Health Information Leadership Styles in

Enterprise Information Management

by

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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Education
(Leadership)
at the University of Michigan-Dearborn
2019

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Dedication

This work is dedicated to the memory of my parents, Allen and Janet Sorensen. Their love and

support made it possible for me to accomplish all that is good in my life.

Acknowledgements

I would like to express my deepest appreciation to my committee chair Dr. Bonnie Beyer, who continually supported and encouraged me through this process. I would also like to thank my committee members, Dr. John Artis, Dr. Stein Brunvand, and Dr. Jessica Camp whose expertise and guidance was invaluable. A special thank you to Dr. Bob Fraser for the kick-start and the coffee needed to get things moving. My sincere thanks to all the faculty and staff at the University of Michigan-Dearborn who assisted me in my efforts.

I am further grateful to all my colleagues and the library staff at Davenport University for their overall support, encouragement, and research assistance. I am also grateful to my HIM peers and the staff at AHIMA who assisted with all my research efforts.

In addition, thank you to my friends for providing a happy distraction and a sympathetic ear when needed.

Finally, my thanks and all my love to my husband, Ed, and my daughters, Alex and Gabi, for their support during this long process. Thank you for your patience and for giving me the time needed to accomplish something important and meaningful to me.

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Abstract

This research study involved an investigation into the transactional, transformational, and passive leadership styles in relation to enterprise information management of health information professionals. The purpose of this study was to investigate a comparison between these three leadership styles used by health information professionals who have effectively managed enterprise information. This research used a theoretical framework based on transactional, transformational, and passive leadership styles. A quantitative approach was employed with using a questionnaire with a Likert-type online survey. The source of participants included the member database of the American Health Information Management Association. The basis for selection of participants was job level, educational level, credential held, job setting, and geographic region. An explanation as to the need for this research is included.

Keywords: health information, enterprise information management, leadership, leadership styles

Chapter One: Introduction

Originally called medical record science, the field of health information management (HIM) has been recognized as a profession since the 1920's with members of the profession originally referred to as medical record librarians. From the beginning, the mission of HIM professionals has always been to raise standards related to clinical recordkeeping (Oachs & Watters, 2016), this is no different today with HIM professionals working in a variety of settings and having a variety of job titles. HIM professionals connect the administrative, operational, and clinical aspects of health care while being involved in providing quality health information at every point in a healthcare delivery system. The introduction of managed care in the 1980's led to the emergence of health information as a priority for healthcare institutions and this trend has continued until today for various other reasons. In the 2000's, government and industry initiatives began to focus on health information technologies that included meaningful ways to make informed clinical decisions while at the same time increasing quality of care, improving coordination of care, and decreasing the cost of healthcare. The HIM profession is at the core of these initiatives (Oachs, & Watters, 2016).

For over 85 years, health information management professionals have been involved in ensuring the accuracy, availability, and protection of information necessary for delivering healthcare services and making informed and appropriate decisions related to the delivery of healthcare (Oachs & Watters, 2016). HIM professionals' fall under the umbrella of allied health professions and are involved in healthcare at all levels. The simplest way of stating HIM's

mission is to say anywhere there is health information or health data, there is HIM. As health records have evolved from paper records to electronic records, HIM professionals have led the way to ensure proper mechanisms are put in place to address completeness of documentation, appropriateness and integrity of health information, and the appropriateness of sharing health information. As practices related to HIM have evolved and become more complex, so have the roles of HIM professionals resulting in increased educational needs.

Since the implementation of the piloted master's degree in HIM in 2002, the competencies at the bachelor level changed to include new government and industry initiatives related to advances in technology leading to the 2010 competencies. Among these initiatives are the Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act (HIPAA) of 1996 ("Health Insurance,", 1996) which addresses the privacy and security of protected health information in all forms (including electronic), and the Health Information Technology for Economic and Clinical Health (HITECH) Act of 2009 ("HITECH Act Enforcement,", 2009). The HITECH Act is part of the American Recovery and Reinvestment (ARRA) Act ("H.R.1 – American,", 2009) and addresses electronic health record requirements and meaningful use such as data breaches and interoperability of health information. Interoperability refers to the appropriate exchange of health information between health care providers and entities that require this information as part of their operations. An additional initiative occurred in 2015 with the move to an updated disease and procedure classification system. The National Center for Health Statistics (NCHS) which is a federal agency in the United States responsible for this classification, moved from the International Classification of Diseases ninth revision to the tenth revision with clinical modifications (CDC/National Center for Health Statistics, 2015). The new system which is used to code and classify morbidity and mortality in the United States was greatly expanded to include

far more disease and procedure codes with greater specificity. This necessitated increased knowledge related to anatomy and physiology and disease processes for HIM professionals. This increased knowledge was incorporated into the curriculum competencies at the bachelor level of HIM programs.

The bachelor degree competencies required expansion to allow for inclusion of competencies related to the above changes. The implementation of the master's degree has allowed room at the bachelor level to include industry changes and the expanded competencies. The bachelor competencies have undergone several revisions since the creation of the degree, the most recent can be seen in the comparison of the 2010 to 2014 competencies (Table 1.1). It is important to note changes that occurred at the bachelor level as they have necessitated development of the master's degree. Changes in competencies at the bachelor level continue to occur. The following table depicts the changes in domain titles from the 2010 required competencies to the 2014 required competencies:

Table 1.1

Comparison of 2010 and 2014 AHIMA Baccalaureate Curricular Competencies

2010 AHIMA Baccalaureate Degree Entry-Level Competencies	2014 AHIMA Baccalaureate Degree Entry-Level Competencies
1. Health Data Management	1. Data Content, Structure, & Standards (Information Governance)
2. Health Statistics, Biomedical Research and Quality Management	2. Information Protection: Access, Disclosure, Archival, Privacy & Security
3. Health Services Organization and Delivery	3. Informatics, Analytics, and Data Use
4. Information Technology and Systems	4. Revenue Management
5. Organization and Management	5. Compliance
	6. Leadership

(Educational Strategy Committee, 2010).

The current competencies at the bachelor level include thirty-two subdomains with over one hundred competencies compared to the prior set consisting of 15 subdomains and sixty-nine competencies (Council for Excellence in Education, 2014.). These competencies were approved in 2014 and had an implementation date of 2017. The expansion of the required competencies at the undergraduate level led to the need for expansion in the master's level degree.

Prior to 2002, a master's degree in health information management did not exist. The Commission for Accreditation of Health Informatics and Information Management (CAHIIM) accredited the first master's degree in 2002 as a pilot without any published curricular competencies (Dixon-Lee, 2016). Curriculum requirements were subsequently developed and the first master's degree in Health Information Management (HIM) was accredited in 2008 using

the first set of required competencies (Dixon-Lee, 2016). Any subsequent master's level program was required to comply with these new competencies by 2010.

Since the existence of the CAHIIM accredited master's degree in health information management in 2002, the degree has undergone several revisions resulting in a separate accredited degree in Health Informatics (HI) with its own set of competencies. There has been a large change between the HIM master's level degree and the previous set of required competencies. One of the differences in the new competencies was the addition of a leadership domain. Previously, one of the competencies was called organization and management. The focus has shifted to leadership as opposed to management with leadership being important enough to have a separate domain. The emphasis on leadership in the new competencies is evident by the added leadership skills and traits as subdomains. Another change in competencies is the shift in the health data management domain to include data content, structure, standards and data governance. In addition, the previous domain of information technology and systems has expanded to include two domains that encompass information protection (access, disclosure, archival, privacy and security) and informatics, analytics, and data use. Finally, there are two additional new domains for revenue management and compliance. Revenue management at this level includes the entire revenue cycle process from beginning to end. Compliance includes regulations and laws with an emphasis on fraud and abuse.

The following table (Table 1.2) depicts the changes in domain titles from the 2010 required competencies to the current required competencies at the master's level:

Table 1.2

Comparison of 2010 and 2014 AHIMA Master's Level Competencies

2010 AHIMA Master's Degree Entry-Level Competencies (implementation date of 2012)	2014 AHIMA Master's Degree Entry-Level Competencies (implementation date of 2017)
1. Health Data Management 2. Information Technology & Systems 3. Organization & Management	1. Data Content, Structure, & Standards (Information Governance) 2. Information Protection: Access, Disclosure, Archival, Privacy & Security 3. Informatics, Analytics, and Data Use 4. Revenue Management 5. Compliance 6. Leadership

(Educational Strategy Committee, 2010).

The 2010 master's degree competencies included three domains which were health data management, information technology and systems, and organization and management. The 2010 domain titled "Organization and Management" included only three subdomains (Leadership, Resource Management, and Education and Training) (Educational Strategy Committee, 2010). The newest competencies include a separate domain titled "Leadership" with eleven subdomains. These eleven subdomains address specific competencies that fall under the overall umbrella of leadership (Council for Excellence in Education, 2014.). The newest set of competencies labeled 2014 had a required implementation date of fall 2017. There is quite a difference in the content and specificity between the leadership competencies of 2010 and 2014. This difference can be seen in the following list of the eleven current leadership subdomains:

- Leadership Roles

- Change Management

- Work Design and Process Improvement

- Human Resources Management

- Training and Development

- Strategic and Organizational Management

- Financial Management

- Ethics

- Project Management

- Vendor/Contract Management

- Enterprise Information Management (Council for Excellence in Education, 2014).

The addition of leadership competencies at both the bachelor and master's degree level required expanded leadership curriculum requirements and support an increased need for HIM leadership. The master's level curriculum has begun to address many necessary higher-level requirements needed by HIM leaders. A deeper look at the literature related to the above subdomains in leadership helps support the necessity of expanded education in the HIM profession related to leadership.

As evidenced in the above material related to industry changes and curriculum competency requirements, there has been a need to include much more content in HIM curriculum. The expansion of the curriculum at the bachelor level led to the need to create master's level degrees. As the roles of HIM professionals have changed, the need for leadership and higher-level skills can also be seen in the competencies required at both the bachelor and

master's levels. The bachelor level curriculum has expanded to include new domains and has moved from having a total of fifteen subdomains to thirty-two subdomains. The largest of these changes has been the move from three to six domains of leadership in the mater's level with a separate leadership domain that includes eleven subdomains. In addition, leadership has been added as a domain at both levels. These new competencies were not implemented until 2017 meaning that prior to that date, there were no leadership domains at any level. The result is that current HIM professionals are likely practicing with no formal education related to leadership, and graduates of current programs using the new competencies may just be entering the field.

It is evident the HIM profession has placed an increased importance on leadership as seen by the curriculum changes. It should also be noted here that curriculum revisions are currently taking place with newly approved curriculum required to be implemented by 2021. The new proposed curriculum is laddered throughout all levels including the associate level degree with leadership being included as a separate domain in all three. This supports the importance of the need for leadership since it will be expanded to be included in a detailed manner in the curricular competencies at every level. As previously stated, there are currently practicing leaders in the HIM profession that had no formal education in leadership. Now that leadership is a focus, the type of leaders needed must be determined. If curriculum at all three degree levels is going to require education related to leadership, what type of leadership and leadership skills need to be included at each level? With new technologies and industry mandates, it will be important to know what types of leaders will be effective in HIM positions. In order to answer the question, research on current practices of leaders in the profession is needed. We must know what constitutes a leadership role in HIM, who are the professionals in these roles, what types of leadership they are practicing, and what leadership practices are effective.

The purpose of the research conducted for this dissertation addresses the fact that leadership skills of HIM master level professionals is still lacking. According to Thierry-Sheridan, Watzlaf, and Fox (2016), there is an increased need for HIM leadership in healthcare organizations. HIM leaders are now responsible for an increasing body of knowledge including electronic health records, data analytics, and health informatics. Most HIM leaders have acquired leadership on the job by adding these learned skills to their management focused education (Thierry-Sheridan, Watzlaf, and Fox, 2016). This increased need is supported by the addition of leadership traits and skills elaborated by the Council for Excellence in Education (2014) and from the Commission on Accreditation for Health Informatics and Information. The development and inclusion of these new leadership competencies as listed in Table 1.2, include, but are not limited to, decision-making, strategic and organizational management, financial management, and enterprise information management. These four competencies have a direct impact on the increasing body of knowledge that includes electronic health records, data analytics, and health informatics. Management is already an ingrained part of the program of study. Addressing leadership roles, however, is new to HIM curriculum and is not as deeply rooted in the HIM profession as managerial roles have been. Thierry-Sheridan et al, 2016) support the need for more focus on leadership and less focus on management in the HIM profession as well as more research of HIM leadership in practice. To distinguish between the two, management seeks order and stability while leadership seeks adaptability and productive change (Northouse, 2013). According to Yukl (2013), quite a controversy exits between managing and leading noting that one can manage without leading and one can lead without managing. A common thought is that managers focus on how to get things done, while leaders focus on getting people to perform better (Yukl, 2013). As stated by Bennis and Nanus (1985, p.

21) "managers are people who do things right, and leaders are people who do the right thing".

However, Yukl (2013) supports the notion that people cannot be placed into one or the other of these categories as these two categories are not mutually exclusive nor do they have the same meaning to everyone. Successful managers in today's organizations possess leadership skills supporting the belief that a combination of both skill sets is needed. Research is needed to determine the essential leadership skills and processes that are necessary for leaders in the HIM profession of today and tomorrow.

According to research performed by Thierry-Sheridan et al, 2016), HIM supervisors and directors spend only 20 percent of their time on leadership activities and 80 percent of their time on management activities. These directors and supervisors believe continued success requires these numbers be reversed. As the roles of HIM professionals expand to include the implementation of electronic health records, enterprise information systems, and new government regulations related to privacy, security, and technology, HIM leaders are needed to support adaptability and productive change. The redefinition of how health information is gathered, stored, processed, used, and retrieved has redefined the need for HIM leadership.

Communication and relationship building are necessary leadership characteristics for HIM professionals (Thierry-Sheridan et al., 2016). Most leadership functions and roles require interpersonal skills which include communication and relationship building and, according to Yukl (2013), these are components of effective leadership. The transformational approach to leadership includes many dimensions of leadership such as empowerment, interpretation of shared meanings, and trust building, all of which require communication and relationship building (Northouse, 2013). Communication and relationship building can also be found in the

characteristics of servant leadership and include listening, empathy, and building community (Greenleaf, 1996).

HIM professionals suggest many different leadership approaches to address the lack of leadership including the Bowen Theory (Bowen, 1976), Kotter's change management steps (1996), Kouzes and Posner's leadership model (2007), and the Leader-Member Exchange Theory (Graen & Cashman, 1975). The Bowen Theory, developed by Murray Bowen is rooted in psychotherapy which has a basis in human behavior (Bowen, 1976). This theory has possibility for use in development of frameworks for both management and leadership. Although Bowen Theory is not a true leadership theory, it can be used as a framework for developing leadership principles in groups because of its foundational body of knowledge and roots in neurosciences. Thierry-Sheridan et al. (2016) use The Bowen Theory, "…as a lens through which leadership behaviors can be viewed and analyzed across a continuum of lower-function to higher-function behaviors in the workplace" (p. 2). The Bowen Theory consists of two main variables, the amount of anxiety and the amount of integration of self. Anxiety and its spread through a family or society is the focus of the theory with long-term exposure to anxiety resulting in deterioration of principles and increase in decisions based on emotion. This concept extends from family application to society in the form of an emotional system and leads to a lower level of functioning. The societal concept suggests the same process resulting in long-term societal anxiety in which decisions based on emotions result in dysfunctional symptoms. Relief efforts are often temporary fixes resulting in a repeating cycle. Bowen (1976) states, "This concept proceeds in logical steps from the family to larger and larger social groups, to the total of society" (p. 88). This theory can be used to view leadership behaviors in the workplace or by individuals as a self-evaluation of their own leadership approaches.

John Kotter (1996) suggests change in organizations can be greatly improved by addressing common errors or mistakes. These mistakes, according to Kotter (1996), occur because our past experiences with change have not prepared us for the transformational challenges needed in today's organizations. The economic and social forces that drive change in organizations include technology changes, international economic factors, development of markets in established countries, and the demise of socialist and communist establishments. Today there is far more global competition resulting from technological advances contributing to a faster moving business environment. Domestic markets have matured leading to the need for extreme improvements in order to survive and compete. The increase in developed countries which are now using technology has also led to economic integration and a need to transform in order to be competitive. According to Kotter (1996), forces such as these lead to globalization and competition creating more threats and opportunities and more change which could benefit from a change process. Virtual or global teams provide added benefits to an organization such as expanding the pool of most qualified individuals, but this diverse membership also creates unique leadership challenges such as lack of cohesiveness, lack of trust, and difficulty monitoring performance (Yukl, 2013). Kotter's (1996) eight step change process begins with establishing a sense of urgency and is critical in order to obtain necessary cooperation. This is similar to one of the earliest theories that can be applied to change by Lewin (1951) referred to as the force-field model. This model views change in three phases that include unfreezing, changing, and refreezing. In the first phase, unfreezing, individuals come to the realization that old process are not working, thus the resulting urgency needed to cooperate and move forward. The changing phase of Lewin's process can be seen in steps two through seven of Kotter's change process. Kotter's second step is creation of a guiding alliance made up of the right

people with a shared objective and trust level. The third step is development of a shared vision

and strategy. A vision helps clarify the direction for change, motivates people to move in the

right direction, and helps coordinate the actions of many different people. The fourth step is

strategizing how to achieve the vision. Once the vision is developed, the fifth step is

communication of the vision. The development of the guiding coalition can help communicate

the vision to all those that can act and motivate others to transform. Empowering employees to

act is the sixth step in the process by removing obstacles, changing systems that weaken the

change process, and encouraging risk taking and innovation. After achieving empowerment, the

seventh step is creation of short-term wins. Improvements need to be created, planned, and

visible. Those that make the wins possible need to be recognized. The seventh step involves

consolidating gains to produce more change by addressing changes in systems that do not fit the

vision including development of people to strengthen the process. Lastly, new approaches need

to be rooted in the culture to help avoid regression (Kotter, 1996) as is emphasized in Lewin's

(1951) refreezing phase that includes diagnostics and problem solving to prevent the change

from being reversed.   Evans (2010) supports the concept that innovation must be connected to

longstanding values of individuals to help connect the old with the new and decrease a sense of

loss or uncertainty. This requires a focus on relationships and providing the attention necessary

from the leader to minimize the loss that change provokes.   Change is highly personal and all

those involved must be given the time and resources to realize what they will gain and what they

will lose (Evans, 2010).

Kouzes and Posner (2007) have developed a leadership theory based on five practices

performed by exemplary leaders. These five practices, derived from their study of thousands of

cases, are: Model the Way, Inspire a Shared Vision, Challenge the Process, Enable Others to Act,

and Encourage the Heart. Each of the five practices mentioned above include two leadership actions or promises. In order to model the way, leaders need to clarify values and set the example. A common expression is leaders should walk the talk. If leaders want to obtain commitment of followers, they need to exhibit the behavior they want to see in others, not just talk about it. In order to inspire a shared vision, leaders need to envision the future and enlist others in the process (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). A clear, supported picture of how things could be is necessary to forge unity. In order to challenge the process, leaders need to search for opportunities and be willing to experiment and take risks (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). It is very difficult to develop a vison that is supported by many different stakeholders so the vision must include shared ideals for most organizational members; it must have wide appeal (Yukl, 2013). Leaders learn from mistakes and adapt to actual conditions. Leaders learn from mistakes as well as success and enable others to do the same. In order to enable others to act, leaders need to foster collaboration and strengthen others (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). This requires two-way trust and collaboration. Trust is established by leaders when they remain predictable even in uncertain situations (Northouse, 2013) and when trust is established in an organization, the organization has a healthy identity (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). Leaders must make it possible for others to do the good work necessary to support the vision. In order to encourage the heart, leaders need to be able to recognize contributions of others and celebrate victories and values (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). Recognizing contributions and celebrating success helps encourage people when times are tough. According to Kouzes and Posner (2012), "The truth is that the best leaders are the best learners" (p. 335). Leadership development and self-development go hand in hand. The best leaders reflect, remain humble, seize the moment, and remember that leadership involves the heart (Kouzes & Posner, 2012).

According to Yukl (2013), the Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory describes the development of roles between leaders and subordinates and the resulting exchange relationship that is developed. These relationships are founded on compatibility and the ability and reliability of the subordinate. This usually takes place with a small number of highly trusted subordinates gradually over a long period of time with the exchange cycle being repeated over and over resulting in a great amount of mutual support and loyalty (Yukl, 2013). Subordinate commitment is important in order for a leader to carry out their responsibilities, however, LMX theory also requires leaders to maintain relationships with subordinates. This is important to note as the behaviors of transformational leaders are necessary in this type of leadership and this theory has been suggested by HIM professionals as a leadership approach. The beginnings of Leader-Member Exchange Theory are rooted in Instrumentality Theory (Peak, 1955), which postulates a person's attitude concerning an outcome as dependent on that person's relationship between the outcome and the resulting consequences. The resulting consequences include varying degrees of preference. This theory relates to work motivation and the preferred consequences of the worker. Graen (1969) expands upon Peak's theory by applying it to a work setting supporting a model used in understanding work motivation. The results of Graen's (1969) study implied a systems approach based on effects of work role treatments on varying work personalities improving overall job satisfaction and performance. Graen and Cashman (1975, 1975) studied the interactions among members of dyads. Vertical dyad linkages involve the interdependence between someone in a leader position and someone in a follower position with interactions between leaders and followers resulting in a particular leadership structure. This structure is the leader-member exchange (Graen & Cashman, 1975, 1975). Graen (1976) proposes supervisors and subordinates can be part of the same informal groups in organizations

and sharing common interests allows for increased compatibility and coalition forming.

Dansereau, Graen, and Haga (1975), suggest use of the vertical dyad allows examination of

exchange processes between members of a group and leaders. This exchange allows for looking

beyond concern for people and production by helping to identify the correct mix of members for

effective performance with minimal negative consequences. Hunt (2014) mentions the

expanding need for HIM leadership and suggests the Leader-Member Exchange theory as an

approach for HIM professionals to develop their leadership potential.

There have been several articles written about the need for leadership in the HIM

profession. Thierry-Sheridan and Blanding-Smith (2009) point out that redefining leadership in

HIM is further complicated by the ongoing changes in healthcare and the HIM profession itself.

Thierry-Sheridan and Blanding-Smith (2009) indicate HIM leadership is needed at every level of

the HIM profession due to the needs of the current healthcare system. According to Thierry -

Sheridan and Blanding-Smith (2009):

> HIM leaders have a unique opportunity and a professional responsibility to create a new
>
> vision of HIM leadership and to develop their own leadership framework. To do this
>
> they should draw on leadership theories that most resonate for the profession. Leadership
>
> theories are the frameworks that provide a guide and a lens through which leadership can
>
> be better understood and integrated into a professional's daily life (para. 1).

Adding leadership to all levels of HIM curriculum has resulted in expanded curriculum, which

may require expanded degree levels. Research related to healthcare professions in general

demonstrates a need for increased leadership.   VanVactor (2012) reports that healthcare leaders

must embrace change and be able to display the kind of leadership abilities that support strategic

visions. According to VanVactor (2012), these leadership abilities seem to be absent in many organizations. Kotter & Cohen (2002) suggests that as healthcare advances the impact is increased regulatory guidelines. As a result, leadership will need to be the backbone for motivating and inspiring employees. The current lack of leadership in healthcare along with the lack of HIM leadership curriculum support the need to determine appropriate HIM leadership behaviors and styles that need to be implemented.

