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Cultivating an engaged workforce: The roles of leader personality, motivation, and leadership style

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Cultivating an Engaged Workforce: The Roles of Leader Personality, Motivation, and
Leadership Style

by

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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
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Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation, and the many long hours spent on it, to my wonderful parents, Ed and Jean Zulch. This would never have been possible without your support and encouragement along the way. There are no words to express my love and gratitude.

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Abstract

This study explored the links between leadership style, leader personality, and motivation to lead, with employee engagement. Transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and abusive supervision styles were examined in relation to levels of employee engagement via a sample of $n=195$ employees and $n=130$ managers. Consistent with findings from Christian, Garza, and Slaughter (2011), transformational leadership showed a positive link to employee engagement ($r= .38, p< .05$). On the opposite end, abusive supervision was negatively related to employee engagement ($r= -.27, p< .05$). Contingent reward leadership showed a positive link to employee engagement ($r= .32, p< .05$).

Relationships between personality and leadership style were framed according to the socioanalytic framework (Hogan & Shelton, 1998). This study did not find any significant differences in the relationships between the expected leadership behaviors and the traits directed at “getting along” with others vs. “getting ahead” to achieve power and status. Motivation to lead (Chan & Drasgow, 2001) was expected to moderate the relationships between leader personality and leadership style; however, these predictions were not supported in this study. Future directions for research, including other individual difference variables that may predict leadership styles, are discussed.

Chapter I

Introduction

An organization's success is determined largely by the quality of its leaders. Leaders decide not only which financial and business strategies to adopt, but they also set the vision, values, and culture of the organization. It is with this latter group of responsibilities that organizational psychology can contribute valuable insight into the antecedents and processes that maximize organizational effectiveness. The manner in which leaders interact with subordinates can profoundly enhance or diminish important outcomes like employee satisfaction, commitment to the organization, productivity, performance, and turnover. Managers need to help every employee at all levels of the organization understand and buy into the larger goals of the firm. Those who can inspire, motivate, and develop their employees see better performance and lower turnover rates in their staff. Further, employees are more likely to go above and beyond their job requirements when they believe in the goals and mission articulated by their leaders. For these reasons, management styles characterized by behaviors meant to support, inspire, and bring people together are the most advantageous and valuable to organizations. Conversely, when employees lack trust in their leaders and do not understand the importance of their team's goals and mission, they will not be motivated to exert discretionary effort. Poor leadership can cause employees to disengage from their work and seek alternative employment options.

A leader's ability to help employees understand and buy into their leader's vision for the future is a primary marker of successful leadership. This builds a sense of emotional attachment to their work and the organization, similar to affective commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Increasing organizational commitment results in a decrease of employee turnover, saving the organization time and money associated with lost productivity, hiring costs, and training costs (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974). Additionally, when employees feel that what they are doing is important they are more likely to go above and beyond their job requirements in order to help achieve success. Examples of these organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) include doing more work than required, supporting and helping coworkers beyond what is required, and helping the corporate image outside of work (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983).

Employee Engagement

More recently, the psychological state called employee engagement has gained attention from researchers and practitioners alike. Employee engagement surveys are a growing practice among organizations today because they help to assess the opinions and attitudes of employees and provide insight to the extent to which employees are motivated to engage in behaviors that the organization desires (e.g., exerting extra effort, committing to stay with the organization, and demonstrating citizenship behaviors). However, there is still a great deal of variability in how engagement is conceptualized and operationalized both in academic research and organizational surveys.

Employee engagement was first defined by Kahn (1990) as the harnessing of the work role to the self-identity and involves using physical, cognitive, and emotional personal energy during work performance. May, Gilson, and Harter (2004) validated a

measure that included these three components of psychological engagement. The result was a 13 item engagement survey that showed acceptable reliability and a fair balance of the physical, cognitive, and emotional components of engagement. Principal components factor analysis did not support each of these components as separate factors and the researchers concluded that the measure should be used intact rather than interpreting subscale scores.

Bakker and Schaufeli (2008) outline three distinct operationalizations of employee engagement by organizations and researchers. First, engagement can be measured by the existence of supportive and motivational resources such as development opportunities, supportive behaviors from managers and coworkers, and access to materials. The Gallup Q12 survey is an example of this type of measure of “drivers of engagement”, and includes items around perceptions of growth and development opportunities, coworker support, feeling valued and respected, satisfaction with employer, and feeling inspired by the organizational mission. Bakker and Schaufeli note a second conceptualization of employee engagement that centers on mental presence in work tasks, commitment to the organization’s mission and goals, and a willingness to exert extra effort to achieve success. This conceptualization focuses more on behaviors and the outcomes of psychological states and affect. The third approach conceptualizes employee engagement as positive affect toward the organization and a state of work-related well-being. This last definition differs from the previous two in that engagement is defined without reference to organizational drivers or outcomes of psychological engagement. This approach is reflected in Schaufeli, Bakker, and Salanova’s (2006)

measure of engagement which includes items on vigor, dedication, and absorption at work.

Macey and Schneider (2008) proposed a different framework for organizing engagement measures. They proposed that true operationalizations of engagement reflected one (or more) of three conceptually distinct types of engagement: state, trait, or behavioral engagement. State engagement is described as affective in nature, and entails self-involvement in work including notions of absorption, alertness, passion, pride, and energy. State engagement was noted to be related to other work-related attitudes, such as job satisfaction, but conceptually distinct in the activity level and energy associated with engagement. For example, job satisfaction reflects a degree of passive contentment whereas engagement is more active, invigorating, and fulfilling. The second type of engagement described by Macey and Schneider was trait engagement. Trait engagement is the tendency to experience state engagement and can be viewed as dispositional in nature. Finally, the third type of engagement is behavioral engagement. Behavioral engagement flows from state engagement and includes taking initiative, demonstrating persistence, showing extra effort, and adaptive performance. This type of engagement differs from state and trait engagement as it is observable and action-oriented. State and trait engagement are the internal conditions that are thought to precede behavioral engagement and desirable work behaviors.

Schaufeli, Bakker, and Salanova's (2006) conceptualization of engagement, which is measured with items on absorption, vigor, and dedication, is similar to Macey and Schneider's (2008) state engagement construct. May, Gilson, and Harter's (2004) engagement scale reflects the state and behavioral components of engagement, but does

not address the stable intrapersonal determinants of a predisposition to be engaged at work (i.e., trait engagement). There is not general consensus on which of these approaches may be the most accurate or beneficial for the purpose of predicting organizational effectiveness. Given that most organizations are concerned with reducing costs associated with turnover and increasing productivity and return on human capital investment, surveys that assess commitment and extra effort generally have more appeal to practitioners. Masson, Royal, Agnew, and Fine (2008) note that many HR consulting firms view engagement as encompassing pride, advocacy, commitment, and willingness to exceed performance expectations and chose to measure it in terms of the attitudes and behaviors associated with these aspects. For this research study, I take the position that while some traits and characteristics predispose certain individuals to feel engaged in their work, the daily experience of being engaged in one's work - among those who are predisposed or not - is largely determined by organizational and work factors. Because employees' direct experience of the organizational culture and the meaningfulness of their work are impacted by their supervisor, leaders are expected to play an important role in cultivating employee engagement.

