

The discovery that there is a statistically significant difference in the number of *transformational* words selected by individuals to describe themselves across different companies, but no significant difference in the number of *transactional* words selected to describe themselves by company, may imply that the people with a greater individual transformational orientation elect to work for organizations with a certain cultural orientation, whereas people that are more transactional do not identify this, consciously or unconsciously, as a criteria for employment. This would need to be studied in a much more deliberate manner before any conclusions could be drawn but if true, the impact is significant. Organizations would be able to articulate their culture and understand how to identify employees that not only fit but would be intrinsically motivated as a result of the alignment in a transformational orientation or identify if potential employees would be frustrated due to a lack of alignment.

Having a personal purpose has a positive relationship with the Individual's Transformational Orientation (ITfO) based on the words they select to describe themselves. And perceiving one's organization as having a higher purpose positively impacts the Individual Perception of Company Transformational Orientation (IPCTfO). This relationship supports prior literature that personal purpose, company higher purpose and transformational orientation are all oriented towards a positive future and validates that the words chosen to represent a transformational orientation resonate with the existence of a personal purpose and a company higher purpose.

Transformational versus transactional leadership styles are not opposites of each other, but different styles that drive different behaviors and responses (Bass, 1985; Bass, Avolio, & Goodheim, 1987). A relationship between personal purpose and a company having a higher purpose with a transformational orientation does not then indicate that a transactional orientation indicates a lack of company higher purpose or personal purpose. It simply means that people who feel they have a personal purpose and perceive their companies as having a higher purpose have a greater tendency to select transformational words to describe themselves and their organization. This could also be explained by a higher level of optimism, a positive attitude, and a higher state of flourishing or several other factors that were not tested in this study. Even so, it provides enough information to support further development of a transformational index that may help predict, explain or understand personal purpose, a company higher purpose and other future directed elements of a company culture.

As observed and verified through a one-way ANOVA test (F-score = 10.772, p-value < 0.00) there is a definite difference in a Company's Orientation toward a Transformational Culture (COTfC). The three companies that have a COTfC greater than the average COTfC score all 1) have a mean *transformational* score that is significantly higher than the mean of all the other companies, 2) are the only three companies in which all *transactional* indices are below the average of the mean of all the other companies, and 3) two of the three are above the mean in all *transformational* indices. The third company is very close to the average of the mean of 9.54 for the aggregate of the individual transformational words with a mean of 9.36.

It could be thought that the orientation of a company is influenced by the industry, size, and structure or how long they have been in business. Yet, in this limited sample, the higher index scores are not exclusive to one industry. Two of the three organizations that scored above average on the COTfC index are manufacturing firms, and one is a professional services firm that specializes in communications and PR. Two of the four manufacturing companies scored very high, and two scored quite a bit lower. And the scoring for the rest of the companies varies across industries. All financial services and two insurance organizations score quite a bit lower than average with one insurance company scoring slightly above the average. One manufacturing and one professional services firm are significantly below average with scores of (-64.06 and -54.01 respectively) versus the average mean (-34.71) whereas another manufacturing company and the distribution company scores fairly close to the average. Table 15 indicates what industry each organization as well as their COTfC score. There is also a significant variance in the structure and size of the organizations that scored high on their orientation towards a transformational culture from a small privately held organization with under 100 employees to two very large, publicly held companies with one having over 7,000 associates. One company is less than 20 years old, one has been around for over 50 years, and the third will be celebrating their 100th anniversary a few years from now.

There is something different about the cultural orientation of these three organizations and although transformational leadership styles are not the opposite of transactional leadership styles the indices that have been developed to reflect the two styles indicate that they are certainly different.

These findings are important because they highlight components of a company culture that are future directed and begin to demonstrate how they impact company outcomes of engagement and commitment. Personal purpose, company purpose, and transformational leadership all contain elements of being future-directed, and all three are components of the much bigger and complex concept of company culture. By digging deeper into the impact of employees having a personal purpose, and working for companies that they feel have a higher purpose, the understanding of the future/envisioning elements of an organizational culture from the individual perspective has been expanded. Identifying transformational and transactional characteristics make it possible to create an index to measure how transformational or transactional a company culture is and therefore identifying alignment between this cultural orientation, having a personal purpose and a company higher purpose. Indices around an individual's, and an aggregated company's, orientation make it possible to begin to deconstruct the future-oriented dimension of organizational culture.

Implications and Future Research

These findings have implications to the research and practitioner communities. Understanding the powerful impact of an employee identifying and relating to their personal purpose further differentiates a personal purpose from having a calling that assumes one's work is directly connected to their calling. Having a personal purpose that is not automatically connected to the work one does—still impacts one's level of engagement. It also provides the empirical support for a tool leaders can use to increase the level of engagement and commitment within their organization. Knowing that an employee having a personal purpose has an additive effect to the positive impact of a

company having a higher purpose is especially helpful to organizations that have already begun to understand and share a company higher purpose. Future research should be done on what happens when there truly is a symbiotic nature between a person's personal purpose and the company's purpose. Research should also be done to understand why there is a cumulative effect with a company higher purpose and a personal purpose but not an enhanced effect. This phase is done with leaders, manager up through the top executive, in for-profit organizations in the United States. Additional research should be done to understand if this relationship between having a personal purpose and describing oneself as transformational applies to all levels within a company, across a greater variety of industries and in other countries. Testing elements that have an impact on company culture across different countries is especially important as the countries culture would logically impact the company culture.

The connection between a personal purpose and the Individual Transformational Orientation (ITfO) index and the relationship between a company higher purpose and the Individual Perception of the Company's Transformational Orientation (IPCTfO) begin to open up a whole new way to look at transformational and transactional characteristics. This research begins to demonstrate that the theory of transformational and transactional leadership which is traditionally associated with leaders may be able to transcend individual orientation and company culture. Leaders within an organization can use an index to identify the cultural orientation of their organization. As it has already been demonstrated that culture impacts strategy (Arogyaswamy & Byles, 1987) and the relational climate (Boyatzis & Rochford, 2015). An index such as this would help leaders identify alignment to, or gaps between, their organizational culture and the strategy they

are trying to implement as well as the climate within the organization they are trying to create. This research does not try to determine if there is a right or a wrong cultural orientation—only that they can be a different. If an organization is very transactional in nature their strategy may also need to be transactional in order for the leaders within the organization to better relate to it. In which case, they could use the words that make up the transactional index to hire people, or engage consultants, that have a transactional orientation and create an orientation towards a transactional culture. The same is true for a company that has a very transformational strategy. Understanding the impact of alignment between a cultural orientation and strategy and the impact this alignment has on performance would be worth studying. Because all organizations have to be transactional to some degree in order to get the day to day activities done, additional research is needed to understand how to balance the cultural orientation with strategy to maximize its effectiveness.

Finally, transformational versus transactional leadership styles are not opposites of each other but different styles that can and should be applied based on the situation. Knowing that culture orientations vary between transactional and transformational opens up opportunities to deepen our understanding of culture and the relationships between culture, company purpose, and employee's personal purpose. This study did not take into consideration company financial performance and other company metrics; e.g. it would be interesting to explore if there is a relationship between the intensity of a company's orientation and financial performance.

Leaders can confidently increase their efforts to develop a higher purpose vision for the organization and begin to help employees develop a personal purpose using tools

and techniques that already exist because it is clear that both will increase the level of engagement and commitment of employees. Leaders can also use the words identified in this phase to assess their organization in regards to its transformational orientation and in the selection process to determine if the people they are hiring are transformational or transactional thus aligning the right type of orientation to the needs of the job and/or fit of the culture.

Limitations

The results of this phase empirically support the value of having a company higher purpose and employees identifying their personal purpose as well as demonstrating that it may be possible to index an individual's and a company's cultural orientation on a transformational versus transactional scale. This research expands the understanding of personal purpose and a company higher purpose as well as introducing the theory that transformational and transactional leadership characteristics can transcend to the individual and company cultural level. Yet, this phase is also limited to employees in management positions in U.S. for-profit organizations. The future-oriented elements of an organizational culture should apply to all types of organizations and employees at all levels within the organization. Further testing would need to be done to verify this to be true.

Second, the process for selecting organizations within which the survey is distributed is not random, but based on company size and accessibility. The selection of participants within each organization is random, however, but within relatively small populations for some of the organizations selected. The criteria for having at least 20 people in senior management positions with some organizations having over 300 possible

participants minimizes the impact of this limitation, but it would be beneficial to expand the scope of the organizations surveyed.

Third, the results are directional, not causal. The research only indicates that 1) transformational orientation, 2) transformational versus transactional words selected to describe oneself and their organization, 3) company higher purpose, and 4) individuals having a personal purpose are positively related with each other and to company outcomes; all of which are temporal and can change over time. For both of these reasons, there would be value in doing additional research to look at purpose over time with both longitudinal and dynamic modeling designs.