Statement of the Problem

There has been a lack of formal leadership education in the HIM profession. There is a current and future need for HIM leaders due to advances in healthcare, advances in technology, and increases in regulations and legislation impacting healthcare. The expanded HIM leadership curriculum coupled with the increased need for practicing him professionals in leadership roles has created a problem for the HIM profession. The current lack of HIM professionals with formal leadership education has resulted in these professionals trying to learn needed skills on-the-job. Curriculum has lacked leadership competencies until recently and there is no current research to help determine the type of leadership skills and qualities needed for successful HIM leaders. The purpose of this study was to examine leadership theories as they relate to the required leadership competencies for HIM professionals with a specific focus on the competency of enterprise information management. Enterprise information management is a major component of leadership in the HIM curriculum and is defined as, "Ensuring the value of information assets, requiring an organization wide perspective of information management functions; it calls for explicit structures, policies, processes, technology, and controls" (Oachs & Waters, 2016, p. 1002).

This research study concentrated on research vital to the HIM profession and HIM education. This research may contribute to the establishment of a standard for leadership in HIM resulting in new curriculum considerations as well as supporting the need for advanced education. According to Thierry-Sheridan and Blanding-Smith, "The need for HIM leaders is growing and becoming more critical as healthcare organizations redefine the way health information is collected, processed, used, stored, and retrieved" (2009, n.p.). In the past, the development of HIM leadership skills has been accomplished through on-the-job training (Thierry-Sheridan & Blanding-Smith, 2009). The current state of healthcare calls for HIM professionals to improve leadership competencies to help shape the future. Opportunities critical to healthcare organizations seeking leadership in HIM are increasing and becoming more critical (Hagland, 2005).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine leadership theories as they relate to the required leadership competencies for HIM professionals in enterprise information management. Enterprise information management is a major component of leadership in the HIM curriculum. If curriculum at all three degree levels is going to require education related to leadership, what type of leadership and leadership skills need to be included at each level? This is a question that needs to be answered because leadership is a new competency for HIM programs and most leaders currently in the profession have not had leadership as part of their formal education. With new technologies and industry mandates, it will be important to know what types of leaders will be effective in HIM positions. In order to answer the question, research on current practices of leaders in the profession is needed. We must know what constitutes a leadership role in HIM,

who are the professionals in these roles, what types of leadership they are practicing, and what leadership practices are effective.

Leadership theories suggested by HIM professionals include the Bowen (1976) Theory, Kotter's (1996) Change Theory, Kouzes and Posner's Leadership Traits (1993), and the Leader-Member Exchange Theory (Graen, 1976). The Bowen (1976) Theory refers to relationships in families and these principles are applicable to leadership in groups. Leadership in groups based on this theory could fall into the category of transactional, transformational, or laisse faire leadership. Kotter's (1996) Change Theory includes steps a leader can take to improve the change process and falls into the transformational leadership category. Kouzes and Posner (1993) introduce practices of exemplary leaders and their theory falls into the category of transformational leadership. Lastly, the Leader-Member Theory (Graen, 1976) focuses on the relationships between the leader and their followers and falls into the category of transactional leadership. There are many theories that relate to the leadership competencies for HIM professionals, however, most of the competencies can be included in the transformational, transactional, or passive approaches to leadership. This study examined transactional, transformational, and passive leadership qualities used by HIM leaders related to the competency of enterprise information management. Enterprise health information management is defined as, "Ensuring the value of information assets, requiring an organization wide perspective of information management functions; it calls for explicit structures, policies, processes, technology, and controls" (Oachs & Waters, 2016, p. 1002). This study described the relationship between HIM leaders who are successful enterprise information managers and the above-mentioned leadership styles.

There is a lack of formal leadership education in the HIM profession and an increased need for HIM leaders due to advances in healthcare, advances in technology, and increases in regulations and legislation impacting healthcare. A need exists to determine the most effective leadership styles for HIM professionals and include the results of this research in the curriculum at all degree levels. Enterprise information management is an emerging and important competency in the leadership domain. By definition, enterprise information management falls into the category of the new knowledge era (Uhl-Bien, Marion, & McKelvey, 2007). Shao, Feng, and Hu (2016) as well as Ghazali, Ahmad, and Zakaria (2015) suggest a combination of transactional and transformation leadership as a framework for adoption and use of enterprise systems. Neufeld, Dong, and Higgins (2007) support the use of charismatic leadership and Ettlie, Perotti, and Joseph (2007) support transformational leadership as a framework for implementing and supporting enterprise systems. Application of these theories specifically to the HIM leader are lacking.

Those who are professionals in HIM will ultimately become educators of HIM curriculum. Sasnett and Ross (2007) support the importance of leadership in health science education. The Institutes of Medicine and accrediting bodies are pushing for health science education reform focusing on leadership (Sasnett & Ross, 2007). Leadership skills of educators must be effective in directing HIM programs as well as in professional settings. HIM Reimagined is a new initiative for the HIM profession developed by the AHIMA Council for Excellence in Education (CEE) (Abrams, Carlon, Haugen, Mancilla, McElroy, Millen, Sandefer, Sharp, & Sorensen, 2017). This initiative resulted in the publication of a white paper focusing on specialized education, advanced education, and evidence-based practice. The recommendation supports higher education of HIM professionals and increased research to

support practice and education. These recommendations, "…seek to respond to the changes and demands in the workforce by focusing education on skills, abilities, and leadership needed to advance the HIM profession, streamlining educational pathways, and providing opportunities for HIM professionals to advance at every level" (Abrams et al., 2017, p. 24).

This research study involved a unique focus on transactional, transformational, and passive leadership styles used by HIM professionals involved in successful implementation of enterprise information systems in the United States in the geographic Region two, Midwest, Division three as described by the United States Census Bureau. The American Health Information Management Association (AHIMA) ("AHIMA Membership," n.d.) has over 103,000 members. A thorough search of materials in the AHIMA research database resulted in no research specifically related to HIM leadership and successful enterprise information systems. Successful enterprise information systems are defined as those ensuring the value of information assets, ensuring an organization wide perspective of information management functions, and ensuring structures, policies, processes, technology and controls related to enterprise information systems are addressed. AHIMA staff and members publish in *The Journal of AHIMA*, which contributes to the professional field through HIM related topics. AHIMA also publishes a scholarly, peer-reviewed journal, *Perspectives in Health Information Management,* indexed in Cumulative Index to Nursing and Allied Health, PubMed Central, and Google Scholar ("Journals & Newsletters", n.d.). A thorough search of both these publications resulted in no research pertaining to HIM leadership in enterprise information management. This may be due, in part, to this being a new curricular competency and an emerging role. A thorough search through all accessible databases including CINAHL, Health Reference Center Academic (OneFile), Medline Plus, and ProQuest were conducted as well resulting in no research on this topic.

Research Questions

This research was based on the following research questions: Is there a relationship between transformational leadership styles of HIM professionals and the successful management of enterprise information systems? Is there a relationship between transactional leadership styles of HIM professionals and the successful management of enterprise information systems? Is there a relationship between passive leadership styles of HIM professionals and the successful management of enterprise information systems? Independent variables in this study included perceived leadership behaviors or styles represented by elements in the transactional leadership style, the transformational leadership style, and the passive leadership style. The dependent variable in this study was the leader outcome variable of successful management of enterprise information systems in an HIM environment. Successful management of enterprise information systems in an HIM environment was based on the outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction as reported by the survey participant. These outcomes were not leadership styles, but rather outcomes of leadership behavior. These outcomes were the dependent variables in the study. This research used a quantitative method (Likert-type survey) to determine leadership behavior and success of enterprise information system management by HIM professionals. A Likert scale is, "a type of summated rating scale invented by Rensis Likert" (p. 178) consisting of several items intended to measure the same concept or construct (Johnson & Christensen, 2012). Every item is rated by every respondent using a scale of either four or five points and then to provide a score for each respondent (Johnson & Christensen, 2012). The hypotheses included the following:

Table 1.3

Research Hypotheses

Research Hypothesis 1

There is a relationship between transformational leadership styles of HIM professionals and the successful management of enterprise information systems.

Hypothesis 1.1

H0: There is no relationship between the leadership outcome of extra effort and the use of transformational leadership by HIM professionals.

H1: There is a relationship between the leadership outcome of extra effort and the use of transformational leadership by HIM professionals.

Hypothesis 1.2

H0: There is no relationship between the leadership outcome of effectiveness and the use of transformational leadership by HIM professionals.

H1: There is a relationship between the leadership outcome of effectiveness and the use of transformational leadership by HIM professionals.

Hypothesis 1.3

H0: There is no relationship between the leadership outcome of satisfaction and the use of transformational leadership by HIM professionals.

H1: There is a relationship between the leadership outcome of satisfaction and the use of transformational leadership by HIM professionals.

Research Hypothesis 2

There is a relationship between transactional leadership styles of HIM professionals and the successful management of enterprise information systems.

Hypothesis 2.1

H0: There is no relationship between the leadership outcome of extra effort and the use of transactional leadership by HIM professionals.

H1: There is a relationship between the leadership outcome of extra effort and the use of transactional leadership by HIM professionals.

Hypothesis 2.2

    H0: There is no relationship between the leadership outcome of effectiveness and the use of transactional leadership by HIM professionals.

    H1: There is a relationship between the leadership outcome of effectiveness and the use of transactional leadership by HIM professionals.

Hypotheses 2.3

    H0: There is no relationship between the leadership outcome of satisfaction and the use of transactional leadership by HIM professionals.
    H1: There is a relationship between the leadership outcome of satisfaction and the use of transactional leadership by HIM professionals.

Research Hypothesis 3

There is a relationship between passive leadership styles of HIM professionals and the successful management of enterprise information systems.

Hypothesis 3.1

    H0: There is no relationship between the leadership outcome of extra effort and the use of passive leadership by HIM professionals.

    H1: There is a relationship between the leadership outcome of extra effort and the use of passive leadership by HIM professionals.

Hypothesis 3.2

    H0: There is no relationship between the leadership outcome of effectiveness and the use of passive leadership by HIM professionals.

    H1: There is a relationship between the leadership outcome of effectiveness and the use of passive leadership by HIM professionals.

Hypothesis 3.3

    H0: There is no relationship between the leadership outcome of satisfaction and the use of passive leadership by HIM professionals.

    H1: There is a relationship between the leadership outcome of satisfaction and the use of passive leadership by HIM professionals.

Delimitations/Limitations

Since the purpose of this study was to examine the transformational, transactional, and passive leadership qualities used by HIM professionals related to the competency of enterprise information management, this researcher chose to use the framework of Bass and Avolio (n.d.) using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. Although leadership in HIM is an area that is lacking in many different competency areas, the specific area of enterprise information management is the topic of this study. The reasons for this particular focus included the current minimal research in this area and the recent addition of this as a new competency area in leadership domain. In addition, enterprise information management is a fairly new field in the new knowledge era. Researchers have suggested the use of transactional or transformational leadership in non-HIM professions related to the use of enterprise information systems. Researchers in HIM have suggested transformational and transactional leadership styles as possible options for HIM professionals. The best framework for this study was the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire because it specifically addressed the three types of leadership qualities associated with transformational, transactional, and passive leadership styles. The population of this study included members of the American Health Information Management Association (AHIMA) who possessed a job level category of executive/president/vice president, director/officer, manager/supervisor, or consultant. This researcher chose to use the AHIMA membership database as the source of participants. The challenge of obtaining a useful sample was addressed because specific job titles related to enterprise information management are identifiable. Although other professional organizations were available to obtain populations, the AHIMA database was the best choice as this association is directly involved in creating curriculum competencies for HIM educational programs. The results of this study may be

generalizable to HIM professionals who are involved in the management of enterprise information systems in any area of the United States in any type of health care setting. Limitations of this study included the nature of self-reporting. The participants self-reported their success of enterprise information management. In addition, the sample size was dependent on those professionals who are members of AHIMA and identified themselves as enterprise information managers or leaders. There may be an additional pool of HIM enterprise information leaders who are not members of AHIMA that could have been included, but could not be identified.

Summary

The HIM profession has changed significantly since its beginnings in 1928 when the American College of Surgeons founded the American Association of Record Librarians of North America (Huffman, 1985). Although the goal of elevating the standards of clinical records still exists, the advances in medical research and technology have expanded this goal far beyond its original boundaries. This chapter focused on the expansion of the HIM degree and associated curriculum expansion that has taken place at all curriculum levels. As these competencies expanded, it was evident the focus moved from management to leadership. Research on these topics by HIM professionals supported the need for increased leadership competencies and suggested several theories that could be applied by HIM professionals in leadership roles. The theories suggested included the Bowen theory, Kotter's change theory, Kouzes and Posner's five practices of exemplary leaders, and the Leader-Member Exchange theory. Research mentioned in this section also supported the view that the profession has an opportunity and a responsibility to create a new vision. This new vision needs to include the expanded curriculum requirements and the change in focus from management to leadership.

This research was conducted to contribute to the established standards for HIM leaders, provide options for future curriculum, and possibilities for advanced degrees. Theories were examined as they related to the HIM competencies. Enterprise information management includes the expanded areas of focus under the leadership domain and was the focus of this study. Similar research in other professions was included that suggested transformational and transactional leadership styles as effective in roles related to enterprise information management. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire developed by Bass and Avolio (n.d.) was used in this research due to its focus on measuring transformational, transactional, and passive leadership qualities. This instrument is an established instrument that has been used in previous studies with successful results.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

The leadership competencies researched in this literature review include decision making and public policy, change management, process improvement and work design, human resources management, training and development, strategic and organizational management, financial management, ethics, project management, vendor and contract management, and enterprise information management. The intention of this study was to investigate the relationship between effective enterprise information management and HIM leadership style. The need for increased leadership in health information management (HIM) related to the enterprise information management competency was examined through prominent frameworks and expansion of these frameworks in the leadership education for HIM professionals.

Related Literature

Leadership Roles. Leadership Roles are part of the new HIM master's level curriculum as evidenced by competency requirements in effective decision making, public policy, and ability to build and maintain alliances or partnerships. Effective decision making is a goal in all organizations. Organizations are complex environments and decision making can often be very complicated (Bolman & Deal, 2013). Some of the most complex organizations in any society include health systems and, according to Cady (2016), senior leaders in healthcare face increasing responsibility and accountability including decision making. Decision making often involves the allocation of resources. According to Bolman and Deal (2013), considering that resources are usually in short supply, there is conflict and competition among organization

members related to these scarce resources. Decisions by leaders can affect how and to whom these resources are distributed (Bolman & Deal, 2013).

Effective decision making is supported by Argyris and Schon's Model II Theory for Action. This model offers basic guidelines that include emphasis on common goals, open communication, and merging advocacy with inquiry (Argyris & Schon, 1977). Argyris and Schon (1974) use their Model II Theory to support increased organizational learning and professional effectiveness based on governing variables, action strategies, consequences for behavior, consequences for learning, and consequences for quality of life. The governing variables included in the theory involve maximizing usable information, maximizing informed choice, and making a commitment to these choices. The action strategies component of the theory involves creation of situations where all participants experience success, have control, are protected, and protect others. The behavior component of the theory builds upon all individuals being open, trustworthy, and minimally defensive. This leads to learning cycles and a positive quality of life (Argyris & Schon, 1974). These variables and behaviors are important in a HIM environment because communication needs to be tailored to specified subgroups (medical staff versus HIM department staff), involve feedback, and be made with integrity (Oachs & Watters, 2016). Decisions made regarding documentation in a health record, for example, should include the common goals of all involved and support for actions and decisions made. Application of this theory to decision making in HIM may help support commitment of employees to leadership decisions.

Bolman and Deal (2013) indicate openly expressing thoughts and feelings while seeking the same of others can lead to effective decision making. A shared sense of direction within a group is another way to support effective decision making. Leaders can help develop these

actions within a group of individuals thus leading to better decision making and to viewing the

process of decision making (as well as other leadership competencies) from each of the four

organizational frames (Bolman & Deal, 2013). Since these four frames apply to leadership

functions related to all the HIM master level competencies, a detailed discussion of the four

frames follows. The four organizational frames are structural, human resource, political, and

symbolic. According to Bolman and Deal (2013), "A frame is a mental model-a set of ideas and

assumptions-that you carry in your head to help you understand and negotiate a particular

'territory'" (p. 10). Frames help understand challenges and ways to address these challenges

while the design of an organization reveals the structural frame of the principles (Bolman &

Deal, 2013). These principles stress the importance of placing the right people in the right roles

to support both organizational goals as well as those of the individual and are based on the

following six assumptions:

- The purpose of organizations is to attain goals and objectives

- Organizations are more efficient when they use specialization and division of labor

- Organizations must utilize appropriate coordination and control to assist in blending of
  dissimilar efforts

- Organizations function best when personal agendas and pressures do not overtake
  reasonableness

- Effective structures align with current organizational circumstances

- Issues develop and performance suffers from structural inefficiencies (Bolman & Deal,
  2013 pp. 45-67,135, 204, 222, 242, 270, 283).

Bolman and Deal (2013) support a structural frame for organizations and the notion that organizations are most efficient when the current state uses effective structures. Lack of organizational structure results in poor performance necessitating restructuring because structure both improves and limits what the organization can achieve. For example, formal structure may help people get their work done by improving morale but may prevent work from being done by creating bureaucracy. Division of labor is a cornerstone to the structural framework and, according to the authors; there are both benefits, and problems created by specialization. Individual and group efforts must be coordinated and they suggest doing this either vertically or laterally. Vertical coordination includes application of authority, rules and policies, and planning and control systems while lateral coordination consists of meetings, task forces, coordination of roles, matrix structures, and networks (Bolman & Deal, 2013). Both vertical and lateral measures should be used even though this creates a challenge in leadership in finding the right combination of both types of measures. Use of the structural frame can help develop a rational sequence leading to a correct decision (Bolman & Deal, 2013). A matrix organization (MO) is another way to structure an organization by combining an organization's knowledge and resources across all activities. The MO structure dates to the 1960's and 1970's and has been claimed to support innovation through flexibility (Galbraith, 1971). It has been suggested that MO structures require reframing as leaders try to merge processes and structure in tempestuous organization environments. This matrix reframing involves creation of a cross-functional organization to bring together people from different areas of the organization on a more permanent basis as opposed to project-based teams (Ford & Randolph, 1992). A study performed by Makimattila, Saunila, and Salminen (2014) related to reframing and innovation supports the view that organizational structure must be agile enough to change based on the

changing needs of an organization. Global companies have reached success by using a variation on the matrix structure to deal with the complexity of international operations that include different business or product lines, different languages, and different regions (Bolman & Deal, 2017).

The human resource frame revolves around what people and organizations do to and for each other (Bolman & Deal, 2013). According to Mary Parker Follett (1995), "A second-rate executive will often try to suppress leadership because he fears it may rival his own" (p. 73). In support of this, Bolman and Deal (2017) report the less confidence a manager has in their own effectiveness, the less willing they are to accept input from others. Insecure managers are ineffective and typically avoid getting help to correct this. One of the outcomes of effective leadership in this study involves meeting the needs of others. An insecure leader who fails to encourage autonomy and participation is ineffective. This is the opposite of what the human resource frame professes. The human resource frame is built around primary assumptions related to the relationship between people and organizations. The human resource frame assumes organizations are in existence to serve the needs of humans, not the opposite, and that organizations and people need each other. This frame assumes a good fit between the individual and the organization benefits both and a bad fit exploits both. The theory emphasizes changes in how organizations operate considering globalization, rapid changes, and competition have led to both the need to minimize human assets and increase loyal human capital. Questions arise as to how an organization should adapt to the changing environment and make decisions to seek either high skills or low cost. The authors suggest downsizing can have a negative effect on motivation and commitment of employees while investing in people can have the opposite effect. The

human resource frame helps leaders make decisions based on the relationship between people and organizations and leads to an open process that yields commitment (Bolman & Deal, 2013).

Bolman and Deal (2013) claim that viewed from the political frame, "…politics is the realistic process of making decisions and allocating resources in a context of scarcity and divergent interests. This view puts politics at the heart of decision making" (p. 183). The political frame includes five perspectives and considers that organizations are alliances of different individuals and groups. The assumption is these different groups (or coalitions) have lasting differences in principles, opinions, interests, and perceptions of situations. The political frame assumes most significant decisions involve the allocation of scarce resources, which often leads to conflict. The political frame assumes goals and decisions result from negotiation between opposing stakeholders who are looking out for their own best interests. These assumptions supported by the authors suggest that diversity and hard times result in greater visible political activity. The assumptions also suggest goals develop through negotiation at all levels because conflict, alliances, and power are present at all levels in an organization. The authors propose politics and power go hand in hand, but are not necessarily destructive. Constructive politics is not only possible but is a necessary component of an efficient and fair organization. The political frame provides opportunity to obtain or use power efficiently (Bolman & Deal, 2013). In addition, the political frame offers the opportunity to use both market and nonmarket strategies to influence policy. Providing desirable options to consumers can allow new approaches with policies that take place after the implementation of these new approaches (Bolman & Deal, 2017). Reger, Gustafson, Demarie, and Mullane (1994) discuss the use of reframing in implementation of Total Quality Management (Deming, 1986) and suggest programs like this often fail due to lack of cooperation and understanding on the part of the

participants. This is another way of looking at the political frame by using explanation and cooperation to expand alliances.

"The symbolic frame focuses on how humans make sense of the chaotic, ambiguous world in which they live. Meaning, belief, and faith are its central concerns" (Bolman & Deal, 2013, p. 244). The symbolic frame combines different sources into five hypotheses:

- Most important is the meaning behind what happens, not what actually happens

- People experience circumstances in different ways meaning there can be many interpretations for the same situation

- People, to help them deal with uncertainty, create symbols

- People find purpose in stories and ceremonies

- What is expressed during an event is often more important than the product (Bolman & Deal, 2013).

Culture is the core of an organization that unites people to achieve the desired goals and the symbolic frame provides ritual to endorse values and afford bonding opportunities (Bolman & Deal, 2013). A shared vision can be key to success by identifying the soul of an organization and how it relates to employees and customers by identifying the purpose and role of the organization (Bolman & Deal, 2017). Application of the symbolic frame has been applied to organizational misconduct. According to MacLean (2008), the use of a symbolic frame can help make sense of misconduct by defining a shared definition of conduct and misconduct. The basic set of beliefs that define an organizations culture must be known to employees in order to prevent misconduct (Maclean, 2008).

The open process suggested in the human resource frame by Bolman and Deal supports the advocacy and inquiry model suggested by Argyris and Schon. According to Argyris and Schon (1977), the different perspectives of an organization include that of a government, an agency, a task system, an action theory, a cognitive enterprise, and an intellectual artifact. Decision making, delegating, and setting boundaries evolve out of these conditions creating the organization and its norms, assumptions, strategies, or the organization's theory of action. Included in this theory are the communication and control patterns (Argyris & Schon, 1977). New research by Argyris and Schon (1996) expands on this communication theory supporting a model of advocacy and inquiry for employee engagement. Being able to advocate or state one's views or ask questions impacts learning, facilitates conversation, helps individuals manage emotions, and helps provide feedback (Argyris & Schon, 1996). They further suggest that these vital communication behaviors have implications for not only interpersonal and group effectiveness, but that of the organization as well. An additional way to look at this frame is through presentation skills for providing knowledge and information to other members of cross-functional teams. Effective communication is necessary for effective team performance (Light, 2007). Information presented by Light (2007) supports reframing the way information is presented to knowledge teams to include team strategy, anxiety management, interpersonal connections, whole spectrum communications, and story presentations.

Frames involve the use of categories and labels used by individuals to describe, understand, and categorize actions and issues that help make sense or their environment (MacLean, 2008). People are constantly in the process of trying to give meaning to their environment and use various frames in order to accomplish this. According to MacLean (2008), the application of various frames can alter our interpretation of our environment and our actions.

By applying one frame versus another, an opportunity may change to be viewed as a threat. The use of one single frame is not optimal and a combination of several frames is needed for organizations to function effectively (MacLean, 2008).