For the purpose of this study, an engaged employee is defined as one who experiences cognitive, emotional, and physical involvement of the self with work activities, performance, and outcomes. Although employee engagement is a younger construct than many other employee attitudes and perceptions, there is still a fair amount of empirical evidence linking it to important outcomes. Specifically, workforce engagement is correlated with increased discretionary effort, task performance, reduced turnover intentions, and, ultimately, improved financial performance (Christian, Garza, &

Slaughter, 2011; Saks, 2006; and Towers Perrin, 2008). While there are other important outcomes that could be used to gauge leader effectiveness, such as team sales revenue, production numbers, or ratings of leader performance; employee engagement is a valuable and appropriate measure of leader interpersonal effectiveness because it is a more proximal outcome of leader behavior and is less prone to interference from other unrelated factors such as the state of the economy, constraints on tools and physical resources, or performance rating errors. As such, the extent to which a leader engages subordinates in their work is a more immediate measure of success. Conversely, a leader who is unable to engage employees and consequently suffers higher turnover rates and poorer performance is ineffective and not a good fit for a leadership role. Because these negative outcomes can be costly and detrimental to the functioning of the organization, selecting effective leaders becomes important to maximize the return on investment in the organization's human capital.

As previously stated, engagement has some overlap with other similar attitudinal constructs. The distinction between this and job satisfaction has been discussed previously. To review, engagement is more proactive and energetic whereas job satisfaction reflects a passive contentment with one's work role. It is also similar to, but broader than, affective commitment, one of three types of commitment employees can feel toward their organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Affective commitment is a positive emotional attachment to the organization and its goals, and a sincere desire to stay with the organization to help achieve those goals. Engagement expands upon this state in that it also encompasses discretionary effort, absorption, and focus. The other two forms of organizational commitment noted by Meyer and Allen are continuance and normative

commitment. Continuance commitment to the organization occurs when the employee perceives a higher cost associated with leaving than with staying with their current employer. Essentially, they will stay with their organization until it becomes cost-effective to leave. Costs considered in this equation include differences in pay, impact to pensions or other accrued benefits, and the social costs of leaving friends at the current workplace. Normative commitment exists when employees feel compelled or obligated to stay with their organization because of moral or ethical reasons. For example, when an employer invests in expensive training for employees, they may decide to stay with their organization because they feel that it would be wrong to leave after receiving valuable training resources. Normative and continuance commitment only result in a temporary reduction in intention to leave the organization, lasting until the perceived debt has been repaid or until another more compelling option arises. Fostering a sense of affective commitment to the organization and its mission will cause employees to want to stay with the organization and work toward achieving stated goals. For a leader to be considered effective, s/he must be able to inspire this emotional attachment and psychological state of engagement. Organizations who seek to identify leaders who are able to foster an engaging work environment are faced with the challenge of properly assessing and predicting which candidates will be the most equipped and likely to succeed in this challenging goal.

Predicting Success as a Leader

Personality

There are multiple tools on the market intended to assess a candidate's potential for success as a leader. Personality tests are particularly common because they are a cost-

effective solution that can be administered online in a non-proctored fashion. Personality tests are thought to predict leader effectiveness through identification of behavioral tendencies that relate to important leadership competencies (e.g., communication, coaching, motivating others). For example, the Hogan Personality Inventory (HPI) aligns the trait *Sociability* to competency in initiating interactions with others, team orientation, and networking (Hogan HPI Certification Workshop Manual). Although the HPI measures seven personality traits, the most commonly accepted model of personality is the five factor model (FFM): Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness, and Agreeableness. Neuroticism is the extent to which an individual tends toward emotional instability, irritability, anxiety, and hostility. It is often measured as its inverse, Emotional Stability. Extraversion refers to the tendency toward gregariousness, energy, activity, and optimism. Openness to Experience refers to creative, insightful, inquisitive, cultural, and free-thinking inclinations. Conscientiousness represents the tendency to be responsible, careful, and self-disciplined. Finally, Agreeableness refers to the tendency to be cooperative, trusting, and conflict-averse.

The seven factor model is based on this approach, but distinguishes important characteristics within two of these traits (Hogan, 1991). Extraversion encompasses gregarious, outgoing behaviors as well as a social dominance and ambition component. The seven factor model distinguishes these two as separate traits (Leadership and Sociability). Openness to Experience encompasses two similar but conceptually distinct traits as well. One reflects a tendency to be curious, inquisitive, and creative (Creativity); the other reflects a tendency to seek and enjoy educational opportunities and a drive toward learning (Quickness).

While controversy remains over whether leadership has a dispositional basis, the most robust evidence for the validity of personality tests for predicting leader effectiveness was found through meta-analysis of over 50 years of personality-leadership research (Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002). Judge, *et al.* reported that personality explained 15% of the variance in leader effectiveness (*multiple R*=.39), with estimated corrected correlations ranging from $\hat{\rho}$ =.16 to .24 for individual traits. Extraversion and Openness to Experience held the strongest relationships at $\hat{\rho}$ =.24. They also found that the setting has a profound effect on these validities, wherein higher situation strength attenuates the effect leader personality has on performance. Specifically, personality traits held the lowest relationships with effectiveness in government/military settings, followed by business settings, with schools showing the strongest relationships. The authors conclude that leader personality is a better predictor of behavior, and thus effectiveness, when behavioral expectations are less clearly defined.

Although the five factor model provides a useful framework for describing personality, the socioanalytic perspective provides theory around why and how personality relates to leadership and work behaviors (Hogan, 1991; Hogan & Holland, 2003). This is based on two fundamental premises: (1) people are motivated to live and work in groups and (2) groups are structured in hierarchies of status. These premises translate into motivations to “get along” with others and to “get ahead” in the social hierarchy. The drive to get along with others stems from the social nature of civilizations and the benefits of joining forces with other people to accomplish mutually beneficial goals. The drive to get ahead stems from the need to attain status and power to increase access to limited resources and meet one’s personal needs and objectives. Hogan and

Holland (2003) argue that socioanalytic theory can be used to classify criteria as well as personality traits. We see that when behavioral outcomes are theoretically linked with predictors, rather than correlating all personality variables with all outcome variables, higher validity coefficients result. Specifically, in their study, they found that the range of uncorrected correlations when all personality traits were correlated with performance criteria was $r=.00-.19$ (mean $r= .10$); the range of uncorrected correlations for criteria that were theoretically linked to individual traits was $r= .15-.25$ (mean $r= .20$). This research supports and builds on Campbell's (1990) paper recommending that predictors should align with specific dimensions of performance and validity studies should be conducted using more narrow criteria than overall job performance.

Hogan and Holland (2003) characterize the Big 5 factors into the categories of “getting along” and “getting ahead”. They theorize that Emotional Stability, Conscientiousness, and Agreeableness are representative of the drive to get along, to socialize and build relationships. These traits are generally positive indicators of the tendency to be cooperative, interpersonally sensitive, predictable, and reliable. Each of these is likely to bring people closer and help them work collaboratively. Hogan and Holland then theorize that Extraversion, Openness to Experience, and Emotional Stability are reflective of the tendency to be ambitious, confident, and eager to learn and grow; thus representing the drive to get ahead. Note that Emotional Stability was suggested to be useful in predicting behavioral outcomes related to both drives. The two factor model is similar to results found by Digman (1997), in which Emotional Stability, Agreeableness, and Conscientiousness comprised one “superfactor” measuring a tendency toward socialization. The other two traits, Extraversion and Openness to

Experience, also loaded onto a higher order factor. Digman suggested the latter measures the tendency toward personal growth and status attainment.

Given the theoretical and empirical support for the underlying dimensionality representing socialization versus status attainment, this provides a valuable framework for aligning leadership predictors with criteria. Table 1 shows the alignment of the five factor model of personality with the seven factor model used in this study and the two socioanalytic drives. The practice of using theory to link criteria with predictors is not as common in selection research as one would expect. The current study sought to expand on Hogan and Holland's work by relating personality factors to leadership behaviors using socioanalytic theory. In addition to looking at leader personality to predict leadership style, leader motivations play a part in determining how a leader will interact with their employees.