Despite these limitations, the findings provide a strong foundation for understanding the powerful impact of employees identifying their personal purpose, companies developing a higher purpose and the orientation a company can have towards a transformational or transactional culture.

CHAPTER V: GENERAL DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND CONCLUSION

Discussion

The overarching purpose of this study is to 1) explore the phenomenon of personal purpose and how leaders relate their personal purpose to their company's purpose, 2) assess the individual and combined impact of personal purpose and a company higher purpose on various outcomes and 3) explore the creation of indices to extend transformational elements to an individual's and a company's cultural orientation.

High performing leaders can articulate a personal purpose and relate it to their company higher purpose albeit in two different ways. It is identified that personal purpose and company purpose impact engagement and organizational commitment individually and when both are present and that an individual's and a company's cultural orientation can be identified using indices.

First, high-performing leaders are not only able to identify with and articulate their personal purpose, but they are able to state their company's purpose and express how their personal purpose relates to the purpose of their organization. Most senior managers within organizations with a well-developed and widely known higher purpose vision are driven by something personal, identified as either personal goals or a personal purpose. Whether or not leaders have a personal purpose does not vary by level.

One of the key findings is that personal purpose and goals, when aligned to a company vision, impact motivation and engagement in different ways. When alignment is felt through the sense of the greater purpose, there is a deep emotional, almost spiritual, commitment to making the world a better place that transcends work and one's personal life. This seems to create an internal drive to move the organization towards its higher

purpose vision. When alignment is felt in connection to one's personal goals, there is a great sense of commitment to completing the steps or tasks necessary to move toward the vision, yet a clear delineation between work and life ambitions. Individuals who were socio-emotional in nature and align to a purpose emotionally are other-oriented; likely to focus on the greater purpose; likely to make decisions with a long-term, big picture in mind; and achieve a high degree of integration between their work and life. Individuals who align through goals are more self-referent; motivated by the actual accomplishment of goals/milestones; more likely to make decisions based on the completion of the task, and have clear delineation between life and work.

Second, a company purpose and a personal purpose are different. Individually having a company higher purpose and employees identifying their personal purpose positively affect engagement and commitment with these relationships being enhanced when there is a cultural climate around sharing the company vision. Having both a company higher purpose vision and a personal purpose have an even greater positive effect on both company outcomes. When an employee has a personal purpose their level of engagement to the organization is higher and they experience a sense of life satisfaction that does not come from just having a company higher purpose. The ideal state of high levels of engagement and commitment occur, with the added bonus of increased satisfaction with life, when an organization has a higher purpose, organizations understand how to share their company purpose and they help their employees identify their personal purpose.

Third, the three elements of a transformational leader, 1) achieving one's purpose, 2) altruism and 3) a future vision relate to 1) personal purpose, 2) a company higher

purpose 3) an individual's orientation and 4) a cultural orientation. One's individual orientation and one's perception of a company's cultural orientation did not vary by gender or age, which may indicate that there is a natural tendency to be either transformational or transactional. They did, however, vary by company which indicates that they may all be elements of a company culture.

This is the first study that explores the relationships between employees having a personal purpose, a company having a higher purpose, and engagement, organizational commitment, and life satisfaction as well as how they relate to an individual's and company's cultural orientation. The exploration of these constructs, in addition to the identification of an index measuring a company's cultural orientation on a transformational to transactional scale adds to the timely and relevant conversations around 1) engagement and organizational commitment, 2) the relational or organizational climate around sharing a vision, and 3) motivation—all of which have a significant impact on the understanding of leadership and the effectiveness of leaders.

Engagement and Organizational Commitment

Knowing that having a personal purpose increases one's level of engagement and commitment is one key to solving the focus and retention puzzle companies are struggling with. This in addition to understanding that one's task versus socio-emotional tendency impacts how they engage with and commit to their organization's purpose, what criteria they evaluate when making a decision, and the company's cultural orientation may be equally important to helping organization increase the level of engagement and commitment of their employees.

Knowing that some people are more engaged when the objective is broken down into milestones and others when it is connected to a greater good opens up the notion that the most effective style of leadership also depends on the follower. Because a transactional leadership style includes tying rewards to specific goals or objectives, people that have a more transactional nature may relate very well to a transactional style of leadership and/or culture. Whereas with a transformational leadership style that inspires and purposefully makes a meaningful connection to the ultimate purpose, employees that are more oriented towards being transformational may relate better than employees who is naturally more transactional.

How a purpose is communicated matters. Transactional and transformational leadership styles are not opposites, only different. One of the results of transformational leaders is that their followers are aware of and accept the purpose (Bass, 1990). For people that make meaning of their personal purpose and their company purpose in a more transactional way, they may still respond to a transformational leadership style or culture as long as the purpose is communicated in a way that allows them to make meaning of it in their preferred style.

The company's culture may also play a role in the level of engagement and commitment of the organization. A transformational culture is one that is described as inspirational, open minded, conceptual, big picture oriented and visionary. Leaders who are more socio-emotional in how they engage would seem to fit quite comfortably in this type of culture. An organization with a more transactional orientation is described as deliberate, motivated by rewards, tactical and task-focused and people that are more task and goal driven would fit comfortably in a more transactional culture. Considering that

both task-focused and socio-emotional leaders were able to identify their personal purpose and find alignment with their company higher purpose, transactional or transformational culture are neither good nor bad—just different in how people engage and get involved. Similar to transformational and transactional leadership styles, the best culture may depend on the situation and or the people themselves.

Relational Climate around Shared Vision

How people relate to their personal purpose and company purpose, the perception that one's company has a higher purpose varies by company and level within a company and cultural orientation are also relevant to the growing understanding of relational climate around sharing a vision. Relational climate is about the culture that is created around sharing a vision (Boyatzis & Rochford, 2015). Regardless of whether people relate to their personal purpose in a more transactional way or longer term, purpose-driven way, they all relate to and find a way to align with their corporate vision. It goes without saying, that in order to align with their company's purpose, this purpose needs to have been shared. When a vision is successfully shared, there is a sense of mutual understanding and identification within a group or company (Rochford, 2015). This, in conjunction with the understanding that the perception of a company higher purpose varied by company supports the previous finding that this relational climate is indeed a factor in a corporate culture.

Several of the words that describe an individual and or a company as transformational—relationship focused, instilling purpose in others, open-minded, reflective and visionary—are also elements of a relational climate around a shared vision. This supports that transformational leaders are more apt to create a culture in which the

vision is shared. A relational climate around shared vision mediated both the relationships between personal purpose and company purpose to engagement and organizational commitment. To increase the level of commitment and engagement within their organization, leaders should consider using a transformational style of leadership to help employees develop their purpose and create a company vision that is about something greater than profits and typical organizational metrics. They should however consider communicating the vision in either a goal oriented or higher purpose manner depending on the organizational culture and or personal style of their employees.

Also of note is that there is a relationship between personal purpose and the words selected to describe oneself as transformational and the relationship between a company higher purpose and the words selected to describe their perception of their company as being transformational. This indicates a relationship between individuals in the organization having a personal purpose, the company having a higher purpose and the climate that is created around sharing a vision. Helping people identify their personal purpose and developing a company purpose may be the natural result of having a culture around the sharing of a vision, or helping people articulate their vision and creating a company higher purpose may be a way to instill and develop a culture around sharing the vision. Further testing would need to be done to verify this link as well as understanding if there is a causal relationship between the variables.

Motivation

One of the critical roles of a leader is to motivate people to achieve something. The work on self-determination theory significantly enhanced our understanding of motivation with the revelation that motivation can become more intrinsic and effective as

one internalizes, makes meaning of, and personally connects to the purpose or goal.

Knowing that leaders are able to articulate their personal purpose and express alignment to their company higher purpose may partially explain why this phenomenon occurs. This study revealed that not only can leaders make meaning of, and connect to, their company vision - how they are aligned impacts their decision-making process. People make meaning of their personal purpose and their company purpose differently. To help a task oriented individual connect with a company vision, the leader would benefit from helping them understand how it will impact or can have an impact on them personally, clarifying how the objective is achievable within a measurable amount of time, and by breaking the overarching purpose into milestones or goals that they see themselves achieving. A more socio-emotional individual may internalize things better if the overarching objective is framed in reference to the impact it will have on others, if it is part of a bigger plan, and the purpose is well understood.