Yukl (2013) addresses decision making related to emotions, political processes, routine versus major decisions, and formal versus informal decisions and suggests emotional reactions may result in poor decision making. Important decisions typically involve many people at multiple levels in an organization relying on political processes to gain support. Routine decisions may not require the input of others but may depend on appropriate and decisive action of the leaders to deal with situations. Planning can often be a process that involves the shaping of events by daily interactions as opposed to a formal plan. A good leader should be aware of these aspects of decision making and include others as needed in the process. However, according to Lockard (2010/2010), a good leader must also know when to move forward with a decision while still making others feel valued and heard.

Another framework for leadership decision making suggested by Cady (2016) involves looking at a healthcare system through various lenses. Cady (2016) indicates these lenses are not like other frameworks such as those suggested by Bolman and Deal (2013), but a way to view various frameworks. The lenses suggested by Cady (2016) include ideology and belief, rational and irrational information processing, interpersonal, and social dynamics that will allow leaders to uncover their assumptions related to system decisions. Hess and Bacigalupo (2013) focus on enhancing quality of decision making in non-profit organizations using emotional intelligence, which relates to the interpersonal and social dynamics mentioned by Cady. Hess and Baciagalupo conclude that self-aware leaders have the advantage of leveraging the qualities of

others, the ability to assess reactions, and predict the sentiment of those affected by the decision. This increases the likelihood of a more positive outcome.

Drucker states an effective executive takes responsibility for decisions by making it known who will carry out the decision, what the deadline for the decision is, whom the decision affects, and who to inform of the decision (Drucker, 2004/2011). Drucker (2011) argues that lack of attention to these actions often results in trouble for an organization and notes a dangerous mistake is to assume only senior executives make decisions because decisions are made at all levels in an organization. All the theories related to decision making mentioned are applicable to the functions of a leader in HIM. Depending on the specific decision at hand, various theories lead to optimal results.

Public policy is a category under the competency of leadership roles for the master's degree in HIM. Just as there are many definitions of leadership, there are many definitions of public policy. Fowler (2013) defines public policy as, "…the dynamic and value-laden process through which a political system handles a public problem" (p. 5). A political system is not only that related to government, but also that imbedded within an organization. Fowler (2013) argues that administrators need to know not only how to analyze policies that affect them, but also how to develop polices and suggests three lenses through which this can happen. The three lenses suggested by Fowler (2013) are Lowi's techniques of control based on distributive, regulatory, and redistributive policies, McDonnell and Elmore's policy instruments using mandates, inducements, system changing, and capacity building, and Levin and McEwan's analysis of cost effectiveness. Lowi's (1963) attempt to develop a framework for interpreting patterns in public policy cases has a basis in political relationship expectations. The three categories of public policies are distribution, regulation, and redistribution each with their own areas of power (Lowi,

1963). According to Lowi (1963), distributive policies are decisions made without respect to limited resources. These policies are individually distributed to each person or group isolated from others. They form policy collectively, but the distribution is to the privileged and non-privileged alike (Lowi, 1963). Lowi (1963) defines regulatory polices as directly stating who will be privileged and who will not. A general rule leads to individual decisions and the law applied to affected individuals in the same way. Lowi's (1963) definition of redistributive polices suggests similarity to regulatory policies as they affect large categories of individuals, however, the categories of influence are larger and are based on social classes. Lowi's (1963) techniques of control relate to the political assumptions offered by Bolman and Deal (2013). A relationship can also be seen between Bolman and Deal's (2013) political assumption of allocating scarce resources and Lowi's (1963) redistribution policy based on class with the "haves" versus the "have nots". Hunter (2015) points out the evolvement of healthcare systems from simple relationships among physicians and patients to complex interdependent models. According to Hunter (2015), many healthcare system failures have been the consequence of disregarding the relationship among theory, policy, and practice. Healthcare systems are more politically driven than ever and rely on leaders who can add value through a systems approach while demonstrating political intelligence and coalition building skills (Hunter, 2015).

McDonnell and Elmore (1987) build upon policy research related to consistency of results and intentions and the responses of organizations and individuals in relation to conditions for successful implementation. Their research relates to common instruments to be used for different policies and when these instruments are most likely to be successful. The four categories of instruments suggested by them are mandates, inducements, capacity building, and system changing. They define mandates as rules intended to yield compliance of individuals and

organizations. Inducements are transfer of money to individuals or organizations in return for some action. Capacity building refers to transfer of money for material, human resource, or intellectual reasons. System changing involves transferring authority between individuals and organizations to modify the provision of goods and services (McDonnell & Elmore, 1987). The authors suggest various policy instruments convey assumptions related to problems and solutions and the conditions needed for effective implementation. Mandates assume some action is required that would not occur without an explicit policy. The consequences of mandates may be coercion and a reduction in variation. Inducements assume the production of items of value with additional money and consequences exist because individuals and organizations have varying capacity to produce items of value. Capacity building assumes without the investment the needed benefits would not be realized. Consequences occur when individuals or organizations fail to perform or fail to realize future needs (McDonnell and Elmore, 1987). Harmon (1997) agrees that policies should reflect present principles and attitudes. Frequently, organization policies reflect guidelines for past success instead of being future oriented. Leaders of successful organization deliberately work on future policies and details in the present (Harmon, 1997). System changing assumes existing conditions cannot produce the desired results. A consequence of this action may be unresponsiveness of existing systems and inability of new systems to develop fast enough (McDonnell and Elmore, 1987). McDonnel and Elmore (1987) conclude a focus on alternative policy instruments will build a more influential conceptual framework that is more useful for policymakers. These instruments applied to the three arenas of policies described by Lowi (1963) can help determine solutions to problems related to each.

According to Levin and McEwan (2001), "Policy decisions in the public sector must be based increasingly upon a demonstrated consideration of both the costs and effects of such

decisions" (p. 3). Even if times are not bleak, decisions are based on the greatest possible return. The problem with this is that few educational administrators have expertise in using cost-effectiveness analyses and reflecting both the costs and the results of the interventions used (Levin and McEwan, 2001). A series of steps is suggested by Levin and McEwan (2001) that begin with first defining the measures of effectiveness used. Next, the effectiveness of the method must be determined followed by discounting to avoid misleading results. The next step is to analyze the distribution of effects to determine who has received what portion of the effects. Cost effectiveness ratios for every alternative follows to determine the greatest combination. The final step in this process is to account for uncertainty due to imperfect data, estimates based on samples as opposed to entire populations, and discretionary parameters that may be controversial. The process should include evaluation to ensure even distribution across all groups, application of discounting effects are implemented for projects lasting over one year, and final cost-effectiveness ratios are tested with sensitivity analysis before drawing any conclusions (Levin & McEwan, 2001). Policy plays a significant role in healthcare and affects many aspects of HIM. Public policy theories applied by leaders in HIM can help achieve effective outcomes.

In relation to building partnerships, Hesselbein (2010) offers a list of critical characteristics for any future organization. The HIM leadership competencies include the need for negotiation, communication, and political navigation by building and maintaining alliances, networks, and partnerships (Council for Excellence in Education, 2014). The first item in Hesselbein's list is to exemplify collaboration including partnerships and alliances. Performing in the global environment cannot take place without collaborative efforts as well as partnerships between business and communities. Creating and maintaining relationships will allow organizations to work together and build trust (Hesselbein, 2010). Leaders also need to build

alliances within an organization as well as outside the organization. According to Austin (2003), there is a shift in organizations toward incorporating philanthropic undertakings into strategic operations. Community interactions based on social issues can have a positive effect by generating social value and social investment. Public-private partnerships can generate innovative solutions to complex social issues (Austin, 2003). In agreement with Hesselbein (2010/2010), Yukl (2013) indicates that forming strategic alliances within an organization can increase resources and assist in initiating a leadership change. Yukl (2013) also recommends using coalition tactics for influencing peers or superiors in order to gain support for an initiative. According to Yukl (2013), coalition tactics involve seeking the support of others to persuade the intended audience to do something or to utilize the support of others to get the intended target to agree. The use of other influence tactics in this process such as pressure, exchange, or rational persuasion are more likely to be used to influence those in superior positions than peers or subordinates (Yukl, 2013). In support of Hesselbein, Mumford and Barrett (2013), Yukl, and Bolman and Deal (2013) state every level in an organization consists of alliances because those with similar interest's band together with the expectation of accomplishing more as a group than separately. It is important that leaders can build and maintain coalitions and partnerships both inside and outside of organizations (Bolman & Deal, 2013). Hanaka and Hawkins (1997) support the need for strategic partnerships that include flexibility and efficient distribution of the product resulting in value for customers.

Coalition or relationship building is an important part of public policy. Fowler (2013) suggests forums as an effective way to build coalitions. According to Fowler (2013), forum exchanges may result in strengthening beliefs as members of coalitions realize these beliefs are more widely spread. Forum exchanges can occur through sharing of ideas via scholarly

journals, professional organizations, online bulletin boards, chat rooms, and think tanks (Fowler, 2013). According to Fowler (2013), "A long history of communication and interaction facilitates networking and the development of eventual coalitions if leaders need them in order to collaborate or seek policy change" (p. 81). A guiding coalition is necessary, according to Kotter (2012), in order to direct change. Kotter (2012) offers four characteristics necessary for guiding coalitions. These four characteristics are position power, expertise, credibility, and leadership. A guiding coalition requires enough main line managers to prevent the blocking of progress, adequate representation from every necessary aspect, members with good reputations that others take seriously and enough leadership to drive the change effort (Kotter, 2012). Coalitions need to include the right people, create trust, and cultivate a common goal (Kotter, 2012). One common error in leading change, according to Kotter (1999), is not creating a commanding enough coalition.

In terms of leader-constituent relationships, Kouzes and Posner (1993) specify key characteristics that constituents look for in leaders. The results of surveys conducted over many years by Kouzes and Posner (1993) have resulted in the most desired attributes sought in leaders as, "honest, forward-looking, inspiring, and competent" (p. 13). Constituents' aspirations should be considered as part of envisioning the future. This includes internal and external as well as future constituents. Once these aspirations are identified, survey all constituents about current and future ideals to envision the future and lead to action (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). The application of the theories mentioned above related to decision making, public policy, and partnerships could apply to the competencies for the expanding need for HIM leadership.

Change Management. Decision making, applying public policy, and developing and maintaining partnerships, all require the ability to manage change. Leading change in an

organization is extremely important and extremely difficult. A required competency for master's level HIM professionals is to master concepts of change management theories. Graduates of a master level HIM program are likely to hold leadership roles in organizations such as director or executive vice president of operations, compliance, risk management, data analytics, or revenue cycle. Therefore, leadership must be a component of the education of HIM master level graduates. Leaders must guide, inspire, and facilitate the shared efforts of organization members during uncertain times in uncertain environments (Yukl. 2013). Kotter (2011) indicates, "More change always demands more leadership" (p. 38). Alvesson (2011) address the fact that change and leadership are inseparable, and leaders must know how to manage change while motivating others to follow. Burnes and By (2012) agree that leadership and change go together because leadership is about change. Burnes, Hughes, and By (2016) support the notion that leadership and change are really nothing without each other. Due to social changes, political changes, globalization, and technology advances that have taken place since the 1980s, change has influenced many organizations (Yukl, 2013). These major changes that affect organizations need attention from leaders who can manage change for organization success. Yukl (2013) advises that leaders must know the type of change planned, know the steps necessary in the change process, and the reasons for accepting or rejecting change. Once planning is complete, Yukl (2013) suggests focusing on the change by using specific guidelines for implementation. The guidelines suggested by Yukl are like the eight-stage process for implementing change offered by Kotter (2012). In addition to Kotter's processes, Yukl's (2013) guidelines include placing change agents in key positions, use of task forces to guide change, explaining how changes will affect people, helping people deal with change-associated stress, monitoring and adjusting progress, and displaying a continuous commitment and optimism to change. Kotter (2012)

supports an eight stage change process that includes creating a sense of urgency, establishing a guiding coalition, creating a vision and a strategy, communicating the vision, empowering action, creating short-term wins, uniting gains to provoke more change, and affixing new methods in the culture.

Kotter (1999) also offers methods for dealing with resistance to change. These methods include education and communication, participation and involvement, facilitation and support, negotiation and agreement, manipulation and co-optation, and explicit and implicit coercion. These methods applied to situations result in maximum advantages (Kotter, 1999).

Both Yukl (2013) and Kotter (2012) agree that a sense of urgency needs to be recognized, coalitions need to be established, employees need to be empowered, and communication needs to take place. In addition, both Yukl (2013) and Kotter (2012) support development of a vision that positively influences the change. It is interesting to note here that Kouzes and Posner (2007) advocate a transformational model of leadership that includes inspiring a shared vision and enabling others to act. These two strategies are included in both Yukl (2013) and Kotter's (2012) processes for implementing change. Spady and Schwahn (2001) indicates genuine leaders respond to change as opportunities as opposed to threats. Genuine, or Total Leaders, address change using five central realities that include purpose, vision, ownership, capacity, and support (Spady & Schwahn, 2001). Organizational members need to share purpose and meaning, a vision that supports the purpose, a strong personal identification and commitment to the organization, the knowledge skills to support change, and support of leaders to implement change (Spady & Schwahn, 2001). One of the obstacles to sustainable growth in an organization is changing strategy while failing to change culture (George, 2003). Attitude and culture must change to adapt to changing customer desires. Authentic leaders get people to work together to

achieve the desired mission. This involves communicating clear ethical standards so all employees are on the same page while taking responsibility for ethical dilemmas. Authentic leaders inspire innovation and creativity and link employee passion to organizational growth (George, 2003).

Bolman and Deal (2013/2017) discuss the complex nature of change in an organization related to employee roles and the need for retraining to address change. Taking on new roles because of change is distressing for those going through change and leaders need to help people adapt to change rather than protecting people from change. Heifetz and Laurie (2011) have suggested six principles leaders can use for helping people adapt to change. Change leads to uncertainty, which requires leadership support. Bolman and Deal (2013) look at change through the four-frame approach and the barriers and strategies associated with each frame. Bolman and Deal (2013) combine their four-frame approach with Kotter's stages of change to suggest actions that change agents might use to implement successful change. Morrison (2013) supports the use of theoretical models to help ensure the whole system supports change because, although the leader introduces change, effective change requires support of the whole system. In order to be an effective leader, the outcome of leader effectiveness must be measured. In this study, the outcome of effectiveness includes meeting the needs of others, meeting the needs of the organizations, and leading an operational group.

Leadership involves influence. Leadership is a process of influencing others to facilitate efforts leading to the accomplishment of shared objectives (Yukl, 2013). According to Mumford and Barrett (2013), the most important inference in this definition is the idea of change. These authors point out that leader influence directed at either the behavior of a person or the behavior of an organization can prompt change. In addition, leaders can exert influence in different ways

that include a shared vision, a shared plan, or by building social relationships (Mumford & Barrett, 2013). These can be seen in the strategies and processes for implementing change offered by Yukl and Kotter. Spady and Schwahn (2010) offers three questions leaders must ask and answer when managing a transition. First, a leader needs to know what is changing and clearly establish the problem before attempting to determine solutions. Second, a leader needs to know what will be different due to change. In order to embrace change, workers need to know what will change for them. Third, a leader needs to know who in the organization is going to lose what. Letting go of an old situation must occur before a new situation is fully embraced (Spady & Schwahn, 2010). Getzels and Guba (1957) offer a general model of administrative theory and practice that incorporates demands of administration and staff that is productive for the organization while fulfilling for individuals. This model addresses organizational and individual conflict, effectiveness and satisfaction, leader-follower styles, and morale (Getzels & Guba, 1957). This general model may be used to understand why certain strategies, such as those related to systems change, are effective while others are not.

Change can also be addressed from the organizational viewpoint as well as from the individual viewpoint. Several models have been presented related to change management and individuals in an organization, however, understanding organizational change is also necessary. Donaldson (1999) suggest various internal and external factors affect the performance of an organization which in turn drives change. Therefore, it is necessary to understand the performance of an organization in depth. Organizational performance theory identifies individual factors that strengthen or diminish performance in all areas of the organization. The use of this theory allows for distinction between low performance which causes adaptation and high performance which nurtures growth, and claims fluctuation in performance is a necessary

constant for an organization to adjust and grow (Donaldson, 1999). Another approach suggested

by Argyris (1990) is overcoming organizational defenses. This approach supports the use of

learning, competence, and justice as a foundation for organizational excellence. Learning helps

identify errors, competence helps solve problems in a permanent manner and increases the ability

for future problem solving, and justice is based on values related to the health of the organization

and applies to all organization members at every level (Argyris, 1990). Overcoming defenses is

based on reducing human error and the tendency to cover up human error. Individuals that cover

up human error have difficulty applying necessary strategies related to accounting, information

technology, and human resources and use defensive as opposed to strategic reasoning. This type

of reasoning often leads to ineffective organizations unable to problem solve and deal with

change.

Another way to view organizational change is to treat change as a normal state of the life

of an organization (Tsoukas & Chia, 2002). This view looks at organizational change as it

relates to human action. Change is a part of human action and organizations are made up of ever

evolving human action. In addition, organizations generate change during the process of trying

to prevent change. Change in organizations if often microscopic or occurring incrementally and

naturally leading members to reorganize their beliefs and managers to intervene to create a new

organizational flow (Tsoukas & Chia, 2002). Yet another view on organizational change is to

think of change as both episodic and continuous. Episodic change includes organizational

changes that are infrequent, intermittent, and deliberate whereas continuous change includes

organizational changes that are constant, evolving, and collective. Weick and Quinn (1999)

suggest both types of organizational change begin with failure to adapt and that change can never

begin because it never ends. For organizations to be effective, continuous change must be noted

and related to wider purposes. The interdependencies of change must be understood with a focus on "changing" as opposed to "change" (Weick & Quinn, 1999). Case (2019) views change on a global level and has discovered five principles that she believes can lead to transformational and organizational success. These principles include making a big bet, being bold and taking risks, making failure matter, reaching beyond your bubble, and letting urgency conquer fear. Making a big bet involves going beyond the incremental advances taken in the past and making a transformational change that can lead to a revolutionary change. Taking risks often involves upsetting the status quo in order to get to the next big idea. Making failure matter involves not only applying the lessons learned but sharing them as well. Reaching beyond your bubble involves engaging with a diverse set of people to forge unexpected partnerships. Lastly, letting urgency conquer fear means reducing the tendency to overanalyze or overthink situations. According to Case (2019) these five strategies can be summed up as being fearless. According to Duncan (2012), the key behind transforming good intentions into great performance in organizations is to practice change-friendly leadership. People's feeling must be accounted for in all change efforts to reach organizational excellence.

Organizational culture and climate play a role in the change process. Leadership is associated with the climate and culture of an organization. Often structural changes may be necessary to implement culture changes through the development of a shared vision (Belias & Koustelios, 2014). Use of these change management theories can help to develop HIM leadership potential.

Work Design and Process Improvement. Change management theory is applicable to the processes of work design and process improvement. Competencies for master level HIM professionals include integrating data analytics to enhance workflow design and process

improvement through research methods and models. As part of the human resource frame,

Bolman and Deal (2013) suggest progressive organizations empower employees. Part of

empowerment includes involving employees in redesigning work to instill work with meaning.

By using the human resource frame, Bolman and Deal (2013) offer the result of an increase in

employee motivation. Work redesign leads to meaningful work, which in turn leads to

accountability (Bolman & Deal, 2013). According to Bolman and Deal (2013), much of the

twentieth century involved removing the human element from jobs in the name of efficiency.

Herzberg (1966) focused on the best and worst experiences of employees and noticed that the

best experiences revolved around recognition, achievement, and responsibility. Herzberg labeled

these as motivators (1966). The worst experiences revolved around administration, working

conditions, and supervision and Herzberg labeled these hygiene factors (1966). Herzberg (1966)

supports providing workers with authority, feedback, and increased challenges to enrich work

and lead to improved performance. Hackman, Oldman, Janson and Purdy (1987) expanded on

Herzberg's concepts by categorizing three necessary aspects of work redesign to include a need

to view one's work as meaningful and valuable, discretion to allow for personal accountability,

and feedback for purposes of improvement (Hackman et al., 1987).   Bolman and Deal (2013)

offer principles for successful structural change in an organization to include study of process to

understand how things work and what is not working. This process leads to a new structure or

work design based on analysis.

Leaders should use process measures to guide actions and help organizations improve.

Measurement techniques focusing on processes can improve outcomes (Becker & Glascoff,

2014). The work of Deming and Baldrige has resulted in criteria by which awards are bestowed

in their names. The criteria for these awards places an emphasis on quality and process-based measurements used to guide improvement efforts by leadership (Becker & Glascoff, 2014).

Kouzes and Posner (2007) suggest leaders be watchful for ways to continuously improve their organization and ask employees to do this as well. They suggest working on one major project every quarter while implementing small improvements every few weeks. Kouzes and Posner (2007) agree with Hackman (1987) and his colleagues that restructuring or re-designing work to allow for expansion of responsibility allows for freedom for employees leading to increased accountability. Kouzes and Posner (2007) indicate people perform better when directly relating work to organizational success; the daily design of work does not always reflect this. Kouzes and Posner (2007) suggest jobs be designed so people are aware of expectations, people are provided adequate training and support, people are given responsibility and decision-making opportunities, networking opportunities are created, and employees are included in deciding how jobs could be enriched. Part of work design should include high expectations of employees by leaders. According to Kouzes and Posner (2007), "The expectations that successful leaders hold provide the framework into which people fit their own realities" (p. 284).

According to John Kotter (1988), there are several practices effective leaders use to create productive work environments and teams. These include a sophisticated recruiting effort, an attractive environment, challenging opportunities, early identification of employee potential, early identification of employee development needs, and intentional development (Kotter, 1988). Blake, Srygley-Mouton, and Allen (1987) argue that process is not ignored when using teams to increase quality or productivity. Neglecting process, according to Blake et al., 1987) can result in poor participation skills, lack of attention to norms in all areas, lack of power and authority in all areas, a sense of complacency, and self-delusion leaving real issues not fully addressed.

Approaches to team development can vary depending on the needs of the organization (Blake et al., 1987). One of the weak areas related to team leadership is the need for additional skills that aren't included in the framework. For instance, Zaccaro Heinen, and Shuffler (2009) suggests additional training and coaching skills not included in the model being used may be needed based on specific situations leading to modification of the model. Northouse (2013) suggests instruction on diagnosing weaknesses in a team along with action- taking skills in order to support effective teams. An effective leader meets the needs of others and of the organization. Applying these work-design and process improvement theories and techniques to the HIM profession might improve upon leadership abilities.

Human Resources Management. Implementing change, working with others, and applying improvement practices into work all require the ability to leverage human capitol. HIM professionals need to be competent in leveraging human capitol according to the master's degree competencies (Council for Excellence in Education, 2014). Anyone who works with and makes decisions about people is a human resource leader. According to Seyfarth (2008), good leaders possess certain characteristics, which include the ability to create a vision, the ability to accept responsibility, the readiness to learn from critics, and persistence. Leaders should create a productive work environment using a clear mission, leadership support, and a professional culture (Seyfarth, 2008). Bolman and Deal (2013) built their human resource frame on several assumptions. These assumptions are that organizations should focus on people because organizations need people as much as people need organizations, and a good fit between people and an organization benefit both (just as the opposite is true). Argyris and Schon (1996) point out a positive relationship between providing development opportunities for individuals, moreover, increased overall performance of an organization. Bolman and Deal's (2013) focus

on human needs and investment in people support the productive work culture mentioned by Seyfarth. This involves a strategy to hire the right people, keep them, invest in them, empower them, and promote diversity (Bolman & Deal, 2013). According to Bolman and Deal (2013), leaders are effective in the human resource frame when they are a catalyst, a servant, and they support and empower others. Blake et al. (1987) place a focus on the human aspect using The Teamwork Grid®. The Teamwork Grid® is a framework that uses two measurements. The first measurement is concern for production; the second measurement is concern for people (Blake et al., 1987). Concern for people is the human aspect revealed through participation, support, mutual trust, open communication, attitude related to working conditions, and benefit and salary equity (Blake et al., 1987). Bolman and Deal (2013) support Blake et al's.(1987) concern for people in their human resource frame. Yukl (1994), however, suggests a high concern for production and a high concern for people may not always be the most effective framework in all situations and research findings provide minimal support for this style.