Table 1

*Alignment of Five Factor Model (FFM) with Seven Factor Model (IPIP)
and Socioanalytic Framework*

<u>FFM</u>	<u>IPIP</u>	<u>Socioanalytic</u>
Emotional Stability	Stability	Getting Along
Agreeableness	Friendliness	Getting Along
Conscientiousness	Dutifulness	Getting Along
Extraversion	Sociability	Getting Along
	Leadership	Getting Ahead
Openness to Experience	Creativity	Getting Ahead
	Quickness (in learning)	Getting Ahead

Motivation to Lead

A comprehensive model of antecedents to leadership performance was proposed by Chan and Drasgow (2001). In this model, personality, values, and interests are distal antecedents of leadership performance, whereas self-efficacy, social skills, and motivation to lead (MTL) are the mediators between them. This model is quite complex and includes other moderating variables as well. However, I focus here on those qualities that are most appropriate for assessing and selecting leadership candidates. In their paper, Chan and Drasgow focus on MTL as an important individual difference construct that can be useful in identifying future effective leaders. It is defined as the motivations one has for assuming a leadership role and the amount of effort exerted in carrying out these responsibilities. It is important to note that this construct is conceptualized as relatively stable over time, but can be impacted by experience in leadership roles. As such, it may be an important individual difference to consider when placing job candidates into leadership positions.

In fact, Chan and Drasgow found that MTL is a valid predictor of leadership potential in military recruits from Singapore. In exploring the construct of leader motivation via factor analysis, they identified three dimensions of MTL: social-normative, noncalculative, and affective-identity. High *social-normative* motivation indicates that one will lead out of feelings of social duty or obligation. We see this type of motivation in individuals who step up to leadership roles because they feel that no one else is qualified to do so, or because they know that it is expected of them. High *noncalculative* motivation indicates a lack of concern over the costs and responsibilities associated with leadership roles. In essence, this represents a lack of leadership

avoidance. Finally, individuals with high *affective-identity* motivation enjoy being in positions of authority and see themselves as natural-born leaders. Affective-identity was supported as the strongest predictor of leadership potential as measured via assessment center and supervisor and peer ratings after a three-month training period ($r = .39$ and $.25$, $p < .05$ respectively). Noncalculative also showed significant correlations ($r = .20$, $.18$, $p < .05$). These results suggest that individuals who enjoy leadership roles and are not deterred by the costs associated with them are more likely to show leadership potential.

Chan and Drasgow's study showed that candidate motivations to assume positions of leadership may contribute to their ability and effectiveness in the role. The part of this model that needs further exploration is how differences in MTL, personality, and other antecedents create differences in leadership styles, and further, how those leadership styles then relate to leader efficacy. If leader success is the outcome, what leadership processes are occurring that personality and motivation induce? Yukl (1998) called for more research around this topic to help explain *why* certain traits predict leader emergence and effectiveness.

Barrick, Mount, and Strauss (1993) show goal-setting to be one mechanism through which higher Conscientiousness produces superior job performance. When leaders set goals for themselves, they clarify and outline what they hope to accomplish and are then able to prioritize and focus their efforts accordingly. In a sample of salespeople, Conscientiousness was significantly related to goal-setting behavior, ($r = .39$), and is likely one way that personality predicts success at work. The value of goal-setting also applies to leadership effectiveness because this will focus the entire workgroup's efforts toward a common goal, making attainment more probable. Given the

social nature of leadership and the strong interpersonal competency involved with motivating, coaching, and leading a work group, task-related behaviors such as goal-setting explain only a small piece of the link between personality and leadership effectiveness. The remaining Big 5 traits (Neuroticism, Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Openness to Experience) tell us about differences in communication style, emotional adjustment, and inclination toward growth and development. The link from personality and motivational differences in leaders to differences in employee engagement is likely to be through interpersonal interaction style. For this reason, the current study will examine the role leadership style plays in explaining the link from leader personality and MTL to leader effectiveness in fostering an engaged workforce. Moreover, personality and MTL may have joint effects on leadership style; thus, these predictors should be examined for statistical interactions.

Leadership Style

Leadership style refers to the actions a leader takes to motivate subordinates and accomplish organizational goals through others. There are many ways to conceptualize and categorize leadership styles. Burns (1978) distinguished between *transactional* and *transforming* leaders and research has shown differences in effectiveness as a result of these behavioral tendencies. Transactional leaders tend to see their role as overseer of the transaction of goods and services between the organization and the employee. If the employee contributes quality work outputs and meets performance expectations, then the leader provides compensation and rewards as agreed. If the employee fails to meet expectations, then the manager will step in to coach when it becomes necessary to correct the problem. Bass (1985) expanded upon Burns' idea of the transforming leader. He

wrote that a transformational leader takes a different approach to motivating employees: rather than simply offering pay for performance, this type of leader helps his employees to understand and believe in the goals and mission of the organization. Transformational leaders encourage employees to develop an emotional connection to the work they do and attain commitment to their vision for the future. Under this leadership style, employees are doing their work, not only to receive their paycheck, but because they believe what they are contributing is important and meaningful.

Bass (1985, 1998) defined four categories of leadership behaviors that comprise a transformational leadership style. *Intellectual stimulation* refers to behaviors that are intended to provide mental challenge for employees, as well as encourage innovation and divergent thinking. *Individualized consideration* refers to leader behaviors that treat employees as individuals with unique skills and interests and attend to the unique development and coaching needs of each employee. *Inspirational motivation* occurs when leaders share their vision for the future and motivate employees by inspiring them toward a goal that is personally meaningful to them. Finally, *idealized influence* refers to leaders who inspire affection and loyalty from their employees by holding high ethical standards and establishing effective working relationships with them.

Transactional leadership style is represented by the following types of leader behaviors: *contingent reward*, *management by exception (passive and active)*, and *laissez-faire*. *Contingent reward* describes the exchange of resources that occurs between a leader and his employees. This consistently emerges as the only set of leadership behaviors within the transactional approach that is effective and desirable for a leader. While transformational styles can provide another level of motivation for employees, the

basic exchange of pay for performance is typically the primary reason most employees initiate employment with an employer. *Management by exception- active* and *passive* refers to a leadership style in which the leader monitors for performance problems and intervenes as needed to correct them. The *passive* approach indicates a reluctance to react unless the problem becomes severe. The fourth and final facet of transactional leadership style, sometimes described as “non-leadership” is the *laissez-faire* style. This set of behaviors refers to the avoidance of leadership responsibilities such as setting goals, monitoring performance, and coaching.

Transformational leadership has a demonstrated relationship with desirable employee and organizational outcomes, such as employees’ perceptions of support and efficacy, improved task performance, citizenship behaviors, creativity and innovation, and even financial success (Gumusluoglu & Ilsev, 2009; Lyons & Schneider, 2009; Podsakoff *et al.*, 1990; Purvanova, Bono, & Dzieweczynski, 2006; Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996). A meta-analysis conducted by Christian, Garza, and Slaughter (2011) found a moderately sized mean correlation between transformational leadership and engagement, ($M_r = .24$). A primary piece of the theory behind transformational leadership is that managers who can help their employees to see the importance of their contributions will see an improvement in discretionary effort and willingness to do whatever it takes to reach their goals (Bass, 1985). Podsakoff *et al.* (1990) showed a moderate correlation between transformational leadership and citizenship behaviors (average correlation, $r = .18$). Purvanova, Bono, and Dzieweczynski (2006) elaborate on this link, showing that employee perceptions regarding the meaningfulness and

importance of their jobs is the mediating factor between this inspirational leadership style and the outcome of contributing discretionary effort.