The finding that personal purpose positively effects engagement even more than a company higher purpose also supports the understanding that intrinsic motivation is more effective than extrinsic motivation and that the desire to achieve one's ideal self is stronger than the desire to achieve an ought self—imposed by someone else. This study provides insights into how leaders might apply both theories. Not only do leaders have a tendency towards being task focused or purpose driven, their followers have a tendency as well. Being able to identify a personal purpose does not vary by level, age or gender implies it is universal and not something that only applies to leaders, managers and up in the organization. This suggests it would be possible to help leaders at all levels

internalize objectives, develop a personal purpose and relate to a company higher purpose.

Transformational and transactional leaders use different styles that vary in ways similar to the task versus socio-emotional tendencies in how one makes meaning of their personal purpose and company purpose. Transactional leaders apply a much more short-term, goal focused approach and transformational leaders apply a more long-term, greater purpose approach. This indicates that understanding the cultural orientation of a company allows leaders to apply one style or the other across the organization when individual communication is not possible. Although a specific style may work best one on one, general corporate wide communications should reflect the style that most closely resembles the cultural orientation to assure the highest degree of success in how employees relate to the message.

Transactional and Transformational Leadership

The findings around how people align their personal purpose to their organizational purpose and the relationship between purpose and an orientation towards a transformational nature or culture have implications on our understanding of Transactional and Transformational Leadership styles. Senior leaders connect their personal purpose to their organization's purpose through a task-driven or socio-emotional lens that affects how they are motivated and how they make decisions. This tendency affects their frame of reference, temporal perspective, motivational driver and integration of work and life. Individuals who are task-driven focused on the goal or task itself, the direct impact the task or goal has on them personally, the time it will take to achieve the goal and their ability to distance the tasks or goals at work from their life outside of work.

Individuals that tend to be socio-emotional focus on how the vision fits in with their altruistic purpose in life, the needs of others, and the long-term objective.

The themes that emerged to describe a socio-emotional person are remarkably similar to what a transformational leader attempts to create. A transformational leader helps others achieve self-actualization, creates awareness and appreciation for the greater needs and interests of others and the ultimate end result (Burns, 1978). The difference is that a transactional leadership style is understood to be a preferred, and a transformational style needs to be learned. This is supported by the finding that one's individual transformational orientation is different based on one's level in the organization. The task or goal versus socio-emotional and greater purpose lens applied by senior leaders, on the other hand, seems to be a natural tendency. The difference could be that leaders are applying more transformational behaviors even though they are not changing their natural tendency. This creates a tension. This tension may be one reason why some individuals become effective and successful leaders whereas others do not. Although transformational behaviors are understood to be something that can be taught, not everyone may be able to fully embrace these behaviors if the desired behaviors go against their natural tendency to be short term, self and goal oriented. It is logical that leaders who already have a tendency to be other, long-term and vision focused would more easily embrace transformational leadership skills because it would enhance their natural inclinations. Understanding an employee's orientation towards being transformational or transactional can be used as a tool to identify individuals who will excel in leadership positions and/or better prepare individuals with a transactional orientation to apply transformational leadership qualities.

One of the recommendations to overcome this internal tension is to split the operational aspect and the relational/strategic aspect of leadership between two different people, presumably one who is more transactional and one that is more transformational. A second recommendation is to continue to develop the competencies necessary for one leader to perform both roles (Boyatzis, Smith, & Blaize, 2006). These latest findings indicate that both may be appropriate. Even though this study indicates that training a leader on a different style may not be enough to overcome their natural tendency, there is a need for leaders to understand their personal tendency and the impact this style will have on the situation and on their followers. By developing one's emotional intelligence, (EI) they could understand their natural instincts to make meaning of information and to make decisions around how they will engage and commit. This is critical because a tendency to view the world through a task-driven or more analytical lens may limit their ability and effectiveness in inspiring others to achieve a larger and more long-term vision. If a task driven leader were able to recognize this, they could either adjust their leadership style by purposefully and intentionally adopting transformational leadership skills or they could augment their ability by calling upon leaders who are naturally transformational. The two aspects of leadership, operational and inspirational, may be split between two people but not necessarily two leaders in the traditional sense. One of the challenges with dual leadership is that there is conflict as to who has the final authority to make decisions. This challenge may be overcome if a leader empowers one or more of their followers to augment their own leadership tendency without giving up final authority. In today's world in which the role of leader and follower is not a permanent delineation—one may be the leader of one team but a follower in another. A self-aware leader who has a

transactional orientation could call upon a socio-emotional follower to fulfill the role of inspiring the team towards the long-term vision. A leader who is naturally more transformational could call upon a task oriented follower to balance out the need to understand the goals that will lead to the bigger objective. This recommendation is supported by the finding that having a personal purpose and a transformational orientation does not change by age or gender. Although socio-emotional tendencies was not tested in regards to age or gender, the three share common elements around altruism, temporal perspective and awareness of others and the bigger picture.

Limitations

This research studies the reflective nature of variables, not the causal effect; therefore, the results are only indicative of the existence and type of relationship, positive or negative. Because this was an empirical and observational study, possible meanings of these discoveries must be inferred in light of former research. Additional studies will be needed to truly comprehend and test these interpretations.

Although this study did reveal that whether one has a personal purpose does not differ based on age or gender, identifying with one's personal purpose may shift and evolve over time. A study that takes into consideration the temporal element at the individual level in regards to ones' personal purpose and the company level in regards to a company higher purpose and orientation should be done.

This research was conducted with leaders in for profit organizations with companies located primarily in the Midwestern U.S. The ability to recognize one's personal purpose transcends the levels of leadership from managers on up, but more research should be done to understand if the self-reflection necessary to understand one's

purpose is partially the nature of leadership or if it is possible for people at all levels of the organization to identify with a purpose that is personal and meaningful. All of the participants were located in the United States, and the organizations were selected using the researcher's network. Although this network is quite extensive, and it was used only to find participating companies—the actual participants within the organization did not know the researcher and voluntarily participated—it did result in the participants being primarily from the Midwest. As this study explores elements of company culture, it would be necessary to repeat the study in several other regions or countries to understand if the findings transcend cultural differences that come into play from a country perspective.

The results of this study do not imply that the tendency to be goal driven or purpose driven is better or worse than the other tendency, simply that they are different. At the time of the study some of the responses to the interviews indicated that being goal driven has negative implications. This may be the result of contemporary leadership books or a consequence of where the U.S. society is at the moment. Goal setting and the purpose and role of goals may be getting a bad reputation as a result. This study reveals that the desire to set goals may not always be about being simply reward driven in the sense of personal gain, but it may be how some people analytically process information to make decisions and ultimately create a degree of intrinsic motivation. It would be helpful to cross reference the results of this study with research on the history of goals and goal setting in the U.S. to understand this phenomenon and to do additional research on the anatomy of goals and goal setting.

The transformational and transactional indices at the company level are based on the observations of only 12 companies. Although a significant difference in means was determined, the themes and patterns are only theoretically supported, more research would be necessary to empirically verify these observations. The individual indices were developed on a much larger sample size based on words that were selected and tested using a rigorous process. Because the results have implications to multiple other theories such as motivation and self-determination and they open the possibility that the theory around transformational and transactional leadership could be applied to a cultural orientation, it is recommended that the words be tested in other situations, and the selection process be repeated to verify the word assortment.

The preference for, and success of, transactional and transformational leadership styles varies based on the situation. It would be beneficial to repeat this study in other circumstances such as non-for-profit situations in which a predominantly transformational leadership style has traditionally performed well. The word selection was done by U.S. leaders and scholars. In order to have relevance in other countries and cultures, it would be necessary to repeat both steps, word selection and the survey itself on a scale large enough to provide a more rigorous analysis.

The findings have made a significant enough contribution to the understanding of purpose in relation to an individual and a company as well as how a well-developed theory around leadership styles might be applicable to understanding cultural orientation that additional research to verify and extend these findings is recommended.

Future Research

In addition to the future research recommended to overcome limitations in the study, and the future research specific to each phase, the combination of all three studies lays the groundwork for additional research as well. This study revealed a difference between being task or goal driven versus socio-emotionally or purpose driven. The study went on to understand the impact and interplay of being purpose driven on one's transactional and transformational orientation. As indicated previously, the study revealed a possibly negative connotation to the concept of goals and goal setting. In addition to exploring this phenomenon and understanding the true nature of goals in how people are motivated and make decisions at the individual level, additional research is recommended on understanding how a task or goal preference affects and interplays with a transactional/transformational orientation at the individual and company level.