Talent management is a human resource function related to an organization's long-term success (Oakes, Tompson, & Lykins, 2010). According to Oakes et al. (2010), it is necessary for senior leadership to take the lead for talent management. Without senior-level support, talent management will fail. The investment in these processes is huge and needs understanding at a leadership level. In addition, leadership must work effectively with human resource professionals to support the success of this massive investment (Oakes et al., 2010). Yukl (2013) states that human capital is partly dependent on the organization's policies on acquisition, development and compensation. Using human resource systems such as recruiting, training, and staffing can help improve the human capital component of an organization. The quality of human capital determines the performance of an organization (Yukl, 2013). In support of Yukl's claim,

Bass (1990) states transformational leadership can improve organizational performance at all levels. According to Bass (1990), transformational leadership takes place when leaders raise employee interests, generate acceptance of the mission of the group, and motivate employees to move beyond self-interest. It has been argued that transformational leadership is a predisposition or trait and it is difficult for people to change traits (Bryman, 1992). Also, transformational leadership is associated with positive outcomes (i.e. effectiveness) which have not been clearly linked to changes in followers (Antonakis, 2012). However, increasing transformational leadership in an organization may help with recruitment. Northouse (2013) discusses human capital as a category that includes a person's education, work experience, developmental opportunities, and work-home conflict. A leader should be aware of the components of human capital and make sure to include these in any organizational processes. Kouzes and Posner (1993) relate the human capital components of recruiting and hiring to common values. According to Kouzes and Posner (1993), it is critical that organizations recruit and hire employees who share at least some of the crucial values of the organization and the organization can meet the employee's personal needs. In terms of human resource development, Poell and Van Der Krogt (2017) view it from a learning-network theory perspective. Learning-network theory is an integrated approach that combines training, learning, and micro-politics. Organizing human resource development as a training issue involves the development and delivery of programs related to organizational problems that are also tailored to employee needs and preferences. Organizing human resource development as a learning issue involves employee participation in processes that address learning style and learning goals. Employees are involved in the process that includes information exchange and feedback. Organizing human resource development as a strategic issue (micro-politics) considers the views and interests of all

employees at all levels of an organization. All actors negotiate to gain access to resources to address their own interests (Poell & Van Der Krogt, 2017).

Human resource management can be related to authentic leadership which occurs when leaders enact their true selves (Leroy et al., 2015). Authentic leaders motivate followers to perform at their highest levels and support a work setting that satisfies workers basic needs (Leroy et al., 2015). An authentic leader motivates others to act and draws the support of followers who are moved by a leader's true visions that address the crucial human needs of followers (Delbecq, 2008, n.d.). According to George (2003), employee motivation is the essential ingredient of organizational success. Employees seek meaning in their work and should be involved in the steps of creating value. Dedicated, motivated, long-term employees are necessary in establishing relationships and organizations that last. Authentic leadership is the key to building lasting value with employees which leads to lasting organizations (George, 2003). It's been suggested by Avolio and Gardner (2005) that leaders must promote an inclusive culture in an organization for both leaders and followers to be effective. Motivation, or trying to help others succeed or try harder, is an outcome of transformational leadership in this study.

A major component of human resource development is ethics and social responsibility. It's possible for organizations to achieve a competitive advantage and better performance through employment and development practices that promote ethics (Quinn, 2018). The combination of business ethics and social responsibility leads to organizational excellence and begins with ethical practices conveyed from the top down. Not only should organizations train employees in ethics they should also demonstrate ethical behaviors in organizational decision making and daily practices. Employees play an increasingly significant role in the success of an

organization and employee decision making skills must be a focus in organizational ethics training (Quinn, 2018).

Kotter (1996) supports the idea of developmental opportunities for many people in a system, not just a few senior members. Kotter's (1996) four key points related to human resource professionals and leadership include providing leadership on human resource issues to others, influencing managers to take responsibility for human resource related issues, basing influence on sources of power other than formal and placing priority on development of these other sources of power. The above-mentioned individuals place emphasis on the human resource aspect within an organization and the necessity for leaders to understand human resource concepts.

Training and Development. Human resource concepts have a direct impact on training and development. Training and development is another required competency for HIM professionals (Council for Excellence in Education, 2014.) Training and development apply to both sides of the leader-follower relationship. One side is the training of leaders; the other is how leaders should train employees. According to Bolman and Deal (2013), not investing in employees results in harm to organizations with negative consequences that include poor quality, poor service, increased costs, and costly mistakes. They also point out that training is an important part of change and neglecting to spend the time and money required to develop people and involve them in change often results in failure. Change agents and leaders responsible for promoting change should be included in training programs (Bolman & Deal, 2013). Kouzes and Posner (1993) stress the importance of education for leaders as well as followers. "Credible leaders are not afraid to liberate the leader in everyone" (Kouzes & Posner, p. 54). Leaders that coach others and help them grow receive trust and commitment (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). In

addition, it is necessary for leaders to take risks. These risks involve learning from experience.

For leaders to learn from experience and help others do so, they must create a climate for

learning, be active learners themselves, view change as challenge, and foster hardiness (Kouzes

& Posner, 2007). Leaders learn to lead using certain skills and abilities and by practicing these

skills effectively, leaders are developed (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). Parker-Follett (1975)

supports this idea in her claim that training is not adhering to a rigid set of rules, but the power to

make the right choice at each moment. Bennis and Nanus (2007) state, "Leaders are perpetual

learners" (p. 176). Most leaders are extremely proficient in learning from experience; learning

fuels leaders to deal with new challenges (Bennis & Nanus, 2007). Yukl (2013) also indicates

most skills for effective leadership are from experience and, learning from experience depends

on the challenge level of assignments, the variety of assignments, and relevant feedback. Yukl

(2013) suggests many activities for leadership development including formal programs and

mentoring.

According to Kotter (1988), developmental opportunities need to fit each candidate's

needs and can include formal training and coaching. Organizations that use planned

development for leaders have leadership with better working relationships (Kotter, 1988). Buller

(2013) expands on this and points out the difference between teaching and coaching indicating

the application of coaching practices in academic leaders as inspiring confidence (even during

troubling times), motivating to achieve the highest standards, recognizing excuses to defend lack

of effort, taking responsibility for the entire group, providing constructive criticism, and

empowering (not delegating). Subordinates are likely to have less experience than leaders when

it comes to these practices, therefore, leaders can use their experiences to coach subordinates

(Yukl, 2013). In agreement with Kotter (1988), Goleman (1996/2011) points out coaching and

mentoring result in better job performance as well as increased job satisfaction and decreased employee turnover while Yukl (2013) takes this a step further to support turning mistakes made by subordinates into learning experiences. This research supports the importance of training and development as a concept necessary for leaders as well as meeting the effectiveness outcome of leadership.

Strategic and Organization Management. "From its birth in the 1950s the strategic planning field has grown into a major and accepted part of the territory of management" (Porter, 1983, p. 172). The first model for strategy appeared in a 1965 textbook written by Learned, Christensen, Andrews, and Guth and included four key elements. These components of business strategy are strengths and weaknesses, opportunities and threats (currently referred to as SWOT analysis), personal values of key actors, and larger societal expectations (Learned et al., 1965). . Porter (1983) indicates strategic planning concepts initiated by industry and businesses as early as the 1950's followed this model; however, another strategy model is necessary to recognize the complexity of competition. Argyris and Schon (1974) bring up strategy in their Model II Learning theory. This theory based on awareness of action strategies allows participants to design or be involved in situations resulting in control over choices and feedback directed toward growth (Argyris & Schon, 1974). Bennis and Nanus (1985) support Argyris and Schon's (1974) Learning theory in their four strategies for leaders that include attention through vision, meaning through communications, trust through positioning, and positive self-regard. Management through vision creates a focus resulting in leader and organization as one or a unified focus as stated by Bennis and Nanus (1985). Communication creates meaning that is a necessary part of leadership to influence and create meaning in the organization (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). According to Bennis and Nanus (1985), "Trust is the glue that maintains organizational

integrity." (p. 44). Leaders establish trust by creating position and then sticking to the plan (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). According to Bennis and Nanus (1985), positive self-regard means trusting yourself without letting your ego get in the way. By recognizing strengths and compensating for weaknesses, a leader uses this strategy to relate effectively with others (Bennis & Nanus, 1985).

Kotter (1988) discusses effective leadership as building a strong implementation network with supportive relationships in key areas necessary to implement strategy. This coincides with the trust factor mentioned by Bennis and Nanus (1985). Mintzberg (1994) helps us define planning and strategy. According to Mintzberg (1994), planning is an attempt to formalize parts of decision making, strategy making, and management through articulation, decomposition, and rationalization. Strategy is a plan and a pattern and, as Mintzberg (1994) states, "Strategy formation is a planning process, designed or supported by planners, to plan in order to produce plans" (p. 32). Mintzberg has also observed that planning does not necessarily result in a strategy. Evans (2010) adds to this observation by pointing out the static nature of the world and the need to change plans that quickly become irrelevant. Strategies often fail when organizations put too much emphasis on objective measures and not enough on the relational or human capital aspects (Evans, 2010). This is supported by Bolman and Deal (2013) who look at strategic planning through the four frames and define it differently in each frame. The structural frame uses strategic planning to determine objectives and coordinate resources, the human resource frame encourages activities that inspire participation, the political frame involves airing of conflicts and power realignment, and the symbolic frame uses rituals to increase responsibility and develop meanings (Bolman & Deal, 2013). Bolman and Deal's (2013) human resource

frame supports Kotter's (1988) definition of effective leadership. Mintzberg's (1994) definition of strategy supports the structural frame definition from Bolman and Deal (2013).

Rooke and Torbert (2005/2011) based their research on a survey tool called the Leadership Development Profile. The profile has seven actions, one being the strategist. The strategist, according to Rooke and Torbert (2005/2011), produces personal and organizational change, is highly collaborative, creates shared visions, and challenges current conventions. Rooke and Torbert's (2005/2011) survey tool relates to the human resource frame provided by Bolman and Deal (2013). Porter (1996/2011) helps relate the role of leadership to strategic planning indicating a clear framework be put in place to guide strategy and help leaders make the necessary choices and tradeoffs. According to Porter (1996/2011), the role of the leaders is more than improving operations and making choices. The core of a leader's role is strategy; it is describing and communicating the position of the organization, making tradeoffs, and shaping fit between activities. Choices about what not to do are as important as choices about what to do (Porter, 1996/2011). According to Goodstein (2008/2010), strategic planning is the most important role of any leader, includes organization goals, and identifies potential obstacles to these goals. Strategic planning prepares leaders to think and act strategically and clarifies values (Goodstein, 2008/2010). Goodstein (2008/2010) supports a strategic planning approach that involves leadership directly using an applied model. This applied model includes two continuous steps (monitoring the environment and immediately responding to this monitoring) along with nine consecutive steps (Goodstein, 2008/2010):

- Step 1 is planning to plan (determine readiness and participants)

- Step 2 is clarifying the organization's culture and values

- Step 3 is formation of the mission

- Step 4 is use of business modeling (detailed plan)

- Step 5 is conducting performance audits

- Step 6 is performing a gap analysis

- Step 7 is incorporation of action plans

- Step 8 is contingency planning

- Step 9 is implementation of the plan (Goodstein, 2008/2010). A similarity between these steps and Bolman and Deal's four frames is evident.

Financial Management. Financial management is a required competency area in the HIM master's degree with curricular considerations including topics such as mergers and acquisitions, performance-based reimbursement, and accounting principles. This content has moved beyond the basic process of operational and capital budgeting. Early theorists such as Taylor (1911) touch on the importance of finance in leadership. Taylor's principles of scientific management (1998) include a component of maximum output resulting in larger profits. Taylor (1911) summarizes scientific management as science, harmony, cooperation, maximum output, and developing each person to his or her greatest efficiency level. Lutz and Lutz (1951) also suggest a theory for maximizing output. Lutz and Lutz (1951) integrate production and capital theories resulting in the theory of the investment of the firm. Production theory is concerned with the combination of least cost and optimum output; capital theory is concerned with any input that increases economic performance (Lutz & Lutz, 1951). Lutz and Lutz (1951) suggest a combination of these theories as a more efficient way to manage the financial aspect of organizations. Modigliani and Miller (1958) also suggest a combination theory (the cost of capital, corporation finance and the theory of investment) that incorporates the maximization of profits and market value. Maximizing profits assumes a physical asset is worth obtaining if it

increases net profit while maximizing market value assumes an asset is worth obtaining if it increases equity value (Modigliani & Miller, 1958). Modigliani and Miller (1958) indicate this theory be used for investment decision making.

Henri Fayol's (1987) definition of management includes six functions that all organizational activities include. One of these functions is financial. According to Fayol (1987), the financial function plays a part in every organizational action. Insightful financial management helps obtain capital and make optimum use of those funds (Fayol, 1989). Fayol (1989) mentions the need for internal as well as external financial intelligence. Peter Drucker (1986) argues that changes in the world economy have changed the way businesses must operate financially. According to Drucker (1986), the product economy has separated from the industrial economy, production has become separated from employment, and capital transactions (not trade) have become the driving force of the global economy. Because of these changes, knowledge and capital have replaced manual labor leading to knowledge-intensive industries over labor-intensive (Drucker, 1986). Drucker (1986) concludes economic forces have shifted from national to global.

In addition to considering basic financial theories, Ulrich and Smallwood (2010/2010) discuss leaders turning competencies into outcomes as part of financial success. Ulrich and Smallwood's (2010/2010) research led them to view financial results as playing a decreasing role in market value with intangibles playing an increasing role. They translated these intangibles into necessary leadership rules in order to increase market values. According to Ulrich and Smallwood (2010/2010), these rules include keeping promises, creating a compelling and clear strategy, aligning core competencies, and enabling organization capabilities. Some of these rules for financial success can be seen in Kotter's (2012) eight stage change process and in Kouzes

and Posner's (2007) model that both supports creating a vision and strategy and empowering action by enabling others to act. Ulrich and Smallwood (2013) also suggest five results for leaders to deliver. One of these is "investor" meaning building intangible value through creation of investor confidence related to future earnings (Ulrich & Smallwood, 2013).

Yukl (2008) combines several theories to create the flexible leadership theory to explain how leaders can affect financial performance in organizations. Human capital refers to the skills and motivation necessary for effective performance. Efficiency involves minimizing resources and people cost needed to perform necessary functions (Yukl, 2008). According to Pasban and Nojedeh, "Human capital is the investment in human resources in order to increase their efficiency" (2016, p. 250). The features of human capital include creativity and innovation, knowledge and skill, value added, and competitive advantage (Pasban & Nojedeh, 2016). Investing in the features of human capital increase quality and organizational efficiency. The quality of human capital along with efficiency and adaptation effect financial performance. According to Yukl (2008), this theory is applicable for all leadership positions, but especially for high-level management teams. This theory reminds leaders that effective performance necessitates the cooperation of many leaders, not just one (Yukl, 2008). Guthman and Dougall (1962) come to the same conclusion in stating it is often difficult to separate the finance function from the function of general business management. The close relationship between the financial aspect of business and plans and results of all other departments results in every decision affecting financial outcomes (Guthman & Dougall, 1962).

Vendor/Contract Management. A new content competency for HIM professionals at the master's degree level is vendor or contract management. Not all members of a project in an organization will be employees; the organization may collaborate with outside vendors for a

couple of different reasons. According to Oachs and Watters (2016), outside sources can provide specialized expertise to supplement internal deficiencies in certain areas or provide additional expertise to supplement shortages. Vendor partners can be consultants, contractors, or outsourcing agencies and consultants provide expertise that currently is lacking and are limited by timeframes (Oachs & Watters, 2016). These authors indicate contractors also fill a temporary void but are included for specialized skills or increasing work capacity. Outsourcing agencies do not supplement the current team but perform some portion of the work in place of the team. Outsourcing may be permanent or temporary.

As healthcare systems have faced financial difficulties, healthcare executives have faced challenges related to cost reduction while maintaining the delivery of quality care. According to Roberts (2001), there are many advantages to outsourcing, but it will fail without proper management. This author indicates that rapid growth, increased competition, and new leadership often cause organizations to turn to outsourcing, however, health care organizations need to scrutinize whether it is a worthwhile strategy. Leaders need to determine how outsourcing helps achieve strategic goals, what the risks and benefits are, and what steps managers need to take to ensure success. Roberts (2001) supports strategic outsourcing in healthcare but indicates healthcare executives must choose mangers with the necessary leadership capabilities to support its success.

Research performed by Ford, Huerta, Manachemi, Thompson, and Yu (2013) considered performance of health information technology (HIT) adoption strategies in relation to productivity measures. The focus was on selection of vendors for certified electronic medical record systems. Ford et al.(2013) concluded there are practice implications for hospital leaders related to adoption strategies and organizational efficiency. It is important for healthcare

organizations to know how changes in operational processes influence performance (Ford et al., 2013). This study supports the claim by Roberts (2001) that healthcare leaders need to be competent in outsource management. Wholey, Padman, Hamer, and Schwartz (2001) also mention that deciding and managing decisions on whether to make or buy information technology are significant and difficult.

Ethics. Ethics is a required leadership competency in the graduate level HIM curriculum. The ethics competency specifically addresses culture, research models, training and compliance programs, and diversity (Council for Excellence in Education, 2014). According to Northouse (2013):

> In regard to leadership, ethics has to do with what leaders do and who leaders are. It is concerned with the nature of leaders' behavior, and with their virtuousness. In any decision making situation, ethical issues are either implicitly or explicitly involved. The choices leaders make and how they respond in a given circumstance are informed and directed by their ethics (p. 424).

Northouse (2013) supports five principles that relate to ethical leadership that include respect, service, justice, honesty, and community. Kouzes and Posner (2007) include honesty as a characteristic that constituents expect in their leaders. In agreement with Northouse, Kouzes and Posner (2007) combine the characteristics of honesty, forward-looking, inspiring, and competence as characteristics that have remained constant over time and together result in credibility. According to Yukl (2013), "Most of the traits related to effective leadership are also related to ethical leadership (pp. 344-45). These traits include emotional maturity and personal

integrity (Yukl, 2013). According to Yukl (2013), there are several leading theories based on strong ethics; these theories include authentic leadership, transforming leadership, spiritual leadership, and servant leadership. Northouse (2013) points out, however, although several studies on business ethics have been published, the focus of these studies was not on leadership ethics concluding that more research must be done to support theories on leadership ethics.

According to George, Sim, McLean, and Mayer (2007/2010), an authentic leader is disciplined, purpose-driven, honest, and values- centered. He states, "Authentic leaders are those rare people who genuinely desire to serve others through their leadership" (p. 268). This author indicates what he refers to as essential dimensions of every authentic leader. These dimensions include understanding your purpose, practicing solid values, leading with heart, forming lasting relationships, and demonstrating self-discipline. These dimensions develop constantly during the life of a leader and are not a chronological process. Leaders need purpose and direction in order to gain followers. Understanding of self is essential for finding purpose (George et al., 2007/2010). Values held by leaders define their moral compass. Integrity is one of the values authentic leaders hold. Transparent leaders show they are genuinely interested in employees. Authentic leaders hold the crucial value of integrity. The author indicates integrity means not only telling the truth, but also telling the whole truth; without integrity, one cannot have trust. Leading with heart involves a willingness to share completely and having genuine interest in others. Having close relationships with followers is a trait of authentic leaders important for trust and commitment of followers and George et al. (2007/2010) sees self-discipline as essential for demonstrating values through actions.

In agreement with George, Cashman (1998) supports authenticity as the key to effective relationships. He states, "Authenticity is the life force of relationships. It is the true voice of the

leaders as it touches other people's hearts" (p. 58). He also supports the use of five benchmarks

of authentic leadership. The first benchmark is to know oneself authentically. Becoming more

effective with yourself helps you be more effective with others. This idea supports the leader

trait of understanding purpose described by George. The second benchmark offered by Cashman

(1998) is to listen authentically which relates to the authentic leader trait of showing genuine

interest in others offered by George. The third benchmark supported by this author is authentic

expression and sharing of real thoughts and feeling in an open manner. This relates to the trait of

transparency supported by George. The fourth benchmark is to appreciate authentically which

agrees with George's trait of leading with heart. Authentic appreciation relates to love which, in

the business world, is appreciation. This type of appreciation motivates people to exceed their

goals and limits. The fifth benchmark for authentic leadership is serving authentically.

According to Cashman (1998), leaders are here to serve all our constituencies and genuinely

appreciate that interdependence is how we create value.

Bennis (2006) discusses authentic leadership as including collaboration. Bennis indicates

three lessons for authentic leaders. The first lesson is power following ideas, not position.

Leaders must treat people as collaborators. Bennis (2006) indicates that part of this idea incudes

the importance of integrity as a leader characteristic. In this area, Bennis (2006) agrees with

George et al. (2010/2010) that integrity is a crucial value for an authentic leader. The second

lesson supported by Bennis (2006) is to cultivate a culture of candor. Cultivating a culture of

candor is in direct support of authentic expression indicated by Cashman (1998) and the

transparency involved in leading with heart described by George et al. (2010/2010). The third

lesson described by Bennis (2006) is the emergence of leaders after a transformational

experience. This ability to emerge after a transformational experience could be the result of the ability to demonstrate self-discipline as discussed by George et al. (2007/2010).

Authentic leadership is in the early stages of development and several criticisms related to this type of leadership must be noted. The approaches to authentic leadership require more research support to test the validity of the approach. The higher-order values of authentic leadership are not explained as they relate to the self-awareness of a leader and the inclusion of positive psychological measurements as part of authentic leadership has been questioned (Northouse, 2013).

Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) suggest ethical leadership builds upon three pillars. These three pillars are the leader's moral character, the ethical acceptability of the leaders' values related to the vision and strategy, and morality of the leader's choices and actions with followers (Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999). Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) point out four leading moral components of transformational leadership. The first component, idealized influence, can determine if manipulation is involved. Manipulation on the part of the leader is unethical (Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999). The second component, inspirational motivation, determines if true empowerment of followers is taking place. If the leader does not provide for true empowerment, the dynamic is unethical (Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999). Bennis and Nanus (2007) support this notion of empowerment stating transformative leadership involves a mutual relationship between followers and leaders that encourages employees to find new ways of accomplishing goals. Motivation is an element extra of effort which is an outcome of transformational leadership in this study. The third component is intellectual stimulation that should lead to openness and spirituality with followers. The final component is individualized consideration that allows for respect of individual interests (Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999). According to Bass and Steidlmeier

(1999), these four components are necessary components of transformational leadership, and transformational leadership has become a necessity.

Burns (2003) states, "Instead of exercising power over people, transforming leaders champion and inspire followers" (p. 26). According to Burns (2003), transforming leaders use this process to empower others. Transforming leaders are participatory, inspirational, and ethical (Burns, 2003). Ethics, according to Burns (2003) includes integrity, trustworthiness, accountability, mutuality, and promise keeping. Burns agrees with Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) that transformational leaders need moral character, ethical values, and moral decision making that includes followers. Kouzes and Posner (2007) define transformational leadership as, "The kind of leadership that gets people to infuse their energy into strategies…." (p. 122). In agreement with Burns (2003) and Bass and Steidlmeier (1999), Kouzes and Posner (2007) believe involving people in something that lifts them up to higher levels of morality and motivation leads to transformation. The benchmarks to authentic leadership supported by Cashman (1998) relate to the five practices of exemplary leadership supported by Kouzes and Posner (2007). These five practices include modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart (Kouzes and Posner, 2007). It should be noted here that transformational leaders are often considered authentic but being authentic does not necessarily mean a leader is transformational (Avolio & Garnder, 2005).