Macey and Schneider's (2008) discussion of the multi-dimensional nature of the engagement construct and associated body of research, they propose that transformational leadership impacts employee engagement in three ways: transformational leadership directly engenders state engagement, it moderates the link between state engagement and behavioral engagement, and finally, it indirectly impacts behavioral engagement through the development of trust in the organization and the manager himself. While not directly tested in the current study, it is by changing employee perceptions about the meaningfulness of their work, showing trustworthiness, and encouraging independent thought that transformational leadership is expected to cultivate employee engagement.

As described previously, markers of transformational leadership include conveying an inspirational vision of the future, showing consideration, and contributing to the unique development of each employee. It follows that a leadership style characterized by inspiring, motivating, and building relationships will engender feelings of faith, belief, attachment, and, ultimately, engagement in employees.

A meta-analysis by Bono and Judge (2004) extended the work of Judge, *et al.* (2002) by exploring how leader personality relates to transformational and transactional leadership. Although Extraversion emerged as a statistically significant predictor of all facets of transformational leadership (idealized influence and inspirational motivation were combined to form a *charismatic leadership* component), all five personality traits only accounted for a minimal amount of variance (5-12%) in these leadership behaviors. They conclude that "continued use of the Big Five traits may not be fruitful in revealing

the dispositional bases of transformational and transactional leadership” (p. 907).

Although they suggest that examining lower-order factors may prove more worthwhile, they fail to address the possibility that these relationships do not follow traditional linear bivariate patterns. As more complex, interactive relationships between personality and other individual differences for predicting work outcomes receives more attention and research, we find that personality does seem to have complex and indirect effects on work behaviors and performance that are not easily identified with the typical bivariate correlations and regressions (see Burke & Witt, 2002; Burke & Witt, 2004; Witt, Burke, Barrick, & Mount, 2002). For example, Judge and Erez (2007) found support for interaction and curvilinear effects of personality traits for the prediction of work performance. Exploring how personality traits and other individual differences interact to provide stronger predictive power can advance existing knowledge and inform practice around leader selection.

In addition to transformational and transactional leadership, another leadership style has gained attention for its impact on employee morale and performance. However, this approach has quite the opposite effect. *Abusive supervision* is defined as non-physical hostile behaviors toward subordinates (Tepper, 2000). Given the prevalence of leadership trainings and seminars, it is surprising that many managers still engage in behaviors that demean, embarrass, ridicule, and otherwise undermine their subordinates. Research suggests that more than one in eight employed individuals have been exposed to hostile or verbally abusive management tactics (Schat, Frone, & Kelloway, 2006). For example, abusive supervisors engage in intimidation and threaten job loss, withhold

necessary information, use aggressive body language, and ignore or even ridicule subordinates publicly (Aryee et al., 2007; Tepper, 2000).

Although abusive behaviors can be objectively measured, the experience of abusive supervision is typically measured by the perception of the subordinate. Perceptions of abusive supervision have been shown to relate to a decrease in subordinate job and life satisfaction and psychological well-being, and an increase in turnover (Tepper, 2000). It also results in other negative outcomes for the organization, such as increased workplace deviance and decreased citizenship performance (Zellars, Tepper, & Duffy, 2002). The question of why some managers treat their employees this way has received more interest and investigation among researchers in the last 10 years. Thus far, the strongest antecedent of an abusive supervisory style appears to be perceptions of injustice perpetrated by the organization (Tepper, 2000). This is an important finding because it adds to the business case for organizations to treat their employees fairly and to do their best to uphold their obligations, whether explicitly stated or inferred. However, in addition to these contextual factors there may be other causes, such as characteristics of managers that predispose them to engage in these types of behaviors. Exploring personality and motivation to lead could help to identify individuals who are likely to be abusive supervisors.

Much needed research has begun to explore how abusive supervision impacts employee engagement and its outcomes. Typically, a justice framework is used to conceptualize the link between abusive supervision and discretionary effort. Reducing citizenship behaviors and increasing workplace deviance behaviors are thought to be subordinates' means of retaliation against the abusive supervisor for unfair treatment.

Subordinates are more likely to retaliate through these voluntary behaviors rather than by reducing their task performance because the latter may lead to administrative sanctions. Aryee, Chen, Sun, and Debrah (2007) found evidence for this theory of injustice perceptions as a mediator between abusive supervision to citizenship behaviors. Using a sample of 178 subordinates (47 supervisors were represented) in a Chinese telecommunications company, data on self-report perception of abusive supervision, interactional justice, procedural justice, and organizational affective commitment were collected. Additionally, supervisors were asked to rate each subordinate's OCBI and OCBO. Interactional justice refers to perceptions of being treated fairly by supervisors or decision makers (Folger & Bies, 1989). In contrast, procedural justice refers to perceptions of fairness in the decision-making processes of the organization (Aryee et al. 2007). Aryee *et al.* chose to measure affective commitment, or the emotional attachment to the organization, because this is more likely to be influenced by quality of supervision than would continuance or normative commitment. Although they did not measure employee engagement *per se*, it is reasonable to expect the same pattern of results as that of affective commitment because of the emotional attachment component present in each.

They also used measures that distinguished between OCB directed toward coworkers (OCBI) versus the organization (OCBO). Aryee et al. hypothesized that interactional, but not procedural, justice would mediate the relationship between abusive supervision to commitment, OCBI, and OCBO. They tested this hypothesis using structural equation modeling and found support for the fully mediated model. Abusive supervision led to perceptions of interactional injustice, which then led to reduced OCBI, OCBO, and affective commitment. Although perceptions of procedural justice did not

mediate the effect of abusive supervision on these work-related behaviors, other researchers have found support for this mediating variable.

Zellars, Tepper, and Duffy (2002) examined the mediating effect of procedural justice on the relationship between abusive supervision and OCB. Data were collected from 373 US National Guard members and their supervisors. OCB scores were assigned by the supervisors and all other variables were measured via self-report surveys. Zellars et al. hypothesized that abusive supervision would lead to perceptions of procedural injustice and result in reduced OCB. They specifically hypothesized this relationship to exist among subordinates who defined OCB as extra-role behaviors. Zellars et al. suggest that these subordinates may believe the supervisor was permitted to be abusive because the organization did not employ a fair process for deciding whether to condone this treatment or how to manage it. They found support for this hypothesis as procedural justice mediated the effect of abusive supervision on OCB. Specifically, for employees who defined OCB as discretionary, abusive supervision led to perceptions of procedural injustice, which led to a reduction in OCB. Employee engagement was not directly measured in this study; however, as engagement has a discretionary effort component, it is reasonable to theorize that abusive supervision leads to a reduction in employee engagement.

Socioanalytic Perspective on Leadership Styles

Leadership is traditionally conceptualized as the result of ambition and motivation to achieve power and status. However, the components of transformational leadership that create meaningful relationships between managers and employees and encourage teams to bond together toward a common goal represent a more social, cooperative

motivation. Applying socioanalytic theory, leadership behaviors can be categorized as demonstrating the drive to get ahead or get along. Transformational leadership behaviors directed toward showing *individualized consideration* and generating *idealized influence* reflect the drive to get along. Recall that behaviors in these categories include upholding high ethical and moral standards and treating employees with respect and consideration. The other two categories of transformational leadership behaviors, providing *inspirational motivation* and *intellectual stimulation* can be classified as behaviors directed toward getting ahead. Behaviors in these categories include setting inspiring goals, conveying a vision of the future that motivates employees to work diligently and passionately, and providing challenging work that contributes to the growth and development of employee skills and abilities.

Contingent reward behaviors are also directed at getting ahead. This type of transactional leadership encourages employees to perform at satisfactory levels in exchange for rewards from the organization. Contingent reward behaviors do not attempt to build social bonds or encourage teamwork beyond that required to complete the job.