The indices around transactional and transformational orientation at the individual and cultural level indicate that this phenomenon is not limited to leaders, but that followers are possibly also using their transformational or transactional orientation to make decisions. As the needs within a workforce become more complex and cross-departmental projects and teams are created, it may be that the roles between a leader and a follower are becoming blurred. This study made inferences to the impact this would have on followers, but it was not designed to explore followership behaviors. If research on followers supports this developing theory, the terms leader and follower may be completely transformed to reveal that they are not role specific but situational. This could impact how companies are organized and led and how employees are motivated. One example might be that currently followers are rewarded for, and held accountable to,

individual performance based on the understanding that this is what they can influence and control. Leaders have been responsible for increasing their follower's level of engagement and commitment. If followers are gravitating towards, or are able to adapt their orientation of being transactional versus transformational, and this orientation has a direct effect on their engagement and commitment, then followers could be held accountable for and possibly rewarded for reflecting and/or applying the appropriate orientation for the project or task they are expected to perform. This would make it possible to connect follower behaviors indirectly to their engagement and commitment. This of course is very preliminary, but the impact on the organization of the future could be significant enough that it would be worth researching further.

This study also limited the exploration of relationships to the cultural climate created around sharing a vision. One of the findings that came out of this study was that individuals that have a greater tendency to look through a transactional lens when making decisions and engaging spoke about how they identified with their teams. Individuals that make decisions through a purpose driven lens did not reference teams at all. As it was also observed that whether or not a person was able to articulate a personal purpose impacted their engagement, commitment, life satisfaction and orientation towards being transformational, the dimension of how this team orientation affects these relationships warrants future exploration.

The study was designed to test the possibility that the elements of a transformational leadership style could be applied to an individual's orientation and company culture. The initial observations that this is possible encourages additional research for understanding how this orientation is impacted by the leadership style of the

top executive and vice versa. It has been understood that the leader of an organization sets the tone and culture of an organization. This is not to say that the leader does not have a material impact, but it opens up the possibility that the impact could go both ways and that the cultural orientation may impact or influence the success of a leader that chooses to impose a leadership style that does not reflect that of the organization.

This study observed and theoretically supported the phenomenon of a transformational cultural orientation. This study did not explore situations in which the individual's within an organization perceive themselves to have one orientation and they perceive their organization to have a different orientation. It may be easy to understand cases in which the individual's perceive themselves as being more transformational but they perceive their organization as being more transactional. But the case in which the employee's perceive themselves to be more transactional and their organization to be more transformational requires additional exploration.

It has been confirmed that having a company higher purpose positively impacts engagement and organizational commitment. In addition, it was revealed that simply having a personal purpose, regardless of whether it is aligned to one's company purpose, impacts both engagement, organizational commitment, and life satisfaction. Another area that would be interesting to explore further is the impact transformational orientations at the individual and company cultural level have on engagement, commitment and possibly life satisfaction of the individuals within the organization.

Conclusion

Purpose matters. Not only does purpose matter, but how one aligns their personal purpose to their company's purpose has a significant impact on engagement,

organizational commitment, motivation, an individual's orientation and a company's cultural orientation. This is the first time the relationships between employees having a personal purpose, a company having a higher purpose, relational climate around shared vision and an individual's and company's orientation toward a transformational culture has been studied in a mixed method study.

This study reveals a great deal of insights into the power of purpose and lays the groundwork for some very tangible tools leaders can use to engage and retain employees. How leaders connect and align to purpose and its impact on two of the most desired company outcomes makes it possible for leaders to move their followers up the continuum from extrinsic motivation to a more effective intrinsic motivation by creating a transformational cultural orientation and a relational climate around sharing of the company vision. Understanding the role purpose plays in alignment to company vision, motivation, engagement, and cultural orientation gives leaders four tangible and measurable tools; company purpose, personal purpose, cultural orientation and a positive relational climate around a shared vision, to increase the engagement and commitment of their workforce, and in the case of personal purpose, improve life satisfaction.

By helping employees articulate and identify with their own personal purpose, regardless if it aligns with the organization or not, leaders will create a domino effect that may possibly be self-sustaining and self-supporting. Employees that can identify their personal purpose describe themselves as being 1) long-term focused, 2) inspirational, 3) relationship focused, and 4) visionary. These characteristics align themselves well with the three tenets of transformational leadership which are to help individuals achieve self-

actualization, create an awareness and appreciation for the needs and interests of others and the big picture, or end result.

Traditionally, it is recognized, and supported in this survey, that leaders identify with a transformational nature to a greater degree as they move up in the organization. This research indicates that it may not be dependent on one's level in the organization as much as it is dependent on one's ability to identify their personal purpose. If leaders help employees articulate their personal purpose, they may be able to instill transformational leadership qualities in their employees at lower levels in the organization. This becomes critical when task-driven individuals want to move up in the organization but their natural tendencies to be analytical, short term and goal focused limit their ability to be a visionary leader. If being a transformational leader does not come naturally, a leader could still be successful by recognizing their predisposition and utilizing others in the organization that are more naturally transformational.

Leaders can confidently increase their efforts to develop a higher purpose vision for the organization and begin to help employees develop a personal purpose using tools and techniques that already exist because it is clear that both will increase the level of engagement and commitment of employees, albeit a personal purpose will enhance the level of engagement significantly more than a company higher purpose. Leaders can also use the words developed and tested in this study to assess their organization in regards to its transformational orientation. An understanding of the cultural orientation of the company allows leaders to seek out and hire people that are transformational or transactional in nature based on the needs of the job and/or fit of the culture. Similar to a car that moves much more efficiently and effectively when all four tires are aligned,

organizations are easier to steer and navigate through change when they are aligned
(Labovitz & Rosansky, 1997).

Appendix A Likert Scales used in Quantitative Phases

Ideal Self

I used the version adapted by Buse and Bilimoria (2014): Personal vision: enhancing work engagement and the retention of women in the engineering profession. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 5(December): 1–13.

Scoring: 1=strongly disagree to 7=strongly agree

IS Hope – this construct includes items that focus on the possibilities and the feelings of one’s vision

1. I feel inspired by my vision of the future.
2. My vision reflects many possibilities.
3. My vision includes my work in terms of my jobs and career.
4. I am excited about my vision.
5. I feel hopeful about my vision.
6. I feel optimistic about my vision.
7. I have a clear vision of my desired future.
8. I see many possibilities in my future.

IS Sense of Purpose – items that focus on how well one’s personal vision includes one’s understanding of a purposeful life.

1. My vision includes relative priorities of things important to me.
2. My vision includes my desired legacy in life.
3. My vision of the future reflects the things most important to me.

IS Holistic Vision – items that frame a complete personal vision.

1. My vision includes my values and philosophy.
2. My vision includes my contributions to others and the community.

IS Deeper Meaning – items related to health and relationships.

1. My vision includes my family relationships.
2. My vision includes my physical health.
3. My vision includes my intimate/love relationships.
4. My vision includes my spiritual health.

IS Fun – items that constitute the playful part of a personal vision.

1. My vision includes fun activities.
2. My vision includes leisurely activities.

Company Purpose:

Developed by Berg using the guidelines recommended by Blair et al. (2014)

1. The primary purpose of my organization is profits.
2. The purpose of my organization includes more than making a profit.
3. The purpose of my organization is to make a positive impact on people other than just the investors.

Engagement:

Schaufeli, W., Bakker, A. B., & Salanova, M. (2006). The measurement of work engagement with a short questionnaire. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 66(4): 701-716.

UWES Work and Well-Being Survey

Scoring: 1=Never to 7=Always (everyday)

VI = Vigor

DE = Dedication

AB = Absorption

1. At my work, I feel bursting with energy. (VI1)
2. I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose. (DE1)
3. Time flies when I am working. (AB1)
4. At my job, I feel strong and vigorous. (VI2)
5. I am enthusiastic about my job. (DE2)
6. When I am working, I forget everything else around me. (AB2)
7. My job inspires me. (DE3)
8. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work. (VI3)
9. I feel happy when I am working intensely. (AB3)
10. I am proud of the work that I do. (DE4)
11. I am immersed in my work. (AB4)
12. I can continue working for very long periods at a time. (VI4)
13. To me, my job is challenging. (DE5)
14. I get carried away when I am working. (AB5)
15. At my job, I am very resilient mentally. (VI5)
16. It is difficult to detach myself from my job. (AB6)
17. At my work, I always persevere, even when things do not go well. (VI6)

Organizational Commitment:

Mowday, R. T., Steers, R. M., & Porter, L. W. (1979). The measurement of organizational commitment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 14: 224–247.

Scoring: 1=Never to 7=Always (everyday)

1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond what is normally expected in order to help this organization be successful.
2. I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.
3. I would accept almost any type of job assignment to keep working for this organization.
4. I find that my values and the organizations values are similar.
5. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.
6. The organization really inspires the very best in me in the area of job performance.
7. I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.
8. I really care about the fate of this organization.
9. For me this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work.