Motivation relates not only to transformational leadership as discussed by Burns (2003), Bass and Steidlmeier (1999), and Kouzes and Posner (2007), but to spiritual leadership. According to Yukl (2013), "spiritual leadership describes how leaders can enhance the intrinsic motivation of followers by creating conditions that increase their sense of spiritual meaning in

the work" (p. 350). Yukl (2013), however, indicates it is unclear how leader's skills and values influence the behavior of leaders in spiritual leadership. Bolman and Deal (2013) indicate significance as being important in spiritual leadership. Bolman and Deal (2013) state, "Spiritual leaders offer the gift of significance, rooted in confidence that the work is precious, that devotion and loyalty to a beloved institution can offer hard-to-emulate intangible rewards" (p. 404). This gift of significance helps people hold on to their faith and keeps them from burning out (Bolman & Deal, 2013). This concept of significance relates to the trait of inspiration suggested by Burns (2003) in relation to transformational leadership. Fry (2003) defines spiritual leadership, "as comprising the values, attitudes, and behaviors that are necessary to intrinsically motivate one's self and others so that they have a sense of spiritual survival through calling and membership" (pp. 694-95). Fry's (2003) model of spiritual leadership incorporates creating a vision that instills a sense of calling to followers, and establishing a culture of mutual and genuine care, concern, and appreciation. The qualities of a spiritual leader supported by Fry include many of the qualities supported by Northouse (2013) as principles of ethical leadership and by Kouzes and Posner (2007) as characteristics of ethical leaders. Fry (2003) supports the existence of intrinsic motivation in spiritual leadership while Yukl (2013) indicates the framework for spiritual leadership reinforces this concept of intrinsic motivation. Work that involves the engagement of workers and allows them to be creative is meaningful and supports intrinsic motivation (Fry, 2003). Motivation involves getting others to do more than they thought they could and put forth extra effort. This extra effort is an outcome of transformational leadership (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Servant leadership is the final ethical leadership theory mentioned by Yukl (2013). Greenleaf (1977) describes a servant-leader as one who is servant first and leader second.

According to Greenleaf (1977), the servant-leader is a very different person than one who is leader first and chooses to serve later. The servant-leader puts the highest priorities of others first (Greenleaf, 1977). In agreement with Greenleaf, Sendjayz (2015) indicates a servant leader has a true desire to serve others, centers on the followers as opposed to the leader, and uses a holistic approach. Sendjaya (2015) claims the principles of servant-leadership were exemplified in the teachings of Jesus Christ more than two thousand years ago. According to Senjaya (2015),

> Servant leadership is a holistic approach to leadership that engages both leaders and followers through its (1) service orientation, (2) authenticity focus, (3) relational emphasis, (4) moral courage, (5) spiritual motivation, and (6) transforming influence such that they are both transformed into what they are capable of becoming (p. 1).

Greenleaf (1996) believes ethical dilemmas require the need for strength where strength is the ability to see all options and to choose the right one. Greenleaf (1996) considers strength to be an ethical requirement. Building on this ethical requirement, Senjaya (2015) believes ethical decisions and actions of leaders based on moral reasoning contribute to follower's moral identity. Servant leadership builds on the ethical norms of a social setting thus affecting individual behavior and moral decision making (Senjaya, 2015). It has been argued, on the other hand, the altruistic approach of servant leadership, although admirable, conflicts with other principles of leadership (directing, goal setting, etc.) and individual autonomy (Gergen, 2006). It has also been argued that conceptualizing (the ability to be a visionary) is an important component of many types of leadership so it should not be a defining characteristic of servant leadership (Northouse, 2013).

Project Management. Project management that includes the ability to assess management tools, the ability to develop collaborative partnerships, and the ability to evaluate research methods and best practices is a necessary competency for HIM leaders (Council for Excellence in Education, 2014). Much of project management it founded on the principles of scientific and industrial management. Fayol (1984) divides the functions of management into six categories where the management function includes planning. According to Fayol (1984), planning is long term; however, activities that arise suddenly in response to changing conditions need to be addressed. Fayol (1984) considers these sub plans as part of longer plans or projects. According to Fayol (1984), good plans require a leader with skill in personnel handling, energy, moral courage, continuity of tenure, competence and knowledge, and ability to safeguard against incompetence. A more recent study by Muller and Turner (2010) supports the need for leadership competencies related to project success. Muller and Turner (2010) indicate critical analysis and judgment, the ability to manage resources, communication, and motivation skills as leading to project success.

Henry Gantt (1961) describes the scientific method of management as breaking down an operation into a succession of simple processes. Gantt (1961) suggests studying a complex operation by looking at the simple component parts. The charting method developed by Henry Gantt assists in measuring the amount of time needed to perform a task along with the time necessary to complete it (Gantt, 1961). Clark's research (2009) intended to increase the need for awareness of the difference between leadership and management in the project management setting. Clark points out the confusion between leadership and management is ongoing but comes down to the difference between process and behavior. As Gantt's work focused on process, Clarke (2009) went beyond process. Clark (2009) claims identifying process is easy but

identifying the perceptible behaviors of project management leaders is not. The identification of necessary behaviors leads to project success and satisfaction. Clark (2009) based his work on the result of a project leadership forum that identified attributes for successful project management. Clark (2009) suggests using these attributes to identify and develop a project leader. A successful project leader contributes to overall satisfaction of employees supporting the leader outcome of satisfaction by working with others in a positive manner.

Another early theory related to project management is Fishbein's reasoned action theory (Hennessy, Bleakley, & Fishbein, 2012). The reasoned action theory focuses on the relationship between behavior and attitudes within human action. The theory is concerned with individual's decisions to engage in a behavior based on the outcomes they expect (Hennessy et al, 2012). Hennessy et al.,(2012) have taken this theory and incorporated measurement models. These measurement tools make it possible to analyze data based on both behavior and attitude.

Zaheh (1965) is credited with developing the Fuzzy Sets Theory (FST) where fuzziness describes a set of objects with imprecise or incomplete boundaries. According to Johnson, Creasy, and Fan (2015) the FST has been applied in a multiplicity of project management settings. Callon (1986) and Latour (1984) developed the Actor-Network Theory (ANT) in which objects are treated as part of social networks and all factors in a social situation are treated as equally important. Johnson, Creasy, and Fan (2015) support the use of ANT principles in project management due to the variety of networks and actors that project managers face. Stakeholder theory is attributed to R. Edward Freeman and focuses on groups within organizations along with the interests of each. According to this theory, all parties are directly or indirectly affected by an action, whether internal or external to an organization (Freeman, 1994). According to Johnson, Creasy, and Fan (2015) knowing what is expected and required of stakeholders can offer the

project manager an understanding of the stakeholder's goals and understanding. This keeps the project on track and allows collaboration (Johnson et al., 2015). Utility theory is another theory associated with project management. According to Fishburn (1968), utility theory represents the values or preferences of individuals in ways that are useful. In this theory, measurement of an item or service is based on the satisfaction derived from consumption by the consumer (Fishburn, 1968). Utility theory has been applied to project management for understanding project risk (Johnson, Creasy, & Fan, 2015). Johnson et al., 2015) indicate the use of the Fuzzy Sets Theory, Theory of Constraints, Actor-Network Theory, Stakeholder Theory, and Utility Theory provide project managers with diverse options as well as offering additional considerations.

Hanisch and Wald (2011) suggest a framework for project management by integrating several different theoretical perspectives. In agreement with Johnson, Creasy, and Fan (2015), Hanisch and Wald (2011) offer an integrated multiple theoretical approach that supports the fundamental elements of project management. The complexity of a project may require more than one approach and may also require the creation of collaborative relationships. Pauget and Wald (2013) refer to this as relational competence which is necessary to manage project networks or relationships and focuses on the human or social aspect of project management. This combination approach that centers on the human aspect is very similar to the way Yukl (2008) combined several theories to create the flexible leadership theory. This theory has a focus on human capital related to the skills and motivation needed for effective performance. Other theorists support investment in human capital to increase efficiency (Pasban and Nojedeh, 2016). The quality of human capital can positively affect the outcomes of project management.

Effectiveness that involves the ability of a leader to represent a group, lead a group, and meet the needs of an organization is an outcome of transformational leadership.

Related Research

      Enterprise Information Management. The capability of supporting the implementation and operations of enterprise information systems by the HIM professional is a requirement in the master's degree (Council for Excellence in Education, 2014). Required competencies for HIM master level professionals includes enterprise-wide strategic planning, integrated business intelligence and use of analytic tools, and development of business plans to address operational planning (Council for Excellence in Education, 2014). According to Oachs and Watters (2016), enterprise health information management is about, "Ensuring the value of information assets, requiring an organization-wide perspective of information management functions; it calls for explicit structures, policies, processes, technology, and controls…" (p. 1002). Information must be trustworthy and actionable through use of appropriate processes and infrastructure (Oachs & Watters, 2016). Uhl-Bein, Marion, and McKelvey (2007) argue the bureaucratic leadership models of the last century are not suited for the knowledge era. They suggest a model called the Complexity Leadership Theory focusing on three broad categories of leadership that include administrative (bureaucratic focus), enabling (creative, adaptive, and learning), and adaptive (dynamic). The Complexity Leadership theory provides a theoretical framework for leadership that moves beyond the industrial age to the requirements of leaders in the new knowledge era (Uhl-Bein, Marion, & McKelvey, 2007).

      According to Shao, Feng, & Hu (2016), "Top management support has been identified as one of the most important factors in the success of enterprise systems (ES)" (p. 131). However,

the authors indicate few studies have addressed the most effective leadership type during the enterprise system life cycle. Different challenges during different phases call for different leadership styles (Shao, Feng, & Hu, 2016). The authors support the use of transformational leadership in the adoption phase, transactional leadership in the implementation phase, and a combination of transactional and transformational styles in the assimilation and extension stages. Shao et al. (2016) claim that one top executive or leader could effectively support an enterprise system by combining different styles of leadership.

In agreement with Shao, Feng, and Hu (2016), Elkhani, Soltani, and Ahmad (2014) support the use of a transformational leadership style in enterprise system implementation and usage. According to a study performed by Elkhani, Soltani, and Ahamd (2014), transformational leaders use charisma, inspirational motivation, individual consideration, and intellectual stimulation to support users of enterprise systems allowing them to become confident in their workplace. The results of an additional study done by Ghazali, Ahmad, and Zakaria (2015) provide support for knowledge integration as an intermediary between different leadership styles and the success of enterprise system usage. While managing enterprise systems, leaders must use both the transformational and the transactional leadership style for success (Ghazali, Ahmad, & Zakaria, 2015). It should be noted here the charismatic component of transformational leadership also presents risks to organizations as it can be used in a negative manner (Howell & Avolio, 1992).

Neufeld, Dong, and Higgins (2007) also agree that leadership plays an important role in the acceptance and use of information technology. Information system failure is common often resulting in the loss of millions of dollars (Neufeld, Dong, & Higgins, 2007). Neufeld, Dong, and Higgins (2007) integrate the unified theory of acceptance and use of technology (UTAUT)

and the charismatic leadership theories to support the use of information systems. The user acceptance theory stems from the reasoned action theory attributed to Martin Fishbein (1967). According to Fishbein, reasoned action theory is behavior determined by intentions with intentions determined by attitudes about performing the behavior and subjective norms (1967). Intentions and attitudes may have different weights with some being more influenced by attitudinal control and others more influenced by normative control (1967). Charismatic leadership as defined by Max Weber (1947) is authority, "resting on devotion to the exceptional sanctity, heroism or exemplary character of an individual person, and of the normative patterns or order revealed or ordained by him" (p. 215). Weber (1947) viewed charisma as ascribed to a leader by followers, not an objective set of qualities. The findings of Neufeld, Dong, and Higgins (2007) support the importance of leadership in technology implementation through extending the UTAUT model and applying charismatic leadership traits connected to inspirational motivation.

Ettlie, Perotti, Joseph, and Cotteleer (2005) found that in adoption of enterprise resource technology, leadership is a significant forecaster of adoption performance. According to these authors, leaders should walk the talk and live the vision when it comes to technology change or adoption. Successful leaders incorporate quality, incorporate focused goals, and manage relationships with third parties, which could be the most challenging part of the process (Ettlie et al., 2005). Elkhani, Soltani, and Ahmad (2014) as a framework for enterprise systems suggest the use of transformational leadership.

Summary

This research has addressed literature related to leadership as it applies to specific curricular competencies necessary for leadership roles in health information management. The leadership competencies researched in this literature review include decision making and public policy, change management, process improvement and work design, human resources management, training and development, strategic and organizational management, financial management, ethics, project management, vendor and contract management, and enterprise information management. Leadership theory has been studied and applied to all the competencies mentioned, however, the competency of enterprise information management lacks original theory related to leadership in HIM. Enterprise information management is an emerging and important area that falls under the realm of HIM professionals. Prominent frameworks were examined to determine possible application to HIM leadership roles with many theories presenting possible applications to the HIM leadership competencies. Research related to enterprise information management in other professions supported the use of transformational and transactional leadership styles and those traits that relate to these styles. This research is, therefore focused on the relationship between effective enterprise information management and HIM leadership related to transactional, transformational, and passive leadership styles. This research may offer a framework for leaders of enterprise information systems in health care and support for expanded education in leadership for HIM professionals.

Chapter Three: Research Methodology

Introduction

This study examined the relationship of leadership behaviors to the management of enterprise information in the HIM profession. A quantitative approach was used in alignment with the conceptual framework of Bass and Avolio's (n.d.) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. Research on HIM leaders and the management of enterprise information systems is lacking. This research was vital to increase knowledge of HIM professionals in leadership roles and to address curriculum needs and lack of leadership in the HIM profession. The theoretical framework of Bass and Avolio (n.d.) lends itself to the leadership behavior in the HIM profession, especially related to enterprise information systems. Enterprise information systems by definition involve system wide and even global interactions among diverse and interdisciplinary groups of individuals and functions. This increased globalization and diversity in the workforce affect an organization's ability to compete and function effectively making the need to develop transformational leadership skills greater than ever (Cascio, 1995). A broad range of leadership styles is necessary as it coincides with these dramatic workforce changes (House & Podsakoff, 1994). Organizations need to be flexible and include leaders that can effectively provide a vision to lead and inspire employees in a competitive and global economy (Bennett, 2009). The leadership characteristics and behaviors of transformational and transactional leaders include the behaviors necessary in diverse, global, and rapidly changing environment. The MLQ, "was conceptually developed and empirically validated to reflect the

complementary dimensions of transformational and transactional leadership with sub-scales to further differentiate leader behavior" (Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996, p. 388). Avolio and Bass's (2004) leadership questionnaire provides a full range of leadership styles that includes five transformational characteristic categories as well as two transactional and two passive categories. This approach was able to statistically test the leadership style among HIM leaders in relation to enterprise information system management.

Validity and Reliability. An assessment used in research must be reliable and valid. Reliability relates to the consistency of test scores, while validity relates to the accuracy of the interpretations made from these scores (Johnson & Christensen, 2012). Since Bass created the original leadership measurement instrument in 1985, much research has been done on results of the instrument. Northouse (2013) indicates the MLQ has been revised many times since its creation in 1985 leading to the refinement of its validity and reliability. Whitelaw (2001) identified comparative and replication studies do confirm the MLQ to be a valid and a reliable tool. Results of testing of the validity and reliability of the tool are noted in the following studies.

According to Barge and Schlueter (1991), the MLQ confirms good validity. The three outcome measures (extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction) were found to be on average more highly correlated with transformational leadership than with transactional leadership. An extensive review was performed by Lowe, Kroech, and Sivasubramaniam (1996) focusing on the five MLQ factors of charisma, individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, contingent reward, and management-by-exception. The mean Cronbach for the scales were 0.92 for charisma, 0.88 for individualized consideration, 0.86 for intellectual stimulation, 0.82 for contingent reward, and 0.65 for management-by-exception equating to good internal reliability.

Mean raw and corrected correlations were done and findings across all studies showed charisma as the variable most related to leader effectiveness with management-by-exception having mixed results. This study overall indicated strong validity and reliability in support of the MLQ instrument (Lowe et al., 1996).

The original leadership model of transformational and transactional leadership styles presented in 1985 by Bass has undergone several changes (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The original model included 6 factors; however, later research revealed several additional factors resulting in revised versions of the questionnaire (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Criticisms of the original version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire 5X (MLQ 5X) included concerns related to high correlations between the transformational scales, and among the transformational scales and contingent reward, the mingling of behaviors, results and influence within a distinct leadership scale, and differentiating between behaviorally-based charismatic leadership and an impact on followers (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

In response to the criticisms, the MLQ 5R was developed. The new form includes all the original behavioral items for leadership scales except for idealized influence. Idealized influences can be seen as a behavior as well as an impact, so a scale was included to capture any impact or non-behavior items (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The results of a 1999 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) comparing the new model to previous models resulted in improvement in the chi-square value (P<.001) and signified best absolute fit when compared with other models (Avolio & Bass, 2004). According to Avolio and Bass (2004), testing of the nine-factor model resulted in consistent and strong support for this model. Although limitations exist, validation performed for over twenty years has produced strong consistency across cultures, regions, and raters in support of this model (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

A study done by Dumdum, Lowe, and Avolio (2002) was performed to update the previous study performed by Lowe et al. (1996) and included all twelve of the MLQ scales. The mean Cronbach obtained for eleven of the twelve scales in this study was above 0.70 indicating good internal reliability. This study (Dumdum et al., 2002) was consistent with the study performed by Lowe et al. (1996) except for management-by-exception (0.05 for Lowe and -0.30 for Dumdum). It should be noted here that since 1996 the management-by-exception scale has been subdivided into two scales, management-by-exception (active) and management-by-exception (passive), yet, the overall meta-study results indicate strong support for this tool.

Another meta-study performed by Judge and Piccolo (2004) accounting for the full range of all three leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and passive) identified 87 studies meeting their criteria. They included the following five leadership behaviors and obtained the following mean corrected correlation values: 0.44 for transformational leadership, 0.39 for contingent reward, 0.15 for management-by-exception (active), -0.18 for management-by-exception (passive), and -0.37 for passive. This study indicates strong broad support for validity of contingent reward and transformational leadership. There is such a high correlation between transactional and transformational leadership that separating the two is difficult (Bennett, 2009). Bass and Avolio (n.d.) report good internal reliability of the self-rater form ranging from .60 to .92 in a study with a sample of 1,006 individuals. Test-retest reliabilities from a study using the self-rater form had reliabilities ranging from .44 to .74.

Role of the Researcher

Data for this study was collected using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). The MQL is an electronic survey focusing on the transactional, transformational, and passive

leadership styles of HIM professionals involved in the management of enterprise information. The survey rights are owned by Mind Garden, Inc. and each individual survey requires the purchase of a license. The initial cost for customization of the survey that included two editing sessions was two hundred dollars. The initial cost of purchasing one hundred licenses was one hundred forty dollars ($1.40 per each survey) which included a student discount. An additional seventy five licenses were purchased during the course of the process as needed for a cost of an additional one hundred fifty dollars ($2.50 per survey based on purchase amount of 75 surveys). Each survey accessed by a potential respondent was considered used, regardless of whether the survey was actually completed. A total of two hundred fifty six surveys were sent via email request which included the link to the survey provided by Mind Garden and resulting in seventy eight complete surveys.

An appropriate sample was determined with the assistance of the AHIMA educational director utilizing the AHIMA membership database. Appropriate criteria were applied which reduced the number of potential participants from over 103,000 members to 256 potential participants. Criteria used to determine population and sample size are discussed in detail in the following sections of this paper. Data was collected from those who agreed to participate in the survey, compiled into a spreadsheet and analyzed using quantitative statistics to determine if stated relationships existed. Two reminder emails were sent to the initial group resulting in a small amount of additional replies; however, the majority of responses were received approximately two to three weeks following the initial survey request. There was no direct involvement between the researcher and the participants other than the request to participate in the survey. Self-reported data were collected by the researcher from participants via questionnaire. The role of a quantitative researcher focuses on testing hypotheses with

quantitative data to determine if they are confirmed or not confirmed (Johnson & Christensen, 2012).

Research Design and Methods

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) was used to collect data for this study and measure both independent and dependent variables (Bass & Avolio, n.d.). The questionnaire measured independent variables of transactional, transformational, and passive leadership styles measuring behavior of a leader in nine areas. These areas included idealized attributes, idealized behaviors, inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, management-by-exception (active), management-by-exception (passive), contingent reward, and Laissez-Faire or passive (Northouse, 2013). High scores in specific areas are associated with strong leadership in those areas. This survey instrument was chosen because it measures leadership styles suggested by previous research as possibly applicable to HIM leaders in enterprise information roles. The MLQ is the most extensively used measure of transformational leadership (Northouse, 2013). In addition, it measures leadership associated with passive and transactional styles. The self-rater form was used in this study to measure leadership traits that have been determined to be related to passive leadership, transactional leadership, and transformational leadership. The self-rater form included statements related to each leadership style which are rated (or answered) by the individual based on a Likert scale ranging from "not at all" to "frequently, if not always" as possible choices (Northouse, 2013). Robinson (2017) performed a quantitative study to ascertain and compare leadership behavior between senior student affair officers founded on generational cohort. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire was used with a resulting response rate of 13.4%. The findings of the study were found to be significant (Robinson, 2017). In addition, in a similar study done by Caillier (2014),

SurveyMonkey was used to distribute an emailed survey to government employees to determine

if transformational leadership and public service motivation had a relationship to employee

evaluations. The response rate for this survey was 27.5% and the findings supported

transformational leadership and public service motivation as having a positive effect on

evaluations of employees (Caillier, 2014). Table 3.1 displays the scale names associated with

each style or characteristic (transformational, transactional, or passive) and associated behaviors.

Table 3.1

Leadership Styles and Scale Names

Characteristic/Style	Scale Name	Behaviors
Transformational	Idealized Attributes	Instills pride in others, goes beyond self-interest for good of the group, displays a sense of power and confidence
Transformational	Idealized Behaviors	Expresses most important values and beliefs, considers moral and ethical consequences of decisions, emphasizes importance of collective sense of mission
Transformational	Inspirational Motivation	Talks optimistically about the future and what needs to be accomplished, articulates compelling vision of the future, expresses confidence of goal achievement
Transformational	Intellectual Stimulation	Re-examines critical assumptions for appropriateness, seeks different perspectives when solving problems, suggests new ways of completing assignments
Transformational	Individual Consideration	Spends time teaching and coaching, treats others as individuals, considers individual needs/abilities/aspirations, helps other develop their strengths
Transactional	Contingent Reward	Provides others with assistance in exchange for their efforts, communicates clearly about reward for goal achievement, expresses satisfaction when others meet expectations
Transactional	Management-by-Exception (Active)	Focuses attention on mistakes, deviations and failures, keeps track of all mistakes
Passive-Avoidant	Management-by-Exception (Passive)	Fails to interfere until problems become serious, waits for things to go wrong before taking action
Passive-Avoidant	Laissez-Faire	Avoids getting involved when important issues arise, is absent when needed, avoids making decisions, delays responding to urgent questions

(Avolio & Bass, 2004, pp. 96-98).