Finally, abusive supervision behaviors reflect the drive to get ahead, at the expense of getting along. This type of manager does not readily understand that building a strong team, increasing employee well-being, and helping employees see how they contribute to meaningful goals positively impacts the bottom line. Abusive supervisors are so task-focused that they lose sight of the value that building supportive networks and fostering an environment of cooperation brings. We can expect supervisors who are lower on getting along traits and higher on getting ahead traits to show more abusive supervision behaviors.

Hypotheses

Leadership and engagement

Research has supported the following as antecedents of employee engagement: job characteristics such as autonomy, variety, and significance; perceived organizational support; and perceptions that the organization is supportive of innovation (Saks, 2006; Schneider, Macey, Barbera, & Martin, 2009). These subordinate perceptions are components of transformational leadership, specifically, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and inspirational motivation. Thus, we can expect that managers who exhibit more transformational behaviors will have employees who are more engaged in their work. Moreover, because this leadership style combines both getting ahead and getting along approaches to motivation, this leadership style should be the most conducive to a culture of engagement. Leadership behaviors that fall under the facets of individualized consideration and idealized influence will help to bring employees together and build self-confidence and feelings of self-worth; whereas behaviors that fall under the intellectual stimulation and inspirational motivation facets will challenge, inspire, and motivate subordinates toward a meaningful common goal. Combined, these aspects of transformational leadership were expected to increase subordinate attachment to and engagement in their work within the organization.

Hypothesis 1: Frequency of transformational leadership behaviors is positively related to levels of subordinate engagement.

The facets of transactional leadership vary in the extent to which they cultivate an engaging work environment. Contingent reward behaviors are aimed at monitoring and encouraging employee productivity by offering fair compensation for time, effort, and performance. This reliable transaction of goods and services leads to perceptions of equity and fairness. For this reason, employees will feel somewhat engaged in their work and committed to staying with their organization to the extent that this arrangement remains more rewarding than alternatives. However, because this leadership style does not inspire an emotional attachment to the organization or its mission, the correlation to employee engagement should be weaker than that of transformational leadership.

Hypothesis 2a: Frequency of contingent reward behaviors is positively related to levels of engagement.

Hypothesis 2b: The relationship between engagement and frequency of contingent reward behaviors is weaker than the relationship with transformational leadership.

Transactional leadership behaviors characterized under the management by exception style represent reluctance to manage and willingness for active involvement only when a problem or issue has been escalated or becomes serious. Because this approach is reactive in nature, employees do not feel that taking initiative, proactively looking for solutions to business problems, showing innovation, and going above and beyond are valued by their manager or the organization. These behaviors do not help employees to connect with

their work or see meaning in the goals they are working toward. As such, management by exception behaviors were thought to be unrelated to employee engagement and were not specifically hypothesized to correlate with employee engagement. Subordinates may become engaged in their work for other reasons (e.g., interest in the work itself, work friendships or other support) that will vary by person and should be unrelated to the leader's management by exception behaviors. As such, exploratory data on management by exception leadership will be provided for informational purposes only.

Finally, abusive supervision is expected to result in low levels of employee engagement. Because this leadership style creates feelings of embarrassment, fear, anxiety, and stress, it follows that these employees will only stay with their organization until a more attractive opportunity presents itself. Further, these employees will only contribute enough effort to avoid negative repercussions and will not buy into the goals of their leader on a personal, affective level. This leadership style is expected to disengage employees who may otherwise be intrinsically motivated to perform well.

Hypothesis 3: Frequency of abusive supervision behaviors is negatively related to levels of engagement.

Individual difference variables and leadership styles

Transformational leadership is an integral part of cultivating a fully engaged workforce. This leadership style helps employees to identify with their work on a personal level and feel good about what they are accomplishing. These leaders build relationships, foster cooperative workgroups, and increase employee well-being. In

particular, individualized consideration refers to leader behaviors that treat employees as individuals and show consideration for their unique needs and motivations. Idealized influence captures behaviors that inspire affection and loyalty from employees through showing ethical and moral integrity. Employees want to follow because they believe that the leader's goals are socially and morally responsible. These behaviors reflect the drive to get along with others and should be related to personality traits that also reflect this drive. As described previously, Stability, Sociability, Friendliness, and Dutifulness are characteristics that contribute to socialization, building supportive relationships, and showing responsibility and reliability to others. Leaders who possess these traits are more inclined to consider the greater good when setting team goals and to engage in "getting along" leadership behaviors directed at showing consideration, personal attention, ethical actions, and social responsibility. In other words, leaders naturally inclined to get along with others will show more individualized consideration and idealized influence leadership behaviors.

Hypothesis 4 (a-b): Personality traits reflective of the drive to get along are positively related to leadership styles directed at getting along. Specifically, levels of Stability, Sociability, Friendliness, and Dutifulness predict frequency of (a) individualized consideration leadership behaviors, and (b) idealized influence leadership behaviors.

Intellectual stimulation refers to behaviors that are intended to provide mental challenge for employees, as well as encourage innovation and divergent thinking.

Inspirational motivation occurs when leaders share their vision for the future and motivate employees by inspiring them toward a goal that is personally meaningful to them. These transformational leadership behaviors will help the team to achieve big-picture goals and work productively toward the organizational mission. Personality traits related to the motivation to get ahead and achieve power and status should predict the frequency of these leadership behaviors. Leadership, Creativity, and Quickness are the traits that reflect ambition, achievement, innovation, and growth. These traits represent the drive to get ahead in the hierarchy of social status.

Contingent reward behaviors are also intended to motivate employees to perform satisfactorily and attain their individual goals. Rewards and punishments are used to encourage productive, effective work behaviors and discourage counterproductive work behaviors, in order to reach the team's goals and ultimately impact profitability. As a result, leaders high on traits that reflect the drive to get ahead will display contingent reward behaviors.

Recall that leaders who engage in abusive supervision behaviors are using this approach to try to motivate employees to work harder, faster, and achieve more. However, they are not only failing to build relationships and supportive networks with their employees, they are tearing down self-efficacy, job satisfaction, and emotional bonds with them. Abusive supervisors fail to understand the impact of emotional attachment and identification with one's work and organization on effort, productivity, and performance. As such, abusive supervision reflects a strong drive to get ahead, at the cost of getting along.

Hypothesis 5 (a-d): Personality traits reflective of the drive to get ahead are positively related to leadership styles directed at getting ahead. Specifically, levels of Leadership, Creativity, and Quickness predict frequency of (a) intellectual stimulation leadership behaviors, (b) inspirational motivation leadership behaviors, (c) contingent reward leadership behaviors, and (d) abusive supervision leadership behaviors.

Hypothesis 6: Abusive supervision is most common among leaders with high levels of getting ahead traits and low levels of getting along traits. This hypothesis proposes an interaction effect between the two trait categories for the prediction of abusive supervision behaviors.

Chan and Drasgow's motivation to lead (MTL) construct provides additional insight to the type of leadership style a leader is likely to exhibit. Individuals who are primarily motivated to lead because of feelings of obligations or duty are likely to only contribute as much effort toward the leadership role as will meet the basic needs of their manager, their team, or the organization. The social-normative facet of MTL measures this duty-induced leadership motivation and, when combined with a personal drive toward getting ahead, is expected to result in completion of basic management responsibilities around distributing rewards and resources and addressing poor performance issues. As such, high levels of both social-normative MTL and personality traits directed at getting ahead are expected to have positive multiplicative effects on frequency of contingent reward behaviors.

Hypothesis 7: High frequency of contingent reward leadership behaviors is predicted by high levels of traits directed at getting ahead and a social-normative motivation to lead. This hypothesis proposes an interaction between the two individual difference variables.