Relational Climate:

Boyatzis, R. E., & Rochford, K. (2015). *Relational climate scale*. Cleveland, OH: Case Western Reserve University.

Scoring: 1=Never to 7=Always (everyday)

1. My organization's daily work aligns with our vision. (SV)
2. My organization's purpose is clear. (SV)
3. Members of my organization have a shared purpose. (SV)
4. My organization's actions are guided by a shared vision. (SV)
5. Members of my organization have similar visions of the organization's future. (SV)
6. Members of my organization are empathetic toward each other. (C)
7. People in my organization notice when others are in need. (C)
8. Members of my organization care about each other's well-being. (C)
9. When someone in my organization is in need, my organization takes action to assist them. (C)
10. The relationships in my organization are a source of energy. (RE)
11. The atmosphere in my organization is vibrant. (RE)
12. Interactions in my organization are lively. (RE)

Appendix B Factor Loadings for Phase Two

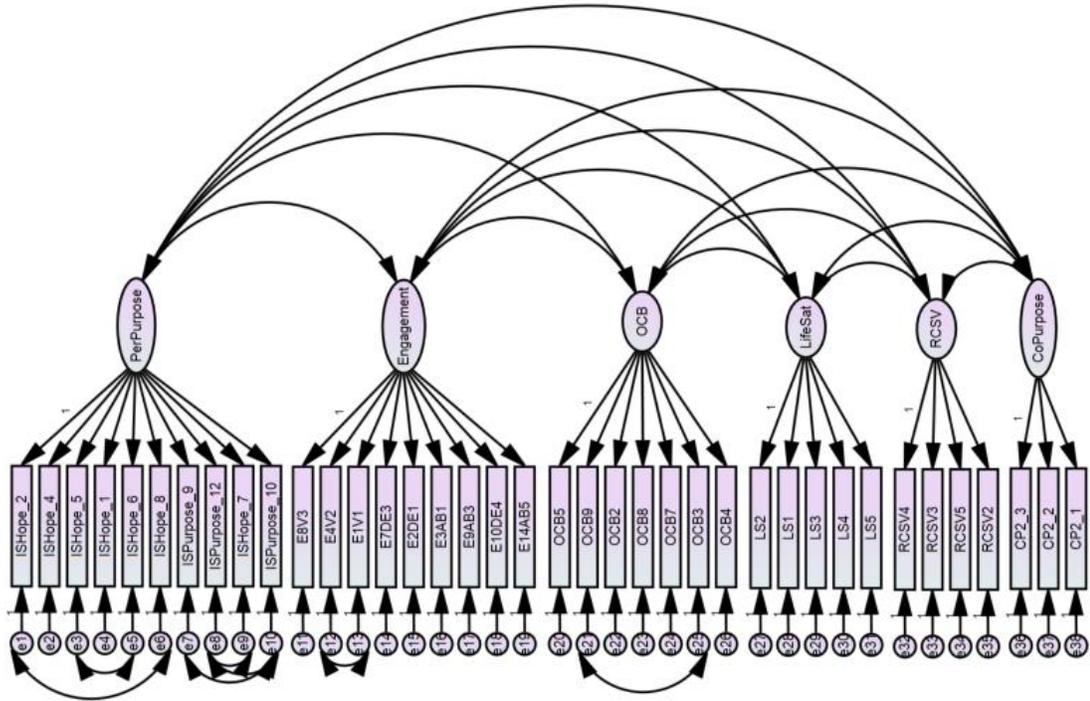
	Factor Loadings					
	Personal Purpose	Eng	Org Comm	Life Sat	Rel Climate	Co Purp
ISHope_2	0.87					
ISHope_4	0.81					
ISHope_5	0.79					
ISHope_1	0.77					
ISHope_6	0.77					
ISHope_8	0.71					
ISPurpose_9	0.66					
ISPurpose_12	0.64					
ISHope_7	0.62					
ISPurpose_10	0.52					
E8V3		0.84				
E4V2		0.83				
E1V1		0.83				
E7DE3		0.80				
E2DE1		0.78				
E3AB1		0.75				
E9AB3		0.66				
E10DE4		0.52				
E14AB5		0.51				
OCB5			0.90			
OCB9			0.85			
OCB2			0.80			
OCB8			0.70			
OCB7			0.70			
OCB3			0.64			
OCB4			0.60			
OCB6		0.24	0.58			
LS2				0.89		
LS1				0.84		
LS3				0.83		
LS4				0.69		
LS5				0.66		
RCSV4					0.93	
RCSV3					0.91	
RCSV5					0.81	
RCSV2					0.79	
CP2_3						0.85
CP2_2						0.85
CP2_1						0.48

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring. N=546

Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

Appendix C Measurement Model for Phase Two



Appendix D

Survey to Develop Transformational and Transactional Words

Introduction: Thank you for taking a few minutes to complete this survey. The purpose of the survey is to gather insights into what drives people in a work environment. The results will be used to help executives such as yourself understand what motivates employees to be engaged in their work. Some people LOVE to check things off a list and the ability to complete a task motivates and engages them. Other people LOVE to focus on the really big picture and will forfeit the completion of a goal if they think there is a better way to accomplish the ultimate goal. Both types of people are necessary, but they are different. The survey has only two questions and should take less than four minutes to complete.

You will be asked to list 5-10 words that you feel describe these two different types of people. Please do not list the same words twice. You are able to change your answers at any time up until you hit submit.

Q1: Think of the people you know that love to check things off the list and get excited when they complete a goal. This type of person might actually put something on their list that they have already completed in order to cross it off and feel the sense of accomplishment for having completed it. Please type in at least 5 and up to 10 words that describe this type of person. They do not need to be in any order of importance or prominence.

Q2: Think of the people you know that are so focused on the end goal that they tend to not complete a goal because they are pursuing something else that will get them to the ultimate purpose of the initiative. When you take a moment to recognize the completion of a goal they wave you off because they are already on to the next thing. Please type in at least 5 and up to 10 words that describe this type of person. Do not use the same words listed in the previous question. They do not need to be in any order of importance or prominence.

Appendix E

Survey Questions for Selecting Transformational and Transactional Words

The next section is about selecting words that best describe how you view **YOURSELF**. Insert each word or phrase into the following sentence before you rate it: I see myself as **primarily** (insert word or phrase here). "**Primarily**" means often and most of the time. There are 30 words; come as close to putting 15 words in the "yes" category and 15 words in the "no" category as you can.

The next section is about selecting words that best describe how you view **YOUR ORGANIZATION**. Insert each word or phrase into the following sentence before you rate it: I see my organization as **primarily** (insert word or phrase here). "**Primarily**" means often and most of the time. There are 30 words; come as close to putting 15 words in the "yes" category and 15 words in the "no" category as you can.

1. Achieving something big
2. Big picture oriented
3. Competitive
4. Conceptual
5. Creating
6. Deliberate
7. Efficient
8. Enjoy discovery
9. Entrepreneurial
10. Expecting promptness
11. Innovative
12. Inspirational
13. Instilling purpose in others
14. Intuitive
15. Liking closure
16. Linear
17. Long term focused
18. Managing people and projects
19. Motivated by rewards
20. Open minded
21. Process oriented
22. Reflective
23. Relationship focused
24. Tactical
25. Tangible
26. Task-focused
27. Time sensitive
28. Systematic
29. Very focused
30. Visionary