Idealized influences (attributes and behaviors) include leaders who are trusted, respected and admired and put followers' needs over their own. The conduct of these leaders is based on important values, ethics, and beliefs. Inspirational motivation is displayed by leaders who provide meaning and can motivate others. These leaders are enthusiastic and communicate a compelling vision. Inspirational stimulation is exhibited by leaders who motivate others to be innovative and support creative solutions to problems. Leaders who demonstrate individual consideration pay attention to the individual needs of others and support a climate of opportunities for growth. Contingent reward includes leaders who display behaviors related to constructive or corrective actions. Constructive actions are labeled contingent reward where a leader clarifies expectations and provides recognition based on goal achievement. Corrective actions are labeled management-by-exception (active) and based on failure to meet standards and actions taken for noncompliance. Leaders who display another form of management-by-exception (passive) include those who are more reactive or passive. Leaders practicing management-by-exception wait for things to go wrong while Laissez-Faire leaders avoid making decisions and are not available when needed (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

The use of an electronic survey is advantageous as resources using the internet are vast and nearly unlimited. In this instance, the surveys were sent to individuals that are members of a professional organization and are most likely working in the field providing access to the necessary technology to respond. Online communities that include a huge number of topics and perhaps millions of discussion participants exist (Horrigan, 2001; Wellman, 1997; Wellman & Haythornthwaite, 2002). More than enough focused subjects are available from this type of setting. This online environment allows information collection in a short period utilizing online surveys allowing the researcher to perform multiple tasks at one time (Bachmann, Elfrink, &

Vazzana, 1996; Garton, Haythornthwaite, & Wellman, 1997; Taylor, 2000; Yun & Trunbo,

2000). These tasks include the organization and preliminary analysis of data as it is collected.

This study, being based on a national pool of participants, made this research tool a logical

choice.

Sample Selection

The population used in this study was the AHIMA membership database which includes

over 103,000 members. This was the best option for determining a valid sample as the database

includes member profiles that can be sorted by various criteria. Since this research is concerned

with curriculum for accredited programs, the AHIMA membership database is a reasonable

choice as approved curriculum is generated from this group. Individuals holding AHIMA

credentials are part of this database as membership is required for credential recertification on a

two-year cycle. A complete list of AHIMA members was used as the starting point and

participants were then selected based on specific criteria.

The population used in this study was the complete list of AHIMA members sorted by

job title to include executive/president/vice president, director/officer, manager/supervisor, and

consultant. These job titles were determined to be those associated with the leadership role of

enterprise information management. The population was further sorted to include those

members holding the AHIMA RHIA credential, those having a master's degree or higher, those

working in the setting of integrated healthcare delivery system or acute care hospital, and by

geographic location. In order to obtain a workable number of participants, the entire database of

AHIMA members that fit the criteria was sorted by geographic region. The original database

contained 1,387 individuals which was too large a group to include in the study due to licensing

cost per survey sent. The geographic location chosen was based on the definition used by the United States Census Bureau that includes the states of Michigan, Wisconsin, Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois. The population for this group resulted in a total of 241 individuals. Of the 241 individuals surveyed, a total of 78 individuals responded to the survey.

Electronic surveys were sent via email as determined by AHIMA membership rosters to either personal or employment email addresses. HIM professionals work in a variety of settings including ambulatory surgery centers, behavioral/mental health, consulting services, educational institutions, acute care hospitals, integrated healthcare delivery systems, long-term care, clinic/physician practices, non-provider setting(government/vendor), health information exchanges, regional extension centers, home health/hospice, or rehabilitation ("My AHIMA," n.d.). In order to reduce the sample size and focus on those individuals that would be directly involved in enterprise information management, the employment setting was reduced to acute care and health care delivery systems.

Procedures. Data were collected using a self-administered, emailed electronic survey to individuals identified through the AHIMA membership database as those that met qualifying criteria. Individuals were identified with the assistance of an AHIMA Foundation representative. Individuals asked to participate were given an explanation of the research in the initial email invitation. Individuals that participated in the survey consented to participation prior to completing the survey (appendix C). The survey included questions related to transactional, transformational, and passive leadership styles from the Multifactor Leadership questionnaire. A repeat request to complete the survey was sent to the same individuals two times after the initial request to encourage participation. Each request resulted in additional surveys returned.

Responders to the questionnaire received a thank you at the end of the survey as well as in the

initial email sent (appendix D).

Variables

Independent variables in this study included perceived leadership behaviors or styles

represented by elements in the transactional leadership style (contingent reward, and

management-by-exception (active), the transformational leadership style (inspirational

motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, idealized attributes, and

idealized influence (behaviors), and the passive leadership style (Laissez-Faire, and management

by exception (passive) (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Independent variables were measured by the

specified behaviors associated with each leadership style. The dependent variable in this study

was the leader outcome variable of successful management of enterprise information in an HIM

environment. In this study, successful enterprise information in an HIM environment is one that

involved active engagement in ensuring the value of information assets, active engagement in

ensuring an organization wide perspective of information management functions, and active

engagement in structures, policies, processes, technology, and controls related to enterprise

information management. These outcomes were reported as extra effort, effectiveness, and

satisfaction on the leadership scale. Dependent variables were measured by specified behaviors

associated with each outcome of leadership. The independent and dependent variables are listed

in Tables 3.2 and 3.3 respectively.

Table 3.2

Descriptive Statistics - All Independent Variables

Behavior	Characteristic	Variable/Scale Name
Builds Trust	Transformational	Idealized Attributes
Acts with Integrity	Transformational	Idealized Behaviors
Encourages Others	Transformational	Inspirational Motivation
Encourages Innovation	Transformational	Intellectual Stimulation
Coaches & Develops People	Transformational	Individualized Consideration
Rewards Achievement	Transactional	Contingent Reward
Monitors Deviations & Mistakes	Transactional	Management by Exception - Active
Fights Fires	Passive	Management by Exception - Passive
Avoids Involvement	Passive	Laissez-Faire

Table 3.3

Descriptive Statistics - All Dependent Variables

Behavior	Characteristic	Variable/Scale Name
Heightens others' desire to succeed/try harder	*Outcome of Leadership	Extra Effort
Leads effective groups/effectively meets needs of others	*Outcome of Leadership	Effectiveness
Uses satisfying leadership methods	*Outcome of Leadership	Satisfaction

Note: *The outcomes of leadership are not Leadership styles; they are results or outcomes of leadership behavior.

A quantitative method was used to determine leadership behavior and success of enterprise information system management. The independent variables of each leadership style were studied as they related to successful management of enterprise information systems based on the above definition of success and the dependent variables. In this case, transformational leadership variables that included inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, idealized attributes, and idealized influence (attributes) were studied as they influenced successful enterprise information management as defined above. The same analysis was performed for the other two sets of independent variables of transactional and passive leadership. The following research hypotheses were addressed based on the results of the statistical analyses:

Table 3.4

Research Hypotheses

Research Hypothesis 1

There is a relationship between transformational leadership styles of HIM professionals and the successful management of enterprise information systems.

Hypothesis 1.1

H0: There is no relationship between the leadership outcome of extra effort and the use of transformational leadership by HIM professionals.

H1: There is a relationship between the leadership outcome of extra effort and the use of transformational leadership by HIM professionals.

Hypothesis 1.2

H0: There is no relationship between the leadership outcome of effectiveness and the use of transformational leadership by HIM professionals.

H1: There is a relationship between the leadership outcome of effectiveness and the use of transformational leadership by HIM professionals.

Hypothesis 1.3

H0: There is no relationship between the leadership outcome of satisfaction and the use of transformational leadership by HIM professionals.

H1: There is a relationship between the leadership outcome of satisfaction and the use of transformational leadership by HIM professionals.

Research Hypothesis 2

There is a relationship between transactional leadership styles of HIM professionals and the successful management of enterprise information systems.

Hypothesis 2.1

H0: There is no relationship between the leadership outcome of extra effort and the use of transactional leadership by HIM professionals.

H1: There is a relationship between the leadership outcome of extra effort and the use of transactional leadership by HIM professionals.

Hypothesis 2.2

H0: There is no relationship between the leadership outcome of effectiveness and the use of transactional leadership by HIM professionals.

H1: There is a relationship between the leadership outcome of effectiveness and the use of transactional leadership by HIM professionals.

Hypotheses 2.3

H0: There is no relationship between the leadership outcome of satisfaction and the use of transactional leadership by HIM professionals.

H1: There is a relationship between the leadership outcome of satisfaction and the use of transactional leadership by HIM professionals.

Research Hypothesis 3

There is a relationship between passive leadership styles of HIM professionals and the successful management of enterprise information systems.

Hypothesis 3.1

H0: There is no relationship between the leadership outcome of extra effort and the use of passive leadership by HIM professionals.

H1: There is a relationship between the leadership outcome of extra effort and the use of passive leadership by HIM professionals.

Hypothesis 3.2

H0: There is no relationship between the leadership outcome of effectiveness and the use of passive leadership by HIM professionals.

H1: There is a relationship between the leadership outcome of effectiveness and the use of passive leadership by HIM professionals.

Hypothesis 3.3

H0: There is no relationship between the leadership outcome of satisfaction and the use of passive leadership by HIM professionals.

H1: There is a relationship between the leadership outcome of satisfaction and the use of passive leadership by HIM professionals.

Descriptive statistics were used to calculate the mean and standard deviation for each independent variable and relationships among variables were examined using Pearson correlation coefficient to study the relationship between independent and dependent variables. "Correlation is a statistical technique that is used to measure and describe a relationship between two variables" (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011, p. 467). The Pearson product-moment correlation (Pearson correlation) measures the degree of straight-line relationships and is the most commonly used correlation measurement. It is often used to make predictions about relationships among two variables by determining the correlation between them (Gravetter, & Wallnau, 2011). A Pearson correlation of zero indicates no association between variables. A number between zero and one indicates a positive correlation and a number between zero and negative one indicates a negative correlation. The standard used by most researchers for indicating a high correlation is between positive 0.5 and 1 or negative 0.5 and negative 1

(Gravetter, & Wallnau, 2011). This formula produces a correlation with a scale of 1.00 to -1.00 when there is a linear relationship between the x variable and y variable. In contrast, when no linear relationship exists, the correlation is zero. The standard to claim a correlation is typically a number between 0.5 and 1 for a positive correlation and a number between -0.5 and -1 for a negative correlation (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011). The probability value (p-value), "is the probability of the observed result of your research study….under the assumption that the null hypothesis is true" (Johnson & Christensen, 2012, p. 494). A small p-value allows a researcher to reject the null hypothesis while tentatively accepting the alternative hypothesis and claiming statistical significance (the observed result was most likely not due to chance) (Johnson & Christensen, 2012). The results and data analysis are discussed in chapter four and include visual models to provide further explanation.

Chapter Four: Results and Data Analysis

Demographics

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire self-rater form was emailed to 256 individuals who are current members of the American Health Information Management Association (AHIMA) within the states of Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Ohio, and Wisconsin. Fifteen emails were not valid. A total of 241 surveys were sent and received by the recipients. Of those 241 surveys received, 78 were filled out, were coded, and compiled onto an Excel spreadsheet.

The final 78 completed surveys represent a response rate of 32.4% with a sample size of 241 (n=241). Although higher response rates are always desirable, the response rate in this study was greater than other response rates for similar studies that resulted in significant results.

Demographic characteristics were included in the selection of potential respondents. Initially, the plan was to ask the participants specific demographic information, however, this information was able to be incorporated into the selection of the participant group. These characteristics included education level, job title, employment facility type, credential, and state of employment. The education level included those with a master's degree or higher. Job title options were obtained from the AHIMA member database and included those with the job title of executive/president/vice president, director/officer, manager/supervisor, and consultant. Credential was also obtained from the AHIMA database and included a minimum of Registered Health Information Administrator (RHIA). The RHIA credential is associated with a

bachelorette degree or higher. Place of employment was limited to those employed in an acute care or integrated healthcare delivery system setting. These characteristics were selected to establish a connection with enterprise information system involvement in a leadership capacity. State of employment included Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Ohio, and Wisconsin as part of the United States Census Bureau division of Region Two, Midwest Division 3, North Central. Table 4.1 displays the characteristics of the sample population. The data in the table is based on the 256 population sample size as fifteen of the emails sent were not valid (resulting in n= 241) and there was no way to determine which individuals to exclude from the sample.

A sample/reproduction of this survey can be found in Appendix B. The first three statements were added to the MLQ to determine the participants' involvement with enterprise information systems. The three statements were based on the definition of enterprise information management and were answered with a yes or no response. A yes answer to any statement meant the participant determined themselves to be involved in some aspect of this task. The three statements added were: I have been actively engaged in ensuring the value of information assets, I have been actively engaged in ensuring an organization wide perspective of information management functions, and I have been actively engaged in structures, policies, processes, technology, and controls related to enterprise information management.

Table 4.1
Respondent Characteristics

Population Sample Size = 241
Number of Respondents = 78
Response Rate = 32.4%
(% in table based on 256 total which includes 15 invalid emails)

Education Level	Job Title	Credential	Employment Site	State of Employment
Master's degree = 0.78%	Executive/president/vice president = 0%	RHIA at a minimum = 44.14%	Acute care hospital = 63.67%	Illinois = 34.38%
	Director/Officer = 60.94%			Indiana = 15.23%
Doctorate degree = 99.22%		RHIA with additional credential/s = 55.86%	Integrated healthcare delivery system = 36.33%	Michigan = 15.63%
	Manager/Supervisor = 39.06%			Ohio = 23.05%
				Wisconsin = 11.72%
	Consultant = 0%			

Descriptive statistics were reported using basic statistics including mean and standard deviation to analyze the data collected in this quantitative correlational research study. Other information collected in the study included age and gender of participants and this demographic information is included in table 4.2. The largest age category was comprised of participants between the ages of 50-59 years of age (37.11%) and only one participant did not report age. The majority of participants were female at 88.28% with only 8.59% of participants being male and eight or 3.13% of participants not reporting gender.

Table 4.2

Demographics

Age
20-29 = 0.78
30-39 = 17.19%
40-49 = 20.70%
50-59 = 37.11%
60-69 = 22.27%
> 69 = 1.56%
Unknown = 0.39%

Gender
Female = 88.28%
Male   = 8.59%
Unknown = 3.13%

Analyses

There are nine factors of leadership measured by the MLQ. Five factors are associated

with transformational leadership, two factors are associated with transactional leadership, and

two factors are associated with passive leadership. Those components and associated behaviors

for transformational leadership are idealized attributes (builds trust), idealized behaviors (acts

with integrity), inspirational motivation (encourages others), intellectual stimulation (encourages

innovation), and individual consideration (coaches and develops people). Those components and

behaviors associated with transactional leadership are contingent reward (rewards achievement)

and management by exception (active) (monitors deviations and mistakes). The components and

behaviors associated with passive avoidant leadership are management by exception (passive)

(fights fires) and Laisse-Faire (avoids involvement). The forty- five questions on the survey are

each associated with a specific component.   The MLQ includes scale or variable names for each

main leadership area or characteristic. Table 4.3 includes the leadership characteristic

(transformational, transactional, or passive), the associated scales names that fall into each

leadership characteristic area, and the behavior associated with each specific scale name.

Table 4.3
Overview of Scale Names - All Independent Variables

Behavior	Characteristic	Variable/Scale Name
Builds Trust	Transformational	Idealized Attributes
Acts with Integrity	Transformational	Idealized Behaviors
Encourages Others	Transformational	Inspirational Motivation
Encourages Innovation	Transformational	Intellectual Stimulation
Coaches & Develops People	Transformational	Individualized Consideration
Rewards Achievement	Transactional	Contingent Reward
Monitors Deviations & Mistakes	Transactional	Management by Exception - Active
Fights Fires	Passive	Management by Exception - Passive
Avoids Involvement	Passive	Laissez-Faire

Overview of Scale Names - All Dependent Variables

Behavior	Characteristic	Variable/Scale Name
Heightens others' desire to succeed/try harder	*Outcome of Leadership	Extra Effort
Leads effective groups/effectively meets needs of others	*Outcome of Leadership	Effectiveness
Uses satisfying leadership methods	*Outcome of Leadership	Satisfaction

Note: *The outcomes of leadership are not Leadership styles,
     they are results or outcomes of leadership behavior.

Individual survey results were reported in a table format for convenient interpretation. Relationships among variables were examined using Pearson correlation coefficient and displayed in tables. Correlation tests were conducted to study the relationship between independent and dependent variables. Correlational research does not involve manipulation of an independent variable, but does study the relationship between one or more independent variables (in this case transformational, transactional, or passive leadership behaviors) and one or more dependent variables (the successful management of enterprise information systems including extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction).

Presentation of Data

Descriptive statistics were calculated on the independent and dependent variables based on the seventy eight completed surveys. The mean and standard deviation for each independent variable are included in Table 4.4. The mean for each characteristic by scale name/behavior was calculated for each independent variable based on a Likert scale of zero through four for each of the forty five questions on the survey. Answers on the Likert scale included the following choices: 0 = not at all, 1 = once in a while, 2 = sometimes, 3 = fairly often, and 4 = frequently, if not always. The lowest mean for all independent variables was 0.4885 for the characteristic of passive/laissez-faire and the highest mean was 3.4538 for the characteristic of transformational/individualized consideration. The standard deviations for each characteristic are also included. The smallest standard deviation is 0.4866 and the largest is 0.970. All standard deviations are < 1 meaning they are close to the mean with small population variability.

Table 4.4
Descriptive Statistics - All Independent Variables

Behavior	Characteristic	Scale Name	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Builds Trust	Transformational	Idealized Attributes	78	3.1090	0.6192
Acts with Integrity	Transformational	Idealized Behaviors	78	3.2218	0.5266
Encourages Others	Transformational	Inspirational Motivation	78	3.2833	0.5751
Encourages Innovation	Transformational	Intellectual Stimulation	78	3.2577	0.5814
Coaches & Develops People	Transformational	Individualized Consideration	78	3.4538	0.4866
Rewards Achievement	Transactional	Contingent Reward	78	3.3385	0.5511
Monitors Deviations & Mistakes	Transactional	Management by Exception - Active	78	1.815	0.970
Fights Fires	Passive	Management by Exception - Passive	78	0.6167	0.5317
Avoids Involvement	Passive	Laissez-faire	78	0.4885	0.5620

The dependent variables include the three outcomes of leaderships. The three outcomes of leadership in this study were extra effort (increases others' desire to succeed), effectiveness (effectively leads and meets the needs of others), and satisfaction (practices satisfying leadership methods). The same descriptive statistics calculated for the independent variables were also calculated for the dependent variables and are included in Table 4.5. The mean ranges from 3.0731 to 3.3974. The standard deviations are all less than one and range from 0.4811 to 0.6330.

Table 4.5

Descriptive Statistics - All Dependent Variables

Behavior	Characteristic	Scale Name	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Heightens others' desire to succeed/try harder	*Outcome of Leadership	Extra Effort	78	3.0731	0.6330
Leads effective groups/effectively meets needs of others	*Outcome of Leadership	Effectiveness	78	3.4385	0.4811
Uses satisfying leadership methods	*Outcome of Leadership	Satisfaction	78	3.3974	0.5427

Note: *The outcomes of leadership are not Leadership styles, they are results or outcomes of leadership behavior.

Correlation was used to measure the relationships between variables in this study. The significance level used in this study was 0.05. Therefore, a probability value (P-value) less than or equal to 0.05 (the significance level) in this study resulted in rejection of the null hypothesis indicating a statistically significant relationship. Table 4.6 displays the correlation value and the probability value for the transformational scale names and each dependent variable.

Table 4.6
Characteristic: Transformational (n=78)

Scale Name	Behavior	Outcome	Outcome	Outcome
		Extra Effort	Effectiveness	Satisfaction
Idealized Attributes	Builds Trust	$r = 0.525$ *** $p \leq 0.001$	$r = 0.544$ *** $p \leq 0.001$	$r = 0.559$ *** $p \leq 0.001$
Idealized Behaviors	Acts with Integrity	$r = 0.624$ *** $p \leq 0.001$	$r = 0.689$ *** $p \leq 0.001$	$r = 0.615$ *** $p \leq 0.001$
Inspirational Motivation	Encouraged Others	$r = 0.602$ *** $p \leq 0.001$	$r = 0.576$ *** $p \leq 0.001$	$r = 0.560$ *** $p \leq 0.001$
Intellectual Stimulation	Encourages Innovation	$r = 0.629$ *** $p \leq 0.001$	$r = 0.493$ *** $p \leq 0.001$	$r = 0.400$ *** $p \leq 0.001$
Individual Consideration	Coaches and Develops People	$r = 0.537$ *** $p \leq 0.001$	$r = 0.679$ *** $p \leq 0.001$	$r = 0.550$ *** $p \leq 0.001$

Note. $p \leq 0.001$ *** (correlation is significant at the 0.001 level).

The data of the five scale names included in the transformational leadership characteristic were averaged together to create Table 4.7. Table 4.7 displays the correlation and probability level for the average of all five transformational leadership scale names and each outcome or dependent variable.

Table 4.7 Characteristic

Average of all 5 I's of Transformational Leadership (n=78)

Scale Name	Behavior	Outcome	Outcome	Outcome
		Extra Effort	Effectiveness	Satisfaction
Idealized Attributes Idealized Behaviors Inspirational Motivation Intellectual Stimulation Individual Consideration	Average of all	$r = 0.715$ *** $p \leq 0.001$	$r = 0.726$ *** $p \leq 0.001$	$r = 0.644$ *** $p \leq 0.001$

Note. $p \leq 0.001$ *** (correlation is significant at the 0.001 level).

The transactional leadership characteristics include the two behaviors of contingent reward and management by exception (active). The correlations and probability levels for these characteristics and the dependent variables are displayed in Table 4.8. The p-values for management by exception (active) are not < .001 in this table.

Table 4.8 Characteristic

Transactional (n=78)

Scale Name	Behavior	Outcome	Outcome	Outcome
		Extra Effort	Effectiveness	Satisfaction
Contingent Reward	Rewards Achievement	$r = 0.485$ *** $p \leq 0.001$	$r = 0.615$ *** $p \leq 0.001$	$r = 0.435$ *** $p \leq 0.001$
Management by Exception (Active)	Monitors Deviations and Mistakes	$r = 0.075$ $p = 0.517$	$r = 0.063$ $p = 0.583$	$r = 0.015$ $p = 0.894$

Note. $p \leq 0.001$ *** (correlation is significant at the 0.001 level).

The passive leadership characteristics include management by exception (passive) and laissez-faire and are included in Table 4.9. The correlation and probability level for each passive leadership characteristic are also included. The p-values are not < .001 in this table for five of the six correlations.

Table 4.9 Characteristic

Passive (n=78)

Scale Name	Behavior	Outcome Extra Effort	Outcome Effectiveness	Outcome Satisfaction
Management by Exception (Passive)	Fights Fires	$r = 0.262$ $p = 0.021$	$r = 0.122$ $p = 0.288$	$r = 0.179$ $p = 0.118$
Laissez-faire	Avoids Involvement	$r = -0.297$ $p = 0.009$	$r = -0.298$ $p = 0.009$	$r = -0.404$ *** $p \leq 0.001$

Note. $p \leq 0.001$ *** (correlation is significant at the 0.001 level).

Upon performing tests of normality on the data, it was noted the behaviors of rewards achievement under the transactional characteristic and avoids involvement under the passive characteristic did not distribute normally. The data related to rewards achievement contained two outliers that fell into the category of low extremes. The data related to avoids achievement contained one outlier that fell into the category of high extreme. In an attempt to make the data approximate normal distribution, the extremes were removed and the correlation was recalculated. The calculations resulted in slightly increased correlations for rewards achievement and a slightly improved negative correlation for avoids involvement. These results are included in tables 4.8 and 4.9 respectively.

Analysis of Data

Table 4.3 displays descriptive statistics for all independent variables in this study. The five transformational behaviors have means that range from 3.1090 to 3.4538 on a scale of zero through four. A three on the scale indicates the behavior is performed *fairly often* and a four indicates the behavior is performed *frequently, if not always*. The results indicate consistency

among these five transformational behaviors being performed *fairly often* to *frequently, if not always*. The standard deviations indicate small variations in the population as variance from the mean ranges from 0.4866 to 0.6192.