Building on Hypothesis 6, addressing the relationship of getting ahead and getting along traits to abusive supervision, assessing motivation to lead should further aid in the prediction of which candidates are likely to adopt this approach. Individuals who are unconcerned with the costs and added responsibilities of leadership show a noncalculative motivation to lead. Abusive supervisors are hypothesized to be motivated to assume positions of leadership because they see it as a means to attain financial, status, and power rewards—a calculated approach. This motivation does not stem from feeling compelled to lead due to social obligation or an innate desire to lead. In most cases, they do not appreciate the opportunity they have to inspire meaningful change and bring people together toward a common goal. For these reasons, a noncalculative MTL is expected to decrease the likelihood that a manager who is high on getting ahead traits and low on getting along traits will exhibit abusive supervision.

Hypothesis 8: High frequency of abusive supervision behaviors is predicted by high levels of traits directed at getting ahead, low levels of traits directed at getting along, and a lower noncalculative motivation to lead. This hypothesis proposes a three-way interaction between these individual difference variables.

Chan and Drasgow (2001) showed that individuals who are motivated to lead because they enjoy it and believe they are naturally skilled at leadership tend to receive the highest leadership potential ratings. This type of leader understands that employee involvement and engagement are crucial components of true organizational effectiveness, growth, and sustainability. They will go out of their way to help employees feel good about their work and will not miss opportunities to inspire and motivate their staff. Individuals who seek positions of leadership because they enjoy the role and are also naturally inclined to be innovative, visionary, sociable, and cooperative will encourage their employees to seek opportunities to improve their work processes, help employees see how their work fits into the big-picture goals of the organization, and encourage collaboration and teamwork toward those goals. Leaders who are high on traits directed at getting along as well as getting ahead will be most inclined to incorporate both of these person-oriented and the task-oriented aspects of leadership into their approach. These individuals are the transformational leaders that organizations want to hire.

Hypothesis 9: High frequency of transformational leadership behaviors is predicted by high levels of traits directed at getting along, getting ahead, and an affective-identity motivation to lead. This hypothesis proposes a three-way interaction between these individual difference variables.

Leadership style as a mediator

Finally, the value of identifying individual difference variables that predict leadership styles lies in improved ability to predict who will be an effective leader. The outcome of focus in this study is subordinate engagement and, ultimately, the goal here is to measure the extent to which measurable individual differences in candidates for leadership positions lead to differences in leadership styles, which then impact employee engagement. As this suggests, leadership style will also be examined as a mediator between subordinate engagement (outcome) and leader personality and MTL (predictors).

Transformational leadership was hypothesized to be best predicted by high levels of getting ahead traits and getting along traits and an affective-identity motivation to lead. Recall also that transformational leadership was hypothesized to be positively related to employee engagement. This leadership style was proposed to mediate the link between engagement and leader personality and MTL. This model is shown in figure 1.

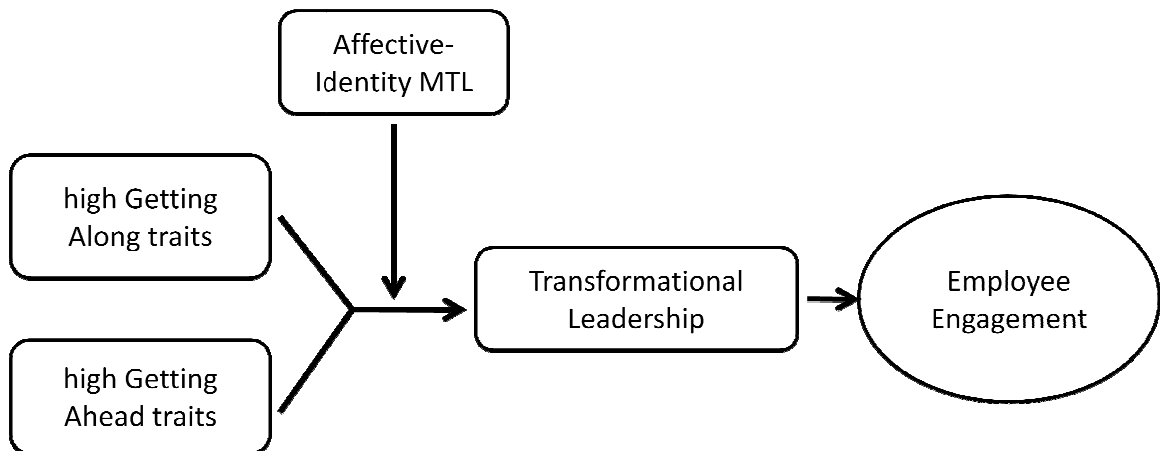


Figure 1. Proposed model for Hypothesis 10.

Hypothesis 10: Transformational leadership mediates the relationship between leader personality and MTL to employee engagement such that high levels of getting ahead traits, getting along traits, and affective-identity motivation to lead positively interact to predict high levels of transformational leadership, which then predicts high levels of employee engagement.

The extent to which abusive supervision also serves to mediate the link between leader individual differences and employee engagement should be examined. This leadership style was hypothesized to be best predicted by a personal drive to get ahead, low drive to get along with others, and a low noncalculative motivation to lead (i.e., motivated to lead based on weighing the risks and rewards associated with assuming a leadership role). However, unlike transformational or transactional leadership, this style is expected to decrease levels of engagement. This model is shown in figure 2. This hypothesized mediation effect was explored using the same approach as the previous hypothesis.

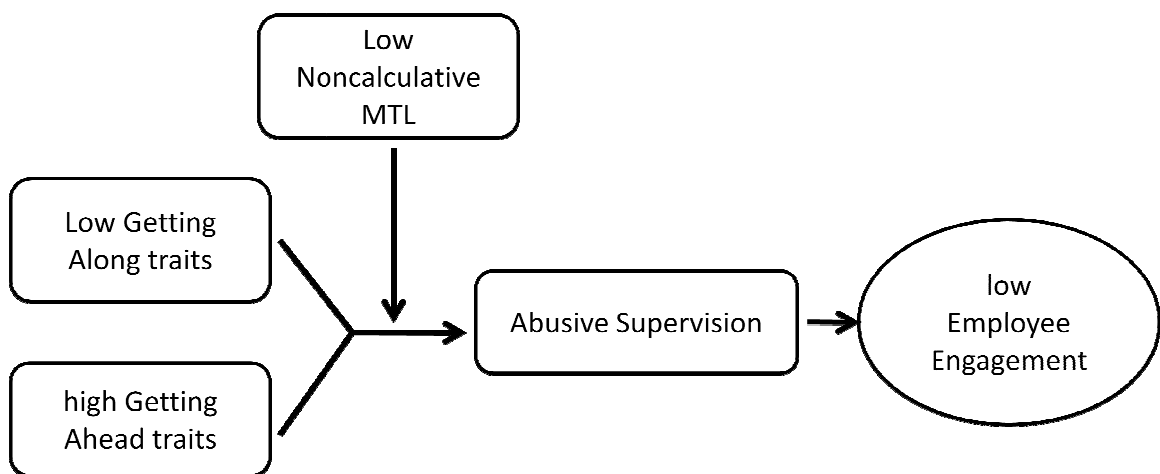


Figure 2. Proposed model for Hypothesis 11

Hypothesis 11: Abusive supervision mediates the relationship between leader personality and MTL to employee engagement such that high levels of getting ahead traits, low levels of getting along traits, and low noncalculative motivation to lead interact to predict high levels of abusive supervision, which then predicts low levels of employee engagement.