Appendix F
Factor Loadings for Phase Three

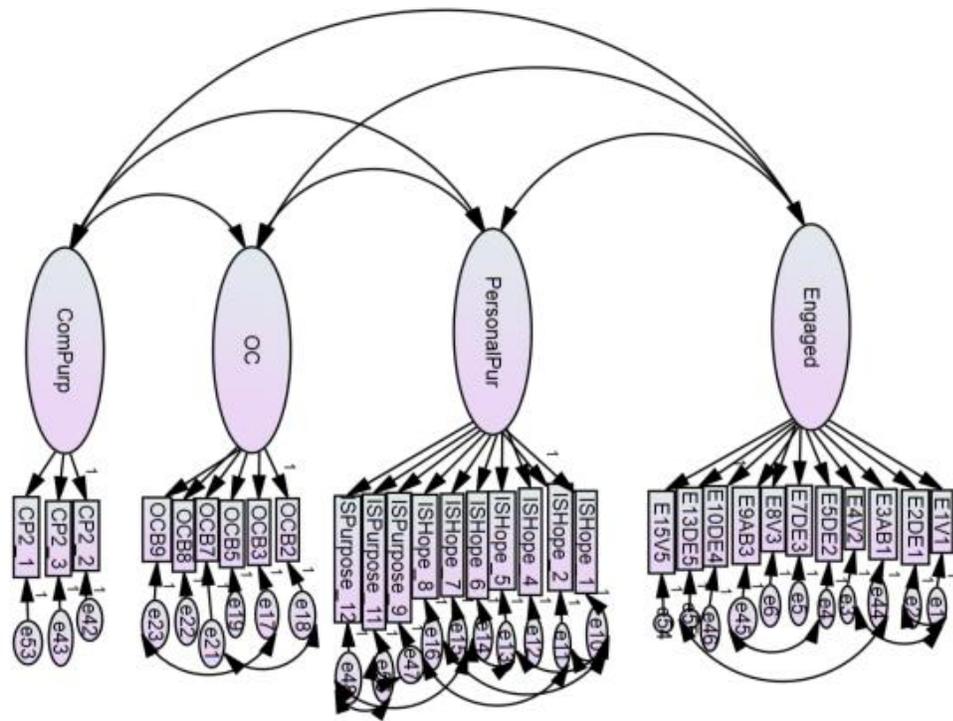
Item	Engagement	Factor Loadings		
		Personal Purpose	Org Comm	Company Purpose
E5DE2	0.85			
E8V3	0.85			
E4V2	0.85			
E2DE1	0.82			
E7DE3	0.82			
E1V1	0.81			
E3AB1	0.78			
E9AB3	0.63			
E13DE5	0.57			
E10DE4	0.56			
E15V5	0.45			
ISHope_5		0.84		
ISHope_4		0.82		
ISHope_2		0.81		
ISHope_6		0.80		
ISHope_1		0.74		
ISHope_8		0.69		
ISPurpose_9		0.69		
ISPurpose_11		0.69		
ISPurpose_12		0.59		
ISHope_7		0.59		
OCB5			0.87	
OCB9			0.82	
OCB2			0.77	
OCB7			0.68	
OCB8			0.66	
OCB3			0.60	
CP2_3				0.86
CP2_2				0.85
CP2_1				0.43
% of variance	35.2%	11.5%	5.7%	4.0%

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring (N=546).

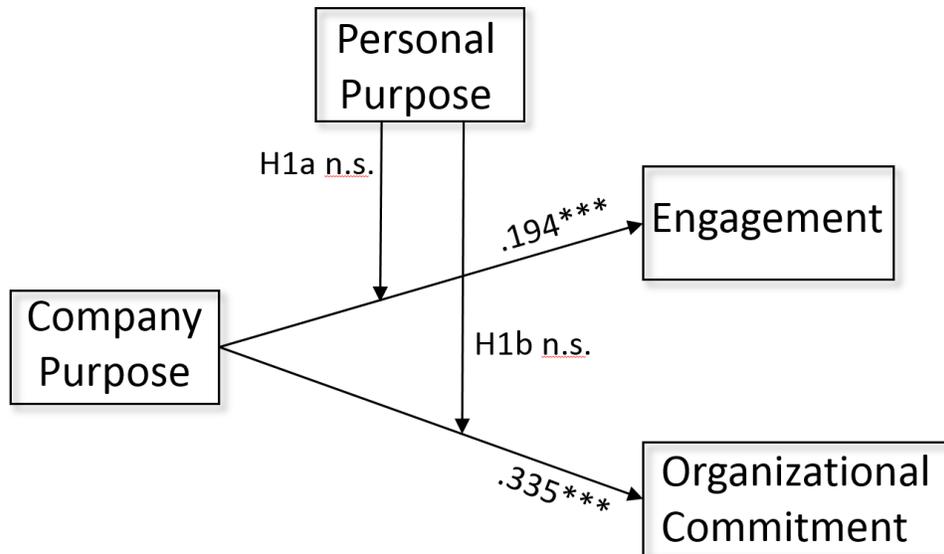
Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.^a

Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

Appendix G Measurement Model for Phase Three



Appendix H
Regression Weights and P-value for Phase 3: Hypotheses 1a&b



References

- Adams, G. A., King, L. A., & King, D. W. 1996. Relationships of job and family involvement, family social support, and work-family conflict with job and life satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81(4): 411–420.
- Adkins, A. 2015. Majority of U.S. employees not engaged despite gains in 2014. *Gallup*. <http://www.gallup.com/poll/181289/majority-employees-not-engaged-despite-gains-2014.aspx>.
- Arogyaswamy, B., & Byles, C. M. 1987. Organizational culture internal and external fits. *Journal of Management*, 13(4): 647–659.
- Ashforth, B. E., & Mael, F. 1989. Identity theory and the organization. *The Academy of Management Review*, 14(1): 20–39.
- Bakker, A. B., & Leiter, M. P. (Eds.). 2010. *Work engagement: A handbook of essential theory and research*. Hove; New York: Psychology Press.
- Bakker, A. B., & Schaufeli, W. B. 2008. Positive organizational behavior: Engaged employees in flourishing organizations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 29: 147–154.
- 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(3): 187–200.
- Bandura, A. 1997. *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York, NY: Freeman.
- Barnette, J. J. 2000. Effects of stem and Likert response option reversals on survey internal consistency: If you feel the need, there is a better alternative to using those negatively worded stems. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 60(3): 361–370.
- Bass, B. M. 1985. *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. New York: Free Press.
- Bass, B. M. 1990. From transactional to transformational leadership: Learning to share the vision. *Organizational Dynamics*, 18(3): 19–31.
- Bass, B. M., Avolio, B. J., & Goodheim, L. 1987. Biography and the assessment of transformational leadership at the world-class level. *Journal of Management*, 13(1): 7–19.
- Bass, B. M., & Bass, R. 2008. *The Bass handbook of leadership* (4th ed.). New York, NY: Free Press.

- Baum, J. R., Dutterer, I. C., Locke, E. A., & Kkkpatrick, S. A. 1998. A longitudinal study of the relation of vision and vision communication to venture growth in entrepreneurial firms. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83(1): 43–54.
- Baumeister, R. F., Vohs, K. D., Aaker, J. L., & Garbinsky, E. N. 2012. *Some key differences between a happy life and a meaningful life*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University.
- Beck, R., & Harter, J. K. 2014. Why good managers are so rare. *Harvard Business Review*, (March). <http://blogs.hbr.org/2014/03/why-good-managers-are-so-rare/>.
- Beer, M., Norgren, F., Eisenstat, R., Foote, N., & Fredberg, T. 2011. *Higher ambition: How great leaders create economic and social value*. USA: TruePoint LLC.
- Bennis, W., & Nanus, B. 1985. *Leaders: The strategies for taking charge*. New York, NY: Harper and Row.
- Berlyne, A. D. E. 1964. A decade of motivation theory. *American Scientist*, 52(4): 447–451.
- Blair, J., Czaja, R., & Blair, E. 2014. *Designing surveys: A guide to decisions and procedures*. London; Los Angeles; New Delhi; Singapore; Washington, DC: Sage Publications.
- Blauner, R. 1964. *Alienation and freedom: The factory worker and his industry*. Oxford, England: Chicago University Press.
- Bonebright, C. a., Clay, D. L., & Ankenmann, R. D. 2000. The relationship of workaholism with work-life conflict, life satisfaction, and purpose in life. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 47(4): 469–477.
- Boyatzis, R. E. 1998. *Transforming qualitative information: Thematic analysis and code development* (1st ed.). Sage Publications.
- Boyatzis, R. E. 2006. An overview of intentional change from a complexity perspective. *Journal of Management Development*, 25(7): 607–623.
- Boyatzis, R. E. 2008. Leadership development from a complexity perspective. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 60(4): 298–313.
- Boyatzis, R. E., & Akrivou, K. 2006. The ideal self as the driver of intentional change. *Journal of Management Development*, 25(7): 624–642.
- Boyatzis, R. E., & Rochford, K. 2015. *Relational climate scale*. Cleveland, OH: Case Western Reserve University.
- Boyatzis, R. E., Rochford, K., & Jack, A. I. 2014. Antagonistic neural networks

- underlying differentiated leadership roles. *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience*, 8(March): 114.
- Boyatzis, R. E., Rochford, K., & Taylor, S. N. 2015. The role of the positive emotional attractor in vision and shared vision: toward effective leadership, relationships, and engagement. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 6(May): 670.
- Boyatzis, R. E., Smith, M. L., & Beveridge, A. J. 2012. Coaching with compassion: Inspiring health, well-being, and development in organizations. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 49(2): 153–178.
- Boyatzis, R. E., Smith, M. L., & Blaize, N. 2006. Developing sustainable leaders through coaching and compassion. *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 5(1): 8–24.
- Bryman, A., & Bell, E. 2003. *Business research methods*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Burns, J. M. 1978. *Leadership* (3rd ed.). New York, NY: Harper & Row.
- Burns, J. M. 2003. *Transforming leadership: A new pursuit of happiness (Vol. 213)*. Grove Press.
- Buse, K. R., & Bilimoria, D. 2014. Personal vision: enhancing work engagement and the retention of women in the engineering profession. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 5(December): 1–13.
- Cardador, M. T., Dane, E., & Pratt, M. G. 2011. Linking calling orientations to organizational attachment via organizational instrumentality. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 79: 367–378.
- Charmaz, K. 2014. *Constructing grounded theory* (2nd ed.). Sage Publications.
- Christian, M. S., & Slaughter, J. E. 2007. Work engagement: A meta-analytic review and directions for research in an emerging area. *Academy of Management Proceedings*, 1–6. Academy of Management.
- Ciulla, J. B. 2002. Ethics and leadership effectiveness. *The Ethics of Leadership*, 302–327.
- Clayton, B. C. 2009. *When practice and theory conflict: Do financial incentives influence championing behaviors in mergers and acquisition*. Quantitative Research Report, Doctor of Management Program, Case Western Reserve University, Cleveland, OH.
- Collins, J. C., & Porras, J. I. 2005. *Built to last: Successful habits of visionary companies*. Random House.