The behaviors related to the characteristic of transactional leadership included contingent reward and management by exception (active). The mean for contingent reward (rewarding achievement) was 3.3385 indicating this behavior was performed slightly more than fairly often (a 3 on the Likert scale). The standard deviation was 0.5511 and the range was from 1.5 to 4. This is very similar to the transformational characteristic results with a small population variance. The second transactional characteristic of management by exception (active), however, had a mean of 1.815. This indicates respondents perform this behavior on average a little less than sometimes. This behavior had the highest standard deviation indicating the largest spread from the mean (0.970). The minimum in this instance was 0 and the maximum was 3.80 indicating this behavior was not performed at all by some respondents and was rarely performed frequently or always. These numbers are not surprising as this type of behavior would be expected to be performed less by successful managers. Monitoring mistakes and deviations is not a behavior these HIM leaders associate with successful leadership.

The behaviors related to the characteristics of passive leadership include management by exception (passive) and Laissez-faire (avoiding involvement). The average score on the Likert scale for management by exception (passive) was 0.6167 which is slightly over the half-way mark between *not at all* and *once in a while*. The mean for Laissez-faire was slightly below the half-way point between *not at all* and *once in a while*. Both behaviors had similar standard deviations to the transformational behaviors, 0.5317 and 0.5620 respectively indicating a relatively small spread from the mean. Table 4.5 displays the dependent variables or outcomes

of leadership behaviors in a descriptive fashion. All outcomes (extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction) had an average score between 3.0731 and 3.4385. The highest mean was associated with effectiveness. Effectiveness in this case involves the ability to lead an effective group and effectively meet the needs of others. However, all behaviors were indicated as being performed by respondents on average *fairly often* to *frequently, if not always*. The standard deviations were relatively small (0.4811 – 0.6330) indicating small population variability.

Each research hypothesis described in the first chapter of this study was addressed as it related to each leadership styles and each outcome of leadership.

Research Hypothesis One: Transformational Leadership. There is a significant relationship between transformational leadership styles (idealized attributes, idealized behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration) and the successful management (extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction) of enterprise information systems. Table 4.6 displays the correlations for the transformational behaviors of leaders and the outcomes of leadership. This table indicates the relationship between transformational leadership and successful management. There are five behaviors associated with transformational leadership in this study and each will be discussed separately as it relates to each outcome of leadership. A correlation was calculated for each of the five independent variables and each of the three outcomes of leadership and those values as well as the probability levels are reported on Table 4.6. As mentioned previously, a significance level of 0.05 is commonly used by researchers and is the level used in this study as well. Correlation was used in this study to measure the relationship between two variables. The standard of a number between -0.5 and -1 was used for a negative correlation and a number between 0.5 and 1 was used for a positive correlation.

A Pearson's correlation coefficient examining idealized attributes and extra effort was significant; r (78) = 0.525, p = $\leq$ 0.001. The correlation examining idealized attributes and effectiveness was significant; r (78) = 0.544, $p \leq$ 0.001. The correlation examining idealized attributes and satisfaction was significant; r (78) = 0.559, $p \leq$ 0.001. All correlations are significant allowing rejection of the null hypothesis for each outcome (extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction). Those leaders that exhibit idealized attributes (build trust) are more likely to be a successful leader related to the leadership outcomes of success in this study.

A Pearson's correlation coefficient examining the second transformational scale, idealized behaviors and extra effort was significant; r (78) = 0.624, $p \leq$ 0.001. The correlation examining idealized behaviors and effectiveness was significant; r (78) = 0.689, $p \leq$ 0.001. The correlation examining idealized behaviors and satisfaction was significant; r (78) = 0.615, $p \leq$ 0.001. All correlations are significant allowing rejection of the null hypothesis for each outcome (extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction). Those leaders that exhibit idealized behaviors (act with integrity) are more likely to be a successful leader related to the leadership outcomes of success in this study.

A Pearson's correlation coefficient examining the third transformational scale, inspirational motivation and extra effort was significant; r (78) = 0.602, $p = \leq$ 0.001. The correlation examining inspirational motivation and effectiveness was significant; r (78) = 0.576, $p \leq$ 0.001. The correlation examining inspirational motivation and satisfaction was significant; r (78) = 0.560, $p \leq$ 0.001. All correlations are significant allowing rejection of the null hypothesis for each outcome (extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction). Those leaders that exhibit inspirational motivation (encourage others) are more likely to be a successful leader related to the leadership outcomes of success in this study.

A Pearson's correlation coefficient examining intellectual stimulation and extra effort was significant; r (78) = 0.629, p = ≤ 0.001. However, the correlation examining intellectual stimulation and effectiveness was slightly below the cut-off point for indicating significance; r (78) = 0.493, p ≤ 0.001 demonstrating a moderate relationship between intellectual stimulation and being effective or productive. The correlation examining intellectual stimulation and satisfaction was also slightly below the cut-off point for indicating significance r (78) = 0.400, p ≤ 0.001 demonstrating a moderate relationship between intellectual stimulation and satisfaction. Many functions performed in an HIM environment are related to production work and not to innovation. For example, an individual analyzing a medical record in order to apply appropriate diagnostic and procedural codes for reimbursement purposes, may be required to code a specific number of medical records per day. Attention to detail accuracy are essential and may leave no room for innovation in performing this function in this setting. Innovation has not specifically been addressed in HIM textbooks in relation to leadership. It has been typical to address management functions and standards. As noted in LaTour, Eichenwald-Maki, and Oaches (2013) key indicators such as outstanding days in accounts receivable, allow a manager to monitor and act on poor employee performance. The transformational behavior of intellectual stimulation (encourages innovation) and the leadership outcome of generating satisfaction has the lowest correlation (0.400) and is also considered a moderate correlation. A leader in the HIM profession who does not encourage intellectual stimulation or innovation would be less likely to generate satisfaction from others. Although the p-value in both cases is < .001 and the null hypothesis is rejected, the correlation for these two behaviors is moderate.

A Pearson's correlation coefficient examining the last transformational behavior, individual consideration and extra effort was significant; r (78) = 0.537, p = ≤ 0.001. The

correlation examining individual consideration and effectiveness was significant; r (78) = 0.679, $p \leq 0.001$. The correlation examining individual consideration and satisfaction was significant; r (78) = 0.550, $p \leq 0.001$. All correlations are significant allowing rejection of the null hypothesis for each outcome (extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction). Those leaders that exhibit individualized consideration (coach and develop people) are more likely to be a successful leader related to the leadership outcomes of success in this study.

Research Hypothesis Two: Transactional Leadership. There is a relationship between transactional leadership styles (contingent reward and management by exception – active) and the successful management (extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction) of enterprise information systems. Table 4.8 displays the correlations and probability values for the two transactional leadership behaviors, contingent reward and management by exception (active). As mentioned previously, rewards achievement data did not distribute normally. Table 4.8 displays the recalculated data with the outliers removed resulting in a more normal distribution and is used for this data analysis.

A Pearson's correlation coefficient examining contingent reward and extra effort was very close to significant; r (78) = 0.485, p = ≤ 0.001. The correlation examining contingent reward and effectiveness was significant; r (78) = 0.615, $p \leq 0.001$. The correlation examining contingent reward and satisfaction was close to significant; r (78) = 0.435, $p \leq 0.001$. All correlations are significant or very close to significant and probability values are less than or equal to 0.001 allowing rejection of the null hypothesis for each outcome (extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction). Those leaders that exhibit contingent reward behaviors (reward achievement) are more likely to be an effective leaders related to the leadership outcomes of success in this study.

A Pearson's correlation coefficient examining management by exception (active) and extra effort, however, was not significant; r (78) = 0.075, p = 0.517. The correlation examining management by exception and effectiveness was not significant; r (78) = 0.063, p = *0.583*. The correlation examining management by exception and satisfaction was also not significant; r (78) = 0.015, p = 0.894. None of the correlations were significant indicating the null hypothesis for each outcome (extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction) could not be rejected. Those leaders that exhibit management by exception (active) behaviors (monitor deviations and mistakes) are not likely to be an effective leaders related to the leadership outcomes of success in this study. Although rewarding achievement may indicate a more effective leader (moderate to high correlation), monitoring mistakes does not result in more effective leadership.

Research Hypothesis Three: Passive Leadership. There is a relationship between passive leadership styles (management by exception – passive and laissez-faire) and the successful management (extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction) of enterprise information systems. Table 4.9 displays the original correlations and probability values for the passive leadership behaviors and outcomes of leadership. As previously mentioned, the data for avoids involvement did not distribute normally and the outlier was removed and the correlation value recalculated. This recalculation resulted in a more normal distribution with negative correlation values and this data was used for the analysis in this study.

A Pearson's correlation coefficient examining management by exception (passive) and extra effort was not significant; r (78) = 0.262, p = 0.021. The correlation examining management by exception (passive) and effectiveness was not significant; r (78) = 0.122, p = *0.288*. The correlation examining management by exception (passive) and satisfaction was not significant; r (78) = 0.179, p = 0.118. None of the correlations were significant and the null

hypothesis for each outcome (extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction) was not able to be rejected. Those leaders that exhibit management by exception (passive) (fight fires) are not likely to be successful leaders related to the leadership outcomes of success in this study.

A Pearson's correlation coefficient examining laissez-faire and extra effort was not significant; r (78) = -0.297, p = 0.009. The correlation examining laissez-faire and effectiveness was not significant; r (78) = -0.298, p = 0.009. The correlation examining laissez-faire and satisfaction resulted in a moderately significant negative correlation; r (78) = -0.404, $p \leq 0.001$. The null hypotheses cannot be *r*ejected for laissez-faire and extra effort or for laissez-faire and effectiveness. Leaders that exhibit laissez-faire (avoid involvement) behaviors are not likely to be successful leaders related to the leadership outcomes of success in this study for extra effort or effectiveness. The moderate negative correlation between laissez-faire leader behaviors and satisfaction of employees indicates a leader who is not involved results in less satisfied followers.

Summary

As stated above, all transformational and one transactional leadership behavior were chosen consistently often on average as compared to the other transactional and both passive behaviors. All respondents considered the three outcomes of successful leadership as being performed consistently often on average as well.

The independent variables related to the transformational leadership behaviors were chosen on average as being performed between a three and a four on the Likert scale of zero through 4 indicating these behaviors occurring between *fairly often* to *frequently, if not always* by respondents. The standard deviation indicated these scores to be close to the mean. One

transactional leadership behavior (rewards achievement) was indicated as being performed slightly more than *fairly often*. The other transactional behavior (monitoring mistakes) was indicated as being performed slightly less than *sometimes* by HIM leaders with standard deviations fairly close to the mean. Both passive leadership behaviors (fighting fires and avoiding involvement) were indicated as occurring less than *once in a while* by HIM managers with standard deviations close to the mean. The behaviors associated with transformational leadership were chosen by respondents as being performed much more often than transactional behaviors. Behaviors associated with passive leadership were chosen least by HIM leaders.

The dependent variables related to the outcomes of leadership behavior were chosen as being performed slightly over *fairly often* to slightly under *frequently, if not always* by respondents. The highest score was 3.4385 for effectively leading a group and meeting the needs of others, followed by using satisfying leadership methods (3.3974), and heightening others' desire to succeed or try harder (3.0731). All were fairly close to the mean (standard deviation 0.4811 to 0.6330).

Based on the statistical analysis, this research allows for rejection of null hypothesis one and conclusion of a significant relationship between transformational leadership styles of HIM professionals and the successful management of enterprise information systems. Null hypothesis two is unable to be rejected with the conclusion there is no correlation between transactional leadership styles of HIM professionals and the successful management of enterprise information systems. Null hypothesis three is also unable to be rejected with the conclusion there is no correlation between passive leadership styles of HIM professionals and the successful management of enterprise information systems.

Chapter Five: Discussion

Introduction

The results of this study will contribute to the limited body of research related to the HIM profession and leadership. The specific focus on transformational, transactional, and passive leadership styles and behaviors that are effective for leaders is new to the HIM profession as a topic of research. The discussion that follows includes a review of the findings as well as the study's limitations and areas for future research.

This research was based on the following research questions: Is there a relationship between transformational leadership styles of HIM professionals and the successful management of enterprise information systems? Is there a relationship between transactional leadership styles of HIM professionals and the successful management of enterprise information systems? Is there a relationship between passive leadership styles of HIM professionals and the successful management of enterprise information systems?

Review of Findings

Findings reported in this study support Avolio and Bass's (2004) conceptual framework of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership in the HIM environment related to enterprise information management. The literature review provided strong pragmatic evidence of transformational leadership being an effective leadership style in numerous different settings and this study supports these findings. The model links leadership style to performance

outcomes which has been supported by the literature and many research studies. The model used includes a full range of leadership styles related to transformational, transactional, and passive leadership and includes the most commonly used measures of these leadership styles. The common measures (or characteristics) of the three types of leadership styles were measured based on survey responses and effective leadership characteristics were identified from those results. The MLQ is able to identify ineffective behaviors as well as effective behaviors and both types were identified in this study. The model used allows for linking each leadership style to expected outcomes of performance. This study was able to determine connections that existed between each outcome and each leadership style as reported by participants. A strong positive relationship exists between the transformational leadership style of HIM leaders in enterprise information management and their view of subordinates' willingness to exert extra effort, perceived leadership effectiveness, and overall satisfaction with the leader.
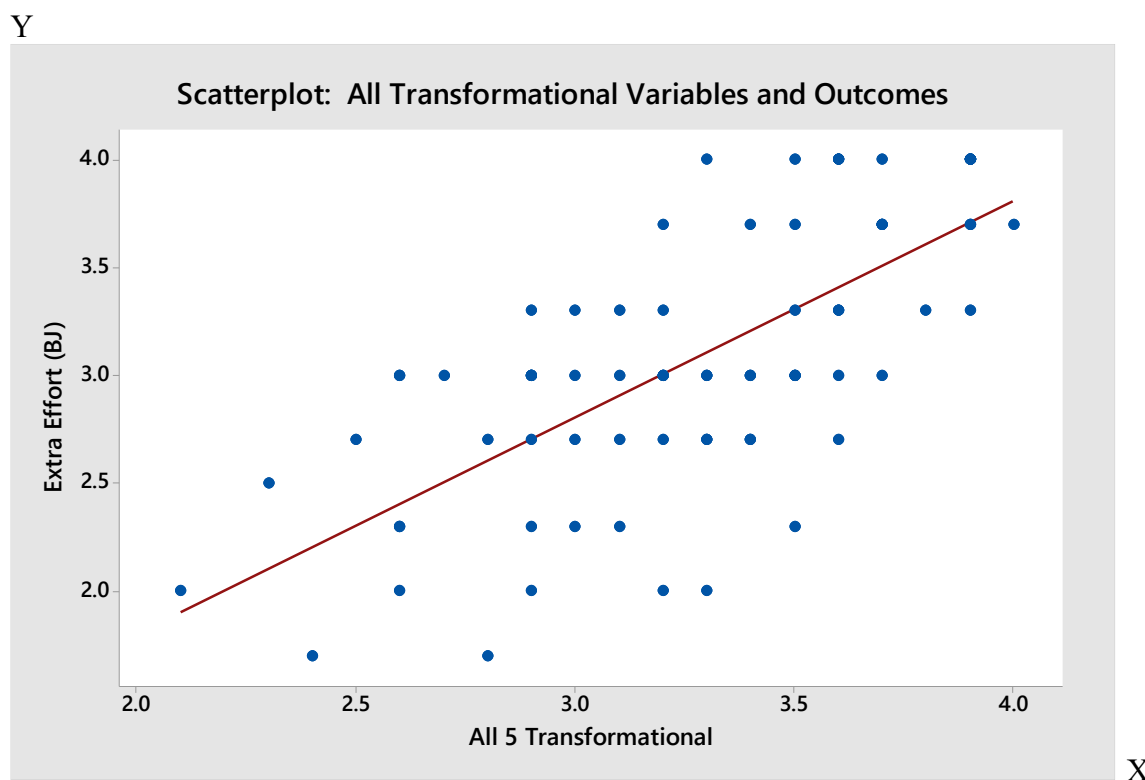
The transformational leadership style had the greatest effect on the outcome variables of extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction in this study. All characteristics of transformational leadership resulted in strong or very strong positive correlations as displayed in Figures 5.1. 5.2, and 5.3 below.

Y
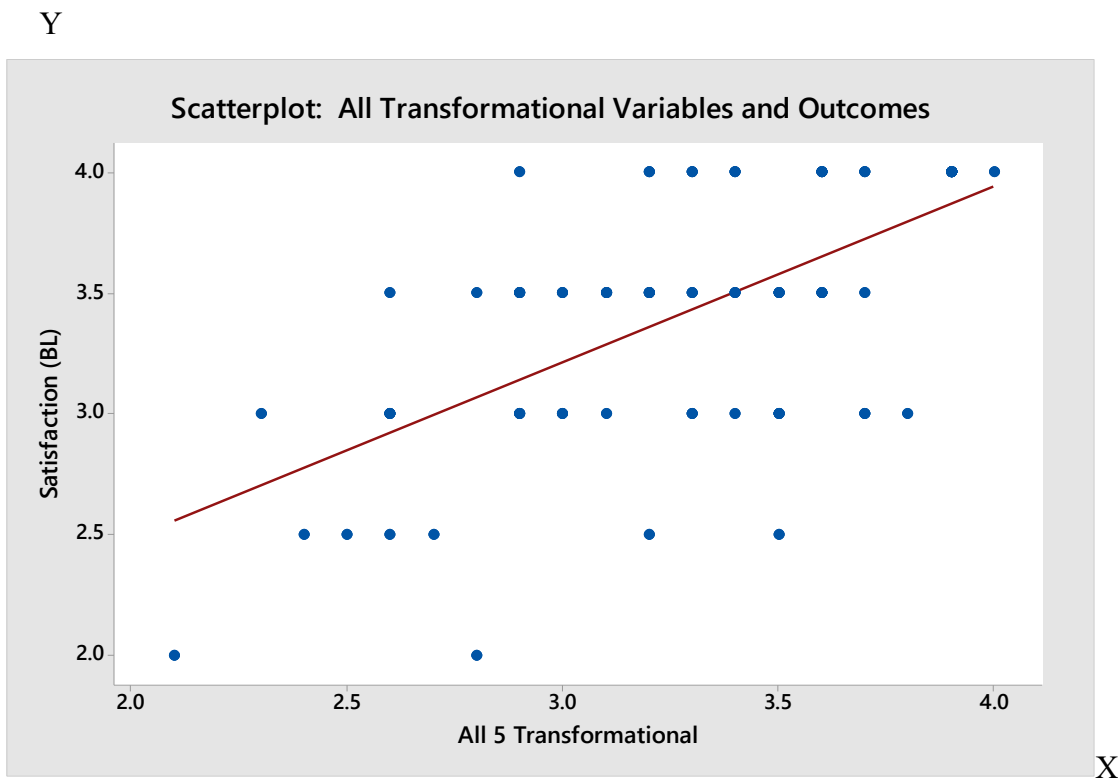
Figure 5.1. Scatterplot – All Transformational Variables and Satisfaction Outcome. This figure displays the correlation between all five characteristics of transformational leadership (independent variables) and the outcomes (dependent variable) of satisfaction.

Y
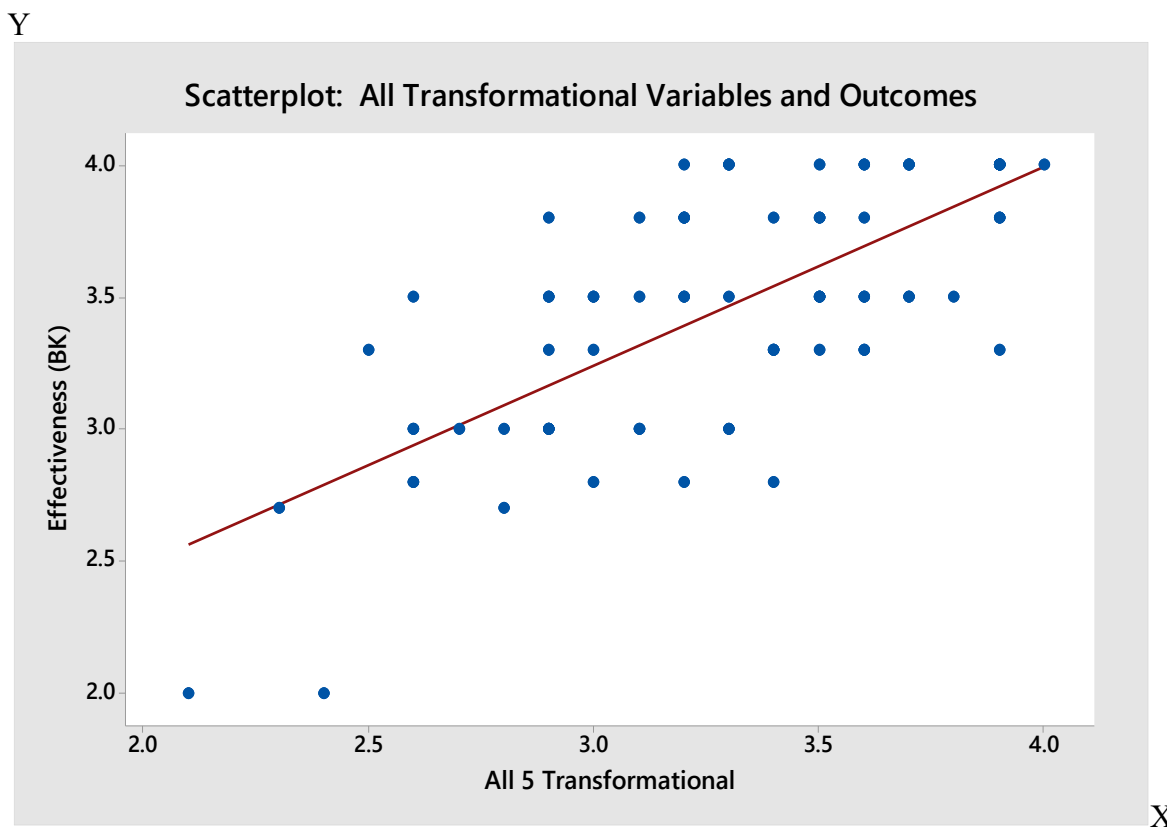
Figure 5.2. Scatterplot – All Transformational Variables and Effectiveness Outcome. This figure displays the correlation between all five characteristics of transformational leadership (independent variables) and the outcome (dependent variable) of effectiveness.

Y

Figure 5.3. Scatterplot – All Transformational Variables and Extra Effort Outcome. This figure displays the correlation between all five characteristics of transformational leadership (independent variables) and the outcome (dependent variable) of extra effort.

The transactional style had a strong to very strong positive correlation for the characteristic of contingent reward but did not have a correlation between transactional leadership style and the characteristic of management by exception (active). Figures 5.4, 5.5, and 5.6 display the relationships between contingent reward and all three outcomes of leadership in this study.