Chapter II

Method

Participants

Participants in this study were 196 employees and 134 managers. However, one employee's data were eliminated from analysis due to a pattern of responding that indicated careless and uninterpretable results (i.e., the participant chose the middle response option for all questions). Additionally, four managers' data were not able to be linked with an employee's data due to a failure to enter a valid matching code; this code is described in more detail in the procedure section. The final number of participants whose data were included in this study was 195 employees and 130 managers. As indicated by these numbers, 65 managers (33%) declined to participate when asked to complete the survey. Employee participants worked at least part time (minimum of 20 hours per week) and were mostly female (74%). Over half of employee participants were Caucasian (57%), with 19% identifying as Hispanic, 12% as Black, 6% as Asian, and 6% as other. Employee ages ranged from 18 to 64 years ($M= 26, SD= 10$). Forty-eight percent had tenure of one to five years with their organization. Fifty-five percent had worked with their current manager (the manager who was rated in the survey) for six months to two years (see Table 2 for more information). Most employees were individual contributors at work: 82% indicated that they did not have employees who directly reported to them. Industries represented in this study include retail sales (21%), business,

legal, and social services (17%), and education (12%), among others. Thirty six percent of employees chose the option “other” when asked about industry; because there was no response option for “choose not to respond”, it is possible that some wanted to avoid answering this question to further protect the identify of their organization and themselves. Table 3 shows the breakdown of industries.

Manager participants were the managers of the employees who agreed to participate in the study. Both sexes were fairly represented in this manager sample (51% male, 49% female). Managers were predominantly Caucasian (69%), with 11% identifying as Hispanic, 9% as Black, 6% as Asian, and 5% as other. Manager’s ages ranged from 23 to 65 years ($M= 42, SD= 11$). Leadership level in the organization ranged from first line supervisor to top executive, with a large number of respondents choosing not to complete this question (37%), 13% were first line supervisors, 27% were mid-level managers, 13% were senior leaders, and 9% were chief executives. The most common responses for tenure with the organization were three to five years (32%) and more than 10 years (27%), see Table 4 for manager tenure data.

Table 2

Employee Tenure

	Tenure with Organization	Tenure with Manager
0-3 months	8%	13%
3-6 months	7%	14%
6-12 months	20%	25%
1-2 years	23%	30%
3-5 years	25%	14%
6-10 years	8%	3%
10+ years	8%	2%

* Rounding causes apparent discrepancy from 100%

Table 3

Industries Represented

	Percent of Sample
Education	12%
Construction	1%
Manufacturing, transportation, or utility services	2%
Retail sales	21%
Finance, insurance, and real estate	7%
Services (business, legal, social)	17%
Public Administration	4%
Other	36%

Table 4

Manager Tenure with Organization

	Frequency
0-3 months	3%
6-12 months	5%
1-2 years	11%
3-5 years	31%
6-10 years	22%
10+ years	28%

Employee participants were recruited through a variety of methods. The largest source of participants was a student participant pool at a large southeastern university. Sixty eight percent of the employees who participated in this study were recruited through this student pool (student employee $n=132$), and 66% of the complete employee-manager dyads contained a student as the employee (student employee $n=86$). As compensation for their time, students were assigned partial course credit for participating in the study. Eligibility criteria stipulated that all employee participants had to have been employed at least 20 hours per week and recommended that the employee obtain the manager's agreement to participate before beginning the study. This recommendation likely resulted in a higher than typical rate of manager completion, but a lower overall number of employee participants.

Other means through which participants were recruited included emails to faculty and staff at universities throughout the U.S., emails to city and county employees found via website listings of Florida government employees, and approaching employees at various organizations and local businesses to request participation. As indicated previously, these methods did not result in large numbers of participants; combined, these recruitment methods only accounted for approximately one third of the study sample. See Appendices A-E for participant recruitment materials.

Measures

See appendix for measures used in this study.

Demographics

Employees. Age, sex, and race were included as demographic questions for employee participants. Additionally, data on the industry, tenure with the organization and manager, and whether the employee had direct reports were also collected.

Managers. Questions on age, sex, race, tenure with the organization, and level in the organization were included in the manager survey.

Individual Difference Measures

The personality and motivation to lead assessments were included in the manager survey.

Personality. The seven factor model of personality was measured using the International Personality Item Pool (IPIP; <http://ipip.ori.org>) scales. These scales were designed to resemble the Hogan Personality Inventory (HPI), a measure of normal personality in the workplace. The IPIP scales are highly correlated with the 7 scales of the HPI. The IPIP trait scales (with related HPI scale names in parenthesis) are Stability

(Adjustment), Leadership (Ambition), Sociability (Sociability), Friendliness (Likeability), Dutifulness (Prudence), Creativity (Inquisitive), and Quickness (Learning Approach). Correlations between the HPI scales and their IPIP counterparts are reasonably strong ($r = .64 - .77$), indicating that these IPIP items are a fair measure of Hogan's seven factor model. The seven scales stem from the Five Factor Model, with Extraversion represented by Leadership and Sociability combined, Emotional Stability by Stability, Conscientiousness by Dutifulness, Agreeableness by Friendliness, and Openness to Experience by Creativity and Quickness combined. Response options were provided on a five point likert scale (Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree). Internal consistency for the IPIP scales was adequate ($\alpha = .76 - .90$); these estimates are similar to those reported by the International Personality Item Pool (www.ori.org) ($\alpha = .75 - .86$).

Motivation to lead. Chan and Drasgow's (2001) scale was validated across three diverse samples. This 27 item scale provides scores for three factors that describe the primary motivations for taking on a leadership role. The Affective-identity, Noncalculative, and Social-Normative subscales each have 9 items. The response options are provided in a five point likert scale (Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree). The three subscales displayed adequate internal consistency ($\alpha = .79 - .81$).

Leadership Style

The transformational/transactional leadership and abusive supervision measures were included in the employee survey.

Transformational/transactional leadership. The *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire* (MLQ; Avolio & Bass, 2004) was used to measure the facets of transformational and transactional leadership behavior. This scale uses 4 items to

measure each facet, with the exception of Idealized Influence which has 8 items.

Response options for this measure are on a five point scale and listed as frequencies (Not at all, Once in a while, Sometimes, Fairly often, and Frequently, if not always). Internal consistency estimates for these scales were generally acceptable, with the management by exception scales reaching a barely acceptable level: individualized consideration ($\alpha=.75$), intellectual stimulation ($\alpha=.73$), inspirational motivation ($\alpha=.86$), idealized influence ($\alpha=.89$), contingent reward ($\alpha=.84$), management by exception-active ($\alpha=.62$), management by exception-passive ($\alpha=.67$), laissez-faire ($\alpha=.73$). The reliabilities found in this study were similar to those reported in the test manual, including the lower alphas for the management by exception scales (MLQ test manual: Avolio & Bass, 2004) .

Abusive supervision. Abusive supervision was measured by subordinate report using Tepper's (2000) 15 item scale. Using a 5-point scale, each respondent reported on the frequency with which his/her manager engages in the behaviors listed: (1) I cannot remember him/her ever using this behavior with me, (2) he/she very seldom uses this behavior with me, (3) he/she occasionally uses this behavior with me, (4) he/she uses this behavior moderately often with me, (5) he/she uses this behavior very often with me. Internal consistency estimate for this scale was strong ($\alpha=.95$).

Employee engagement. A 14 item scale adapted from May, Gilson, and Harter's (2004) 13 item scale will be used to measure employee engagement in this study. One item was added to measure external job search behavior. This assessment used response options on a five point likert scale (Strongly Disagree-Strongly Agree). Internal consistency for the 14 item scale was acceptable, ($\alpha=.77$). The engagement measure was included in the employee survey.