- Collins, J. C., & Porras, J. I. 2008. Organizational vision and visionary organizations. *California Management Review*, 50(2): 117–137.
- Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. 2007. Choosing a mixed methods design. *Designing and Conducting Mixed Methods Research*, 53–106.
- Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. 2011. *Designing and conducting mixed methods research* (2nd ed.). Sage Publications.
- Damon, W., Menon, J., & Bronk, K. C. 2003. *The development of purpose during adolescence*, 7(3): 119–128.
- Deal, T. E., & Kennedy, A. A. 1982. *Corporate cultures: The rites and rituals of organizational life* (2nd ed.). Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Debats, D. L., Van der Lubbe, P. M., & Wezeman, F. R. 1993. On the psychometric properties of the Life Regard Index (LRI): A measure of meaningful life: An evaluation in three independent samples based on the Dutch version. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 14(2): 337–345.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. 2008. Self-determination theory: A macrotheory of human motivation, development, and health. *Canadian Psychology/Psychologie Canadienne*, 49(3): 182–185.
- Diener, E. 2014. Pioneer in subjective quality of life research. *Applied Research in Quality of Life*, 9(1): 137–138.
- Diener, E., Emmons, R. A., Larsen, R. J., & Griffin, S. 1985. The satisfaction with life scale. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 49(1): 71–75.
- Diener, E., Inglehart, R., & Tay, L. 2013. Theory and validity of life satisfaction scales. *Social Indicators Research*, 112(May 2012): 497–527.
- Dik, B., Byrne, Z., & Steger, M. (Eds.). 2013. *Purpose and meaning in the workplace* (1st ed.). Washington, DC: The American Psychological Association.
- Dik, B. J., & Duffy, R. D. 2009. Calling and vocation at work. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 37(3): 424–450.
- Dirks, K. T., & Ferrin, D. L. 2002. Trust in leadership: Meta-analytic findings and implications for research and practice. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(4): 611–628.
- Duffy, R. D., & Dik, B. J. 2013. Research on calling: What have we learned and where are we going? *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 83(3): 428–436.
- Duffy, R. D., & Sedlacek, W. E. 2007. The presence of and search for a calling:

- Connections to career development. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 70(3): 590–601.
- Elangovan, A. R., Pinder, C. C., & McLean, M. 2010. Callings and organizational behavior. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 76(3): 428–440.
- Emery, F. E., & Trist, E. L. 1965. The causal texture of organizational environments. *Human Relations*, 18(1): 21–32.
- Fowler, S. 2014. *Why motivating people doesn't work... and what does: The new science of leading, energizing, and engaging*. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.
- Frankl, V. E. 1959a. *Man's Search for Meaning, an introduction to logotherapy*. Boston, MA: Beacon Press.
- Frankl, V. E. 1959b. *From death-camp to existentialism: A psychiatrist's path to a new therapy*. Beacon Press.
- Gilbert, T. F. 2007. *Human competence: Engineering worthy performance*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Glaser, B. G. 1978. *Theoretical sensitivity*. Mill Valley, CA: The Sociology Press.
- Goleman, D., & Boyatzis, R. E. 2009. Social intelligence and the biology of leadership. *Harvard Business Review*, 87(1): 108.
- Greene, J. C., Caracelli, V. J., & Graham, W. F. 1989. Toward a Conceptual Framework for Mixed-Method Evaluation Designs. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 11(3): 255–274.
- Hair, J. F. J., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. 2010. *Multivariate data analysis* (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education / Prentice Hall.
- Hakanen, J. J., Bakker, A. B., & Schaufeli, W. B. 2006. Burnout and work engagement among teachers. *Journal of School Psychology*, 43(6): 495–513.
- Hall, B., & Howard, K. 2008. A synergistic approach conducting mixed methods research with typological and systemic design considerations. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 2(3): 248–269.
- Hall, D. T., & Chandler, D. E. 2005. Psychological success: When the career is acalling. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26(2): 155–176.
- Hall, D. T., & Lawler, E. E. 1970. Job characteristics and pressures and the organizational integration of professionals. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 15(3): 271–281.

- Harter, J. K., Schmidt, F. L., & Hayes, T. L. 2002. Business-unit-level relationship between employee satisfaction, employee engagement, and business outcomes: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(2): 268–279.
- Hecht, T. D., & Allen, N. J. 2009. A longitudinal examination of the work – nonwork boundary strength construct. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 30(October 2012): 839–862.
- Herzberg, F. 1968. One more time: How do you motivate employees. *Harvard Business Review*, 46: 53–62.
- Higgins, E. T. 1987. Self-discrepancy: A theory relating self and affect. *Psychological Review*, 94(3): 319–340.
- Hodgkinson, M. 2002. A shared strategic vision: Dream or reality? *The Learning Organization*, 9(2): 184–200.
- Hogg, M. A. 2001. A social identity theory of leadership. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 5(3): 184–200.
- House, R. J., & Shamir, B. 1993. Toward the integration of transformational, charismatic, and visionary theories. In M. Chemers & R. Ayman (Eds.), *Leadership theory and research: Perspectives and directions*: 81–107. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Johnson, R. B., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. 2004. Mixed methods research: A research paradigm whose time has come. *Educational Researcher*, 33(7): 14–26.
- Judge, T. A., & Piccolo, R. F. 2004. Transformational and transactional leadership: a meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(5): 755.
- 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 fully there: Psychological presence at work. *Human Relations*, 45: 321–349.
- Kapoor, S., & Meachem, A. 2012. Employee engagement: A bond between employee and organisation. *Amity Global Business Review*, 7(February): 14–21.
- Kelleher, B. 2011. Employee engagement: 10 practical steps that drive results. *Leadership Excellence*, September: 4.
- Kellerman, B. (Ed.). 1984. *Leadership: Multidisciplinary perspectives*. Prentice Hall.
- Kempster, S., Jackson, B., & Conroy, M. 2011. Leadership as purpose: Exploring the role of purpose in leadership practice. *Leadership*, 7: 317–334.

- Keyes, C. L. M. 2011. Authentic purpose: The spiritual infrastructure of life. *Journal of Management, Spirituality & Religion*, 8(4): 281–297.
- Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. 1987. *The leadership challenge: How to get extraordinary things done in organizations*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Kuhnert, K. W., & Lewis, P. 1987. Transactional and transformational leadership: A constructive/developmental analysis. *Academy of Management Review*, 12(4): 648–657.
- Labovitz, G., & Rosansky, V. 1997. *The power of alignment: How great companies stay centered and accomplish extraordinary things*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Larsen, R. J., Diener, E., & Emmons, R. A. 1985. An evaluation of subjective well-being measures. *Social Indicators Research*, 17(1): 1–17.
- Locke, E. A., & Latham, G. P. 2006. New directions in goal-setting theory. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 15(5): 265–268.
- Lodahl, T. M., & Kejnar, M. 1965. The definition and measurement of job involvement. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 49(1): 24–33.
- Loehr, J., & Schwartz, T. 2003. *The power of full engagement: Managing energy, not time, in the key to high performance and personal renewal*. New York, NY: Free Press.
- Logan, G. M. 1984. Loyalty and a sense of purpose. *California Management Review*, 27(1): 149–156.
- Lowe, K. B., Kroeck, K. G., & Sivasubramaniam, N. 1996. Effectiveness correlates of transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic review of the MLQ literature. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 7(3): 385–425.
- Macey, W. H., & Schneider, B. 2008. The meaning of employee engagement. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 1(1): 3–30.
- Mackey, J., & Sisodia, R. 2014. *Conscious capitalism, with a new preface by the authors: Liberating the heroic spirit of business*. Harvard Business Review Press.
- Mallett, C. J., & Hanrahan, S. J. 2004. Elite athletes: why does the “fire” burn so brightly? *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, 5(2): 183–200.
- Maslach, C., & Leiter, M. P. 1997. *The truth about burnout*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Maslow, A. 1943. A theory of human motivation. *Psychological Review*, 50: 370–396.