Y
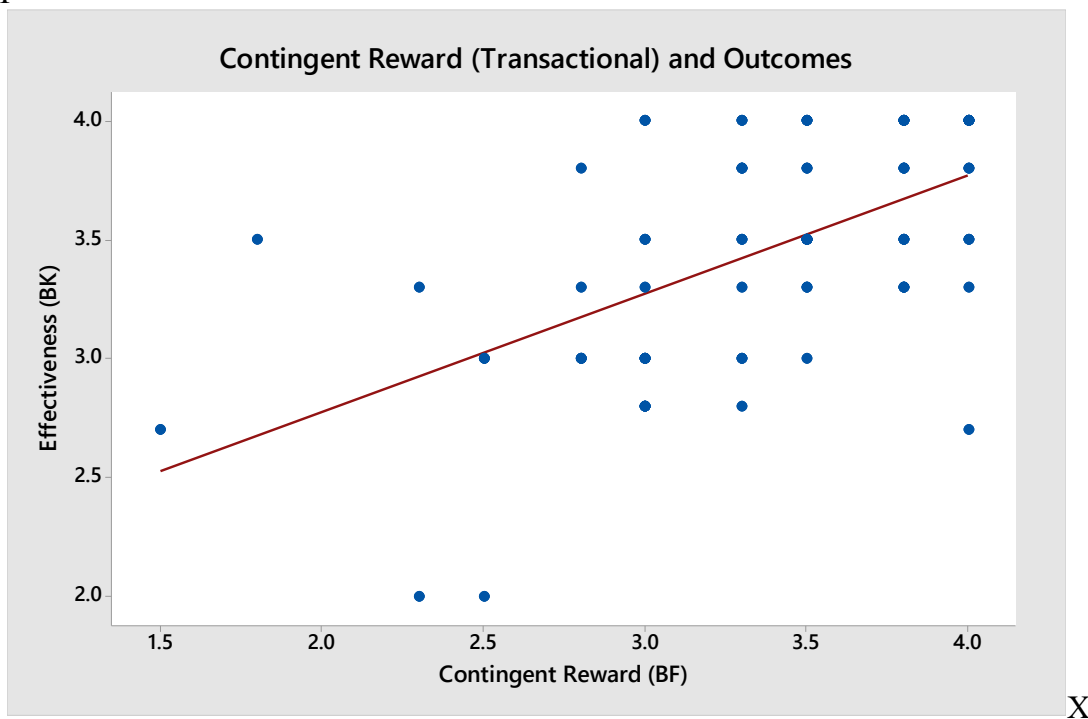
Figure 5.4. Contingent Reward and Effectiveness Outcome. This figure display the correlation between the transactional behavior of contingent reward (independent variable) and the outcome (dependent variable) of effectiveness.

Y

X

Figure 5.5. Contingent Reward and Satisfaction Outcome. This figure display the correlation between the transactional behavior of contingent reward (independent variable) and the outcome (dependent variable) of satisfaction.
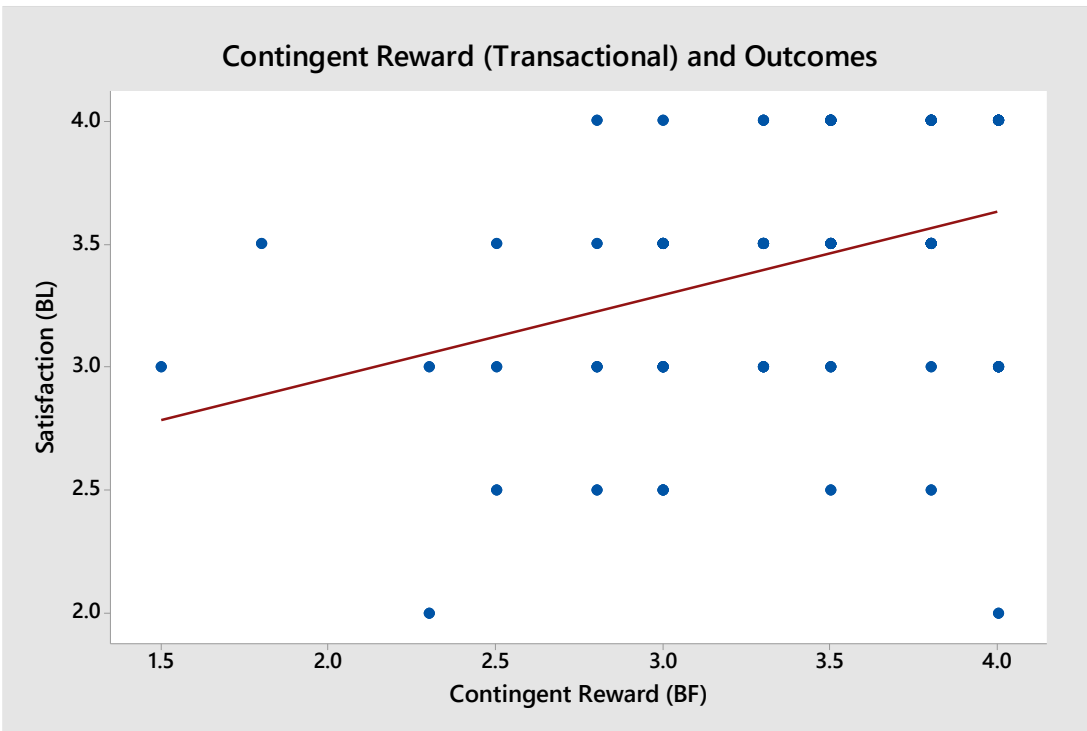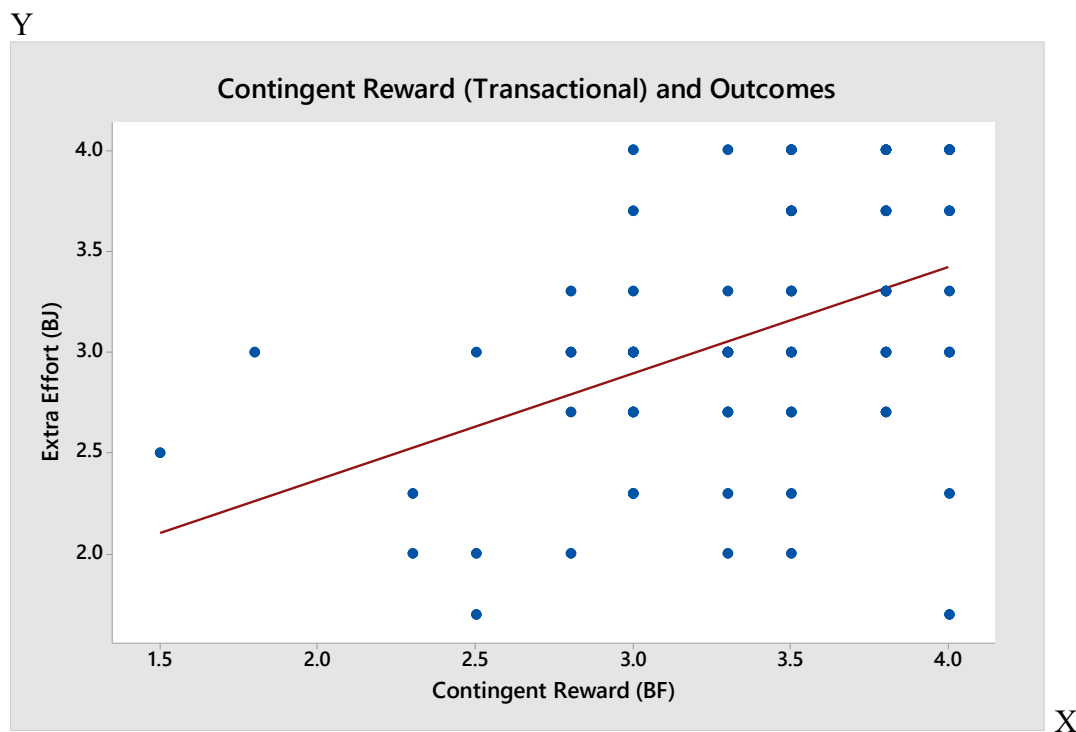
Y

Figure 5.6. Contingent Reward and Extra Effort Outcome. This figure display the correlation between the transactional behavior of contingent reward (independent variable) and the outcome (dependent variable) of extra effort.

The passive style did not have a correlation for either characteristic of management by exception (passive) or laissez-faire and in fact had a negative correlation for the outcomes of extra effort and effectiveness, although this correlation was not significant. It is clear in this sample population the transactional characteristic of contingent reward is viewed as a positive characteristic similarly to all other transformational characteristics. However, the transactional characteristic of management by exception (active) and both passive characteristics of management by exception (passive) and laissez-faire were viewed negatively by this group.

In addressing the first set of study hypotheses (see Table 5.1 below) transformational leadership was shown to have a strong significant positive correlation with leaders providing extra effort, greater effectiveness, and higher levels of job satisfaction. The characteristic of

intellectual stimulation (encourages innovation) had a moderate correlation for the outcomes of effectiveness and satisfaction, however the results allow rejection of the null hypothesis and acceptance of the alternative. The results of this study demonstrate HIM professionals who display transformational leadership related to enterprise information management generate extra effort, are effective, and generating satisfaction of subordinates. HIM professionals that build trust, act with integrity, motivate employees, encourage innovation, and develop employees are more likely to be successful leaders. It is interesting to note here that a moderate relationship existed between encouraging innovation and the outcomes of effectiveness and satisfaction. This would indicate that HIM leaders view innovation as less important than the other behaviors as it relates to their effectiveness and employee satisfaction.

The second set of research hypothesis (see Table 5.1) examined the relationship between the transactional leadership style and the dependent variables of extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction. Empirical analysis had strong results allowing for rejection of the null hypotheses for the characteristic of contingent reward for the outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction. However, the characteristic of management by exception (active) was not within the range for significance for any of the dependent variables of extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction and correlation could not be established. HIM professionals applying enterprise information management principles using the transactional characteristic of contingent reward (rewarding achievement) believe this to produce extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction of subordinates. However, those same individuals do not support the use of the transactional characteristic of management by exception (active) (monitoring deviations and mistakes) to generate the outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction from subordinates.

The relationship between the passive leadership style and the dependent variables of extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction were examined in the third set of research hypothesis (see Table 5.1 below). Pragmatic analysis was not strong and did not support rejection of the null hypothesis.

The characteristic of management by exception (fighting fires) had no correlation for the dependent variables of extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction. HIM leaders that practice passive management by exception do not believe they are viewed as exhibiting extra effort, as being effective, or as satisfying employees. There was a moderate correlation between the passive leadership style and the outcome of generating satisfaction which indicates some HIM leaders believe avoiding involvement results in satisfaction of others. However, the outcomes of extra effort and effectiveness resulted in negative correlations. Although not considered significant, the negative correlations indicates the more a leader avoids involvement, the less they are perceived as exerting extra effort or as being effective as a leader.

Table 5.1

Test Hypotheses

Test Hypothesis	Result
Research Hypothesis 1	
There is a relationship between transformational leadership styles of HIM professionals and the successful management of enterprise information systems.	Accept
Research Hypothesis 2	
There is a relationship between transactional leadership styles of HIM professionals and the successful management of enterprise information systems.	Unable to accept
Research Hypothesis 3	
There is a relationship between passive leadership styles of HIM professionals and the successful management of enterprise information systems.	Unable to accept

Based on the Likert scale responses, the transformational behaviors were indicated as being performed frequently if not always by respondents. The transactional behaviors were indicated as being performed usually or most of the time, while the passive behaviors were indicated as being performed only once in a while or never. In summary, the behaviors associated with transformational leadership were chosen by respondents as being performed much more often than transactional behaviors while behaviors associated with passive leadership were chosen least by HIM leaders.

The dependent variables related to outcomes of leadership behavior (extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction) were chosen as being performed often if not always by

respondents. The highest mean was associated with effectiveness or the ability to lead an effective group and effectively meet the needs of others.

This study expands on the previous work of Bass (1990) and Avolio and Bass (2004) related to transformational leadership and leadership styles including transactional and passive styles. The results of this study can benefit the HIM profession by indicating the behaviors of transformational leadership that result in greater outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction related to enterprise information management. The data analysis resulted in higher correlations for transformational leadership with stronger relationships between transformational leadership and the outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction than transactional and passive leadership styles.

The respondents to the survey indicated the amount of extra effort exhibited by employees, the perceived effectiveness of the leader by employees, and the satisfaction of the leader by employees is greatly dependent on the leader's leadership style.   In this study, transformational leadership style resulted in a relationship with all the outcomes of leadership indicating a statistically significant correlation.

Limitations

Several limitations are present in this study. This study was limited to transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire styles suggested by Avolio and Bass (2004). Measures rely on the leader's perceptions of how their subordinates view them and the perceptions of the outcome variables in this study. These measures are not direct measures and they do not include the perspectives from subordinates, only the self-rating of the leaders. The outcome variables are limited to three (perception of leader effectiveness, perceived satisfaction by subordinates with

the leaders, and perceived extra effort of the leader). The data in this study was collected from specific members of the AHIMA that represent leaders by their position titles and self-declaration. The results of this study may not apply to or represent HIM leaders in enterprise information management that are not members of this organization. The sample size included the geographical region of Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Ohio, and Wisconsin and was limited in that aspect for data collection purposes.

Recommendations for Future Research

Further research is needed in the HIM profession related to leadership and leadership development. Although this study used a quantitative method, a qualitative study would help support the results of this study and development of leadership curriculum or professional development. In addition to using the self-rater form, the rater form (completed by subordinates about their leaders) could be used to also analyze hoe subordinates view their leaders. HIM leaders and professionals play an important role in all health care organizations and their roles are important to all aspects of patient care and organizational effectiveness. HIM professionals have roles in information governance, information protection, informatics – analytics and data use, revenue management, compliance, and leadership (Council for Excellence in Education, 2014). These roles include leader/follower relationships and have an impact on the overall performance of the organization. It is important to be aware of leadership challenges in order to support employees in all roles mentioned and to support the organization overall. In order to address leadership challenges, HIM curriculum needs to include leadership styles and behaviors and organizations need to include professional development related to appropriate and effective leadership styles for HIM leaders.

HIM program curriculum is just beginning to include leadership as a required competency and is making the move from management to leadership. Leadership curriculum currently doesn't include theory or specific leadership behaviors and how those relate to or support the various roles of a leader. This study supports specific leadership styles as being effective for HIM leaders (and some that are not effective) and this should be added to the curriculum related to the specific leadership competencies. For example, under the current leadership curriculum there is a subdomain titled ethics. At the baccalaureate degree level, the objective is to comply with ethical standards of practice. At the graduate degree level, the objective is to create an ethical business culture. In order for an HIM leader to meet these objectives, effective leadership styles should be incorporated into the curriculum that allow professionals to understand different styles needed to meet these objectives. HIM professionals need to be aware of the behaviors that are effective in applying all leadership curriculum mentioned above. Another area of future study might be related to the behavior of encouraging innovation (intellectual stimulation). As was noted, a moderate relationship existed between encouraging innovation and the outcomes of effectiveness and satisfaction. This would indicate that HIM leaders view innovation as less important than the other behaviors as it relates to their effectiveness and employee satisfaction.

This study used the specific competency of enterprise information management, but the results of the study can be applied to every other leadership competency and provides a good starting point for developing effective leaders. Developing effective HIM leaders begins with the addition of specific leadership competencies in the HIM curriculum. Based on the result of this study, professional development opportunities can be developed by HIM professionals and

presented at the organizational level. Presentations related to the study and this topic should be presented by HIM professionals at conferences at local as well as national levels.

Summary and Conclusions

The body of literature related directly to leadership in HIM (specifically enterprise information management) is limited and the results of this study will contribute to this body of knowledge. The focus of leadership in the HIM profession is a new concept. The past competencies in this field focused on management and have only recently expanded to include leadership. The expanded roles of HIM professionals require an understanding of leadership in the curriculum and the workplace.   As organizations continue to recognize leadership as necessary for the effectiveness and success of on organization, studies like this are important, especially in those areas lacking this focus in the past. The focus on leadership development requires resources and failing to provide these resources will cost an organization in several ways. Ineffective leaders in HIM result in unsatisfied employees. An unsatisfied employee won't put forth extra effort and may even put forth effort that is below satisfactory. These employees with not work effectively and will not be satisfied in their employment. All of these factors will affect the bottom line of an organization whether manifested in low morale, poor work ethic, absenteeism, or poor work product. Since the roles of HIM professionals are related to the financial status of the organization and to the quality of care provided to patients, resources used to develop effective leaders will benefit employees, patients, and the overall organization.

The results of this study indicate HIM leaders working with enterprise information use transformational, transactional, and passive leadership styles, however, it also confirms the

conceptual framework of Avolio and Bass (2004) related to transformational leadership. The participants in this study indicated leaders demonstrating transformational leadership behaviors effect employee's willingness to exert extra effort, perception of effectiveness of their leader, and satisfaction of their leader. The results of this study support the inclusion of leadership in HIM curriculum, especially related to the styles in this study.

This research adds to the HIM leadership body of knowledge and offers insights into leadership styles that are effective in this profession. HIM professionals that are satisfied in their roles and with their leadership will be more effective and be willing to put forth extra effort to accomplish goals and tasks. These HIM professionals will contribute to the overall effectiveness of the organization. HIM curriculum need to expand to include a focus on transformational leadership behaviors to develop professionals that are more effective in their roles and help support effective organizations.

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Appendix A

Criteria used in Participant Selection

1. Professional Credential (must have RHIA, may have any of the other credentials)
    a. RHIA
    b. RHIT
    c. CHDA
    d. CHPS
    e. CDIP
    f. CHTS
    g. CPHI
    h. CCA
    i. CCS
    j. CCS-P
2. Highest degree obtained
    a. Master's (as a minimum)
    b. Doctorate
3. Job level category (included all of the following)
    a. Executive/President/Vice President
    b. Director/Officer
    c. Manager/Supervisor
    d. Consultant
4. Job setting
    a. Acute Care Hospital
    b. Health Care Delivery System
5. Geographic Region (any of the following)
    a. Michigan
    b. Wisconsin
    c. Ohio
    d. Indiana
    e. Illinois

Appendix B

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Sample

Developed by Bernard Bass and Bruce Avolio

(Modified by this author to include the first three questions for research applicability)

1. I have been actively engaged in ensuring the value of information assets.
    (1=Yes, 2=No)
2. I have been actively engaged in ensuring an organization wide perspective of information management functions.
    (1=Yes, 2=No)
3. I have been actively engaged in structures, policies, processes, technology, and controls related to enterprise information management.
    (1=Yes, 2=No)

Definitions

Enterprise information management definition: "Ensuring the value of information

assets, requiring an organization wide perspective of information management functions;

it calls for explicit structures, policies, processes, technology, and controls" (Oachs &

Waters, 2016, p. 1002).

MLQ Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire^{TM}

**by Bruce Avolio and Bernard
Bass**

Leader Form (5x-Short)

My Name:_____Date:_____

_____ Organization ID #:_____Leader ID

#:   _____

This questionnaire is to describe your leadership style as you perceive it. Please answer all items on this answer sheet. **If an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank.**

Forty-five descriptive statements are listed on the following pages. Judge how frequently each statement fits you. The word "others" may mean your peers, clients, direct reports, supervisors, and/or all of these individuals.

Use the following rating scale:

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
0	1	2	3	4

1. I provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts 0 1 2 3 4

2. I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate 0 1 2 3 4

3. I fail to interfere until problems become serious.. 0 1 2 3 4

4. I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards 0 1 2 3 4

5. I avoid getting involved when important issues arise.. 0 1 2 3 4

6. I talk about my most important values and beliefs.. 0 1 2 3 4

7. I am absent when needed... 0 1 2 3 4

8. I seek differing perspectives when solving problems.. 0 1 2 3 4

9. I talk optimistically about the future... 0 1 2 3 4

10. I instill pride in others for being associated with me 0 1 2 3 4

11. I discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets 0 1 2 3 4

12. I wait for things to go wrong before taking action.. 0 1 2 3 4

13. I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.. 0 1 2 3 4

14. I specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose 0 1 2 3 4

15. I spend time teaching and coaching... 0 1 2 3 4

16. I make clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved............... 0 1 2 3 4

17. I show that I am a firm believer in "If it ain't broke, don't fix it." 0 1 2 3 4

18. I go beyond self-interest for the good of the group 0 1 2 3 4

19. I treat others as individuals rather than just as a member of a group...................................... 0 1 2 3 4

20. I demonstrate that problems must become chronic before I take action 0 1 2 3 4

21. I act in ways that build others' respect for me 0 1 2 3 4

22. I concentrate my full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures 0 1 2 3 4

23. I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions.. 0 1 2 3 4

24.	I keep track of all mistakes	0	1	2	3	4
25.	I display a sense of power and confidence	0	1	2	3	4
26.	I articulate a compelling vision of the future	0	1	2	3	4
27.	I direct my attention toward failures to meet standards	0	1	2	3	4
28.	I avoid making decisions	0	1	2	3	4
29.	I consider an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others	0	1	2	3	4
30.	I get others to look at problems from many different angles	0	1	2	3	4
31.	I help others to develop their strengths	0	1	2	3	4
32.	I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments	0	1	2	3	4
33.	I delay responding to urgent questions	0	1	2	3	4
34.	I emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission	0	1	2	3	4
35.	I express satisfaction when others meet expectations	0	1	2	3	4
36.	I express confidence that goals will be achieved	0	1	2	3	4
37.	I am effective in meeting others' job-related needs	0	1	2	3	4
38.	I use methods of leadership that are satisfying	0	1	2	3	4
39.	I get others to do more than they expected to do	0	1	2	3	4
40.	I am effective in representing others to higher authority	0	1	2	3	4
41.	I work with others in a satisfactory way	0	1	2	3	4
42.	I heighten others' desire to succeed	0	1	2	3	4
43.	I am effective in meeting organizational requirements	0	1	2	3	4
44.	I increase others' willingness to try harder	0	1	2	3	4
45.	I lead a group that is effective	0	1	2	3	4

Appendix C

Email Request to Participate and Consent

Dear Survey Participants,

AHIMA has reviewed and approved a request to distribute the following invitation to participate in an HIM-related research study titled Health Information Leadership Styles in Enterprise Information Management. This survey is being distributed on behalf of Linda Sorensen, RHIA and HIM educator seeking a doctoral degree for which this research is required.

Benefits: *Although you may not directly benefit from being in this study, others may benefit because the results may be used to determine the most effective leadership style related to enterprise information management and may also be used to develop curriculum for health information management educational programs.*

Risks and Discomforts*: There are no risks associated with this study because the data collection is completely anonymous and the topic is not sensitive.*

Confidentiality: *The results of this study will be published or presented, but will not include any information that would identify you. There are some reasons why people other than the researchers may need to see information you provided as part of the study. This includes organizations responsible for making sure the research is done safely and properly such as the Dearborn IRB.*

To keep your information safe, the researchers will not share any identifying details beyond what is mentioned above.

Voluntary nature of the study *Participating in this study is completely voluntary. Even if you decide to participate now, you may change your mind and stop at any time. If you decide to withdraw early, any information submitted by you will be permanently deleted/destroyed and will not be included in the results of the study. If you choose to withdraw, simply close the browser window before you click the submit button.*

Contact Information: *If you have questions about this research, including questions about scheduling or your compensation for participating, you may contact Linda Sorensen at slinda@umich.edu or Dr. Bonnie Beyer at beyer@umich.edu.*

*The survey takes approximately **10** minutes to complete. It consists of 48 items on 6 pages. Please click the link to begin the survey.*

https://transform.mindgarden.com/survey/26433/ef0

This study HUM#00145551 was approved by the University of Michigan-Dearborn IRB on April 24, 2018.

Thank you for participating in this research study!

Warm regards,
Desla Mancilla, DHA, RHIA
Vice-President, Academic Affairs and Certification
On behalf of Linda Sorensen, RHIA, CHPS

Health Information Leadership Styles in Enterprise Information Management

Section 1

The University of Michigan - Dearborn IRB has reviewed this study and determined that it is Exempt from IRB oversight. By continuing, I confirm that I am a legal adult in the state where I live and that I agree to participate in the study.

Appendix D

Thank you and Additional Email

Thank you found at the end of every survey:

Health Information Leadership Styles in Enterprise Information Management

Thank you for completing the Health Information Leadership Styles in Enterprise Information Management survey.
For technical assistance, contact us.

Addition added to second email sent:

Please participate in this important research. This research is extremely important to the progression and future of the HIM profession and can't be completed without your generous participation. If you began the survey and were not able to complete it, please take a few minutes to do so. If you have already completed and submitted your survey, thank you! Your time is much appreciated. Many thanks!

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