- McKnight, P. E., & Kashdan, T. B. 2009. Purpose in life as a system that creates and sustains health and well-being: An integrative, testable theory. *Review of General Psychology*, 13(3): 242–251.
- Mead, G. H. 1934. *The psychology of George Herbert Mead*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Merriam-Webster. 2016a. *Purpose [Definition]*. <http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/purpose>.
- Merriam-Webster. 2016b. *Transactional [Definition]*. <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/transactional>.
- Mirvis, P., Googins, B., & Kinnicutt, S. 2010. Vision, mission, values. *Organizational Dynamics*, 39(4): 316–324.
- Morse, J. M. 1991. Approaches to qualitative-quantitative methodological triangulation. *Nursing Research*, 40(2): 120–123.
- Mowday, R. T., Steers, R. M., & Porter, L. W. 1979. The measurement of organizational commitment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 14: 224–247.
- Neff, J. E. 2011. *Non-financial indicators of family performance: A portfolio model approach*. Qualitative Research Report, Doctor of Management Program, Case Western Reserve University, Cleveland, OH.
- Nonaka, I., Hirata, T., Kohlbacher, F., & Toyama, R. 2008. *Managing flow*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Nonaka, I., & Takeuchi, H. 1995. *The Knowledge-creating company: How Japanese companies create the dynamics of innovation*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Novak, M. 1996. *Business as a calling: Work and the examined life*. New York, NY: Free Press.
- O'Reilly, C. 1989. Corporations, culture, and commitment: Motivation and social control in organizations. *California Management Review*, 31(4): 9–25.
- O'Reilly, C. 2008. Culture, corporations, and commitment: Motivation and social control in organizations. *California Management Review*, 50(2): 85–101.
- Overbeke, K. K. 2010. *Vision as a crucial mediator in predicting daughters' succession in family businesses*. Qualitative Research Report, Doctor of Management Program, Case Western Reserve University, Cleveland, OH.
- Pearce, C. L., & Ensley, M. D. 2004. A reciprocal and longitudinal investigation of the

- innovation process: The central role of shared vision in product and process innovation teams (PPITs). *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 25(June 2003): 259–278.
- Peters, T. J., Waterman, R. H., & Jones, I. 1982. *In search of excellence: Lessons from America's best-run companies*. Harper & Row.
- Peterson, C., Park, N., Hall, N., & Seligman, M. E. P. 2009. Zest and work. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 30(November 2008): 161–172.
- Peterson, C., Park, N., & Seligman, M. E. P. 2005. Orientations to happiness and life satisfaction: The full life versus the empty life. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 6(1): 25–41.
- Podsakoff, M., Mackenzie, S. B., & Moorman, H. 1990. *Leader behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and citizenship behaviors*, (2): 107–142.
- Porter, L. W., & Lawler, E. E. 1968. *Managerial attitudes and performance*. Richard D. Irwin.
- Porter, L. W., Steers, R. M., Mowday, R. T., & Boulian, P. V. 1974. Organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover among psychiatric technicians. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 59(5): 603–609.
- Rainey, L. Y. 2014. *The search for purpose in life: An exploration of purpose, the search process, and purpose anxiety*. Capstone Project for MAPP Program, University of Pennsylvania.
- Rhoades, L., & Eisenberger, R. 2002. Perceived organizational support: A review of the literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(4): 698–714.
- Rochford, K. 2015. *Relational climate in the work place: Dimensions, measurement, and validation*. Unpublished manuscript. Case Western Reserve University, Cleveland, OH.
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. 2000a. Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: Classic definitions and new directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25(1): 54–67.
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. 2000b. Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American Psychologist*, 55(1): 68–78.
- Saldaña, J. 2016. *The coding manual for qualitative researchers* (3rd ed.). Sage Publications.
- Sathe, V. 1983. The controller's role in management. *Organizational Dynamics*, 11(3):

31–48.

- Schaufeli, W. B., & Bakker, A. B. 2003. *Utrecht work engagement scale: Preliminary manual*. Occupational Health Psychology Unit, Utrecht University.
- Schaufeli, W. B., & Bakker, A. B. 2004. Job demands, job resources, and their relationship with burnout and engagement: A multi-sample study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 25(3): 293–315.
- Schaufeli, W. B., Bakker, A. B., & Salanova, M. 2006. The measurement of work engagement with a short questionnaire. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 66(4): 701–716.
- Schaufeli, W. B., Salanova, M., Bakker, A. B., & Gonzales-Roma, V. 2002. The measurement of engagement and burnout: A two sample confirmatory factor analytic approach. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 3: 71–92.
- Schein, E. H. 1985. *Organisational culture and leadership: A dynamic view*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Schein, V. E. 1977. Individual power and political behaviors in organizations: An inadequately explored reality. *Academy of Management Review*, 2(1): 64–72.
- Schwartz, H., & Davis, S. M. 1981. Matching corporate culture and business strategy. *Organizational Dynamics*, 10(1): 30–48.
- Seeman, M. 1972. Alienation and engagement. In Campbell, Angus & P. E. Converse (Eds.), *The human meaning of social change*: 467–527. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.
- Sekaran, U. 1983. Factors influencing the quality of life in dual-career families. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 56(2): 161–174.
- Seligman, M. E. P. 2013. *Flourish a visionary new understanding of happiness and well-being* (1st ed.). New York, NY: Atria Paperback.
- Seligman, M. E. P., & Csikszentmihalyi, M. 2000. Positive psychology: An introduction. *American Psychologist*, 55(1): 5–14.
- Seligman, M. E. P., Railton, P., Baumeister, R. F., & Sripada, C. 2013. Navigating into the future or driven by the past. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 8(2): 119–141.
- Shamir, B., House, R. J., & Arthur, M. B. 1993. The motivational effects of charismatic leadership: A self-concept based theory. *Organization Science*, 4(4): 577–594.
- Sheth, J. N., Sisodia, R. S., & Wolfe, D. B. 2003. *Firms of endearment: How world-*

- class companies profit from passion and purpose*. Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Shuck, B., & Rose, K. 2013. Reframing employee engagement within the context of meaning and purpose: Implications for HRD. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 15(4): 341–355.
- Smith, A. K. 2010. *The “where” and “how” of exploration and exploitation: Balancing leadership styles to drive innovation and performance*. Qualitative Research Report, Doctor of Management Program, Case Western Reserve University, Cleveland, OH.
- Snyder, R. (Ed.). 2000. *Handbook of hope: Theory, measures and applications*. San Diego, CA: A Hardcourt Science and Technology Company.
- Steger, M. F., Dik, B. J., & Duffy, R. D. 2012. Measuring meaningful work: The Work and Meaning Inventory (WAMI). *Journal of Career Assessment*, 1–16.
- Strauss, A. L. 1987. *Qualitative analysis for social scientists*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Tajfel, H. 1982. Social psychology of intergroup relations. *Annual Reviews Psychology*, 33(1–39): 1–39.
- Teddlie, C., & Tashakkori, A. 2011. Mixed methods research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of qualitative research* (4th ed.): 285–300. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Tillott, S., Walsh, K., & Moxham, L. 2013. Encouraging engagement at work to improve retention. *Nursing Management*, 19(10): 27–31.
- 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(1): 15–27.
- Van Oosten, E. B. 2006. Intentional change theory at the organizational level: A case study. *Journal of Management Development*, 25(7): 707–717.
- Waddock, S. A., & Graves, S. B. 2000. Beyond built to last... Stakeholder relations in “built to last” companies. *Business and Society Review*, 105(4): 393–418.
- White, R. W. 1959. Motivation reconsidered: The concept of competence. *Psychological Review*, 66(5): 297–333.
- Woltman, H., Feldstain, A., MacKay, J. C., & Rocchi, M. 2012. An introduction to hierarchical linear modeling. *Tutorials in Quantitative Methods for Psychology*, 8(1): 52–69.

- Yukl, G. A. 1981. *Leadership in organizations*. Pearson Education India.
- Zhao, X., Lynch, J. G., & Chen, Q. 2010. Reconsidering Baron and Kenny: Myths and truths about mediation analysis. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 37(2): 197–206.
- Zika, S., & Chamberlain, K. 1992. On the relation between meaning in life and psychological well-being. *British Journal of Psychology*, 83: 133–145.