Procedure

Employed individuals were recruited to participate in this study and were asked to have their managers participate as well. To avoid over-representing any single manager and ensure independent data points, managers were instructed to participate in this study only once regardless of whether they had multiple employees who were participating. This study consisted of two steps for all non-student employees. In the first step, the employee completed an anonymous survey via a commonly used online survey tool, SurveyMonkey. This survey contained demographic questions, the engagement scale, the abusive supervision scale, and the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. To link the employee and manager data while maintaining anonymity of both, the employee was asked to create a seven digit code for the purpose of matching the data. The guidelines for this code were to enter any three random numbers and the last four digits of the telephone number. The employee then had two options for having his or her manager complete the second step in this study. The first option was to enter the manager's email address to have the researcher email the manager to request participation. The second option was to provide the unique seven digit code and the URL address to the manager directly. Seventy seven percent of participants chose this latter option. In cases where the manager's email was provided, the researcher sent an email to the manager explaining the nature and purpose of the study, including a link to the online survey and the seven digit code created by the employee. The manager survey consisted of demographic questions, the motivation to lead scale, and the IPIP personality assessment.

Student employees who were participating in this study in order to receive partial credit had an additional step in this process. Before receiving any survey materials,

students first completed a separate online survey in which they entered their name, student identification number, and an email address to which they would like to have the employee survey sent. This additional first step allowed the researcher to grant course credit while maintaining the anonymity of student participants. All participant recruiting materials can be found in the appendices.

Chapter III

Results

The full sample of valid employee data was included when running analyses that only required employee data (e.g. comparing perceptions of leadership style with level of engagement) (employee $n=195$). When conducting analyses based on the employee-manager dyads, only those employees with matched data were included (employee-manager dyad $n=130$). The mean score for each study scale was calculated, including cases in which not all questions were answered. For example, when nine out of 10 questions on a scale were complete, then the score for that scale represents the average of those nine items. Table 5 contains means and standard deviations for study variables. For all analyses involving significance testing, the p -value of .05 was used as the standard for determining statistical significance.

Intercorrelations Among Leadership Styles

The four facets of transformational leadership were highly correlated with one another (r 's = .71 to .85). See Table 6 for intercorrelations. These high correlations suggest that each subscale does not measure a distinct construct and that they are not likely to show differential links to engagement. These high intercorrelations are not problematic for conceptualizing transformational leadership or the interpretation of a potential link between this and engagement, but do present an issue for aligning personality predictors to the behaviors represented by each subscale. Specifically,

socioanalytic theory was used to predict how traits would predict certain facets of transformational leadership. Given the high intercorrelations, it is unlikely that personality will relate differently to each facet. However, the hypotheses initially predicted were still tested as originally conceived.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics for Study Variables

	Mean	SD	α	Skewness	Kurtosis
Engagement ^a	3.33	0.52	.77	0.02	0.21
<i>Transformational Leadership</i>					
Intellectual Stimulation	3.13	0.89	.73	-0.09	-0.30
Inspirational Motivation	3.52	1.06	.86	-0.37	-0.73
Individualized Consider.	3.19	0.96	.75	-0.28	-0.29
Idealized Influence	3.31	0.92	.89	-0.33	-0.48
<i>Transactional Leadership</i>					
Contingent Reward	3.36	1.03	.84	-0.40	-0.55
MBE-Active	2.58	0.83	.62	-0.05	-0.64
MBE-Passive	2.10	0.83	.67	0.55	-0.11
<i>Abusive Supervision</i>					
Abusive Supervision	1.34	0.56	.95	1.99	3.22

Personality^b

Stability	3.46	0.60	.77	0.18	-0.41
Leadership	3.81	0.65	.85	0.19	-0.84
Sociability	3.16	0.62	.76	0.70	1.28
Friendliness	3.51	0.75	.90	0.45	-0.67
Dutifulness	3.51	0.59	.77	0.62	0.35
Creativity	3.39	0.75	.86	0.56	-0.58
Quickness	3.52	0.77	.88	0.34	-0.94

Motivation to Lead

Affective-Identity	3.61	0.63	.79	-0.27	0.10
Noncalculative	3.69	0.63	.79	-0.28	0.37
Social-Normative	3.58	0.61	.81	-0.65	1.02

^a*n*= 195 for the following scales: Engagement, Transformational Leadership scales, Transactional Leadership scales, and Abusive Supervision.

^b*n*= 130 for the following scales: Personality scales and Motivation to Lead scales.

Table 6

Intercorrelations Among Facets of Transformational Leadership

	1	2	3
1 Inspirational Motivation			
2 Intellectual Stimulation	.71*		
3 Individualized Consideration	.75*	.78*	
4 Idealized Influence	.85*	.77*	.81*

n=195. * Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Table 7 contains intercorrelations among leadership styles. Transformational leadership was strongly correlated with contingent reward ($r = .89, p < .05$). A correlation this strong indicates a lack of discriminant validity between the measures of transformational leadership and contingent reward, which is problematic for interpreting the pattern of results. Conceptually, these two leadership styles are effective and necessary components of leadership, but are distinct sets of behaviors. To see such a high degree of overlap indicates that, in this sample, one possible explanation is that employees were not able to distinguish between the types of leadership behaviors described in the two scales. This effect is similar to the idea of halo effect in rating performance. This possibility indicates that employees in this study could have formed an overall impression regarding the effectiveness of their leader and based their responses on this overall impression rather than considering specific examples of behaviors they have witnessed. If this were the case, results would indicate that all positive leadership behaviors would be highly correlated and all negative leadership behaviors would be

highly correlated. Given that active and passive management by exception show different patterns of correlations, it is not likely that one overall impression of leadership effectiveness underlies the employees' ratings of specific leader behaviors in this study. Rather, it is likely that the transformational leaders who participated in this study actually demonstrated a high frequency of contingent reward behaviors, low frequency of abusive supervision, and low passive management by exception behaviors.

Table 7

Correlations Among Leadership Styles

	1	2	3	4
1 Transformational	--			
2 Contingent Reward	.89*			
3 MBE-Active	.19*	.19*		
4 MBE-Passive	-.23*	-.22*	.26*	
5 Abusive Supervision	-.46*	-.43*	.20*	.46*

n= 195. *Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Leadership and Engagement

An interesting and meaningful pattern of relationships emerged between employee engagement and the leadership styles assessed here (see Table 8 for correlations). The strongest predictors of engagement were transformational leadership ($r = .38, p < .05$), followed by contingent reward leadership ($r = .32, p < .05$). These significant positive correlations provide support for Hypotheses 1 and 2a. The coefficient for transformational leadership suggests that it is a stronger predictor than contingent reward; however, comparison of the difference between the two using a Fisher r to z transformation showed that the correlations were not significantly different ($z = .67, NS$). As such, Hypothesis 2b was not supported.

Table 8

Correlations Between Engagement and Leadership Styles

	Engagement
Transformational	.38*
Contingent Reward	.32*
Management by Exception-Active	-.06
Management by Exception-Passive	-.21*
Abusive Supervision	-.27*

$n=195$. * Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Hypothesis 3 was supported: frequency of abusive supervision behaviors was inversely related to engagement ($r = -.27, p < .05$). Leaders who disrespect, embarrass, or mistreat their employees will find it more difficult to engage their staff and create a team-oriented culture. Abusive supervision is thought to create a more actively hostile work environment than the passively unsupportive environment created by MBE-passive type leader behaviors. Although the trend of the data thus far suggests that abusive supervision has a stronger negative relationship to engagement than does MBE-passive, the difference between the two was not statistically different from zero ($z = .62, ns$).

Personality and Leadership Styles

Next, I examined personality as a predictor of leadership style. Table 9 contains intercorrelations among personality traits. Correlations between personality and leadership styles can be found in Table 10. In the socioanalytic motivation framework (Hogan, 1991; Hogan & Holland, 2003), personality traits are patterns of behavior directed at the need to *get along* with others or the need to *get ahead* in the social hierarchy. Stability, Friendliness, Dutifulness, and Sociability traits were hypothesized to facilitate the development of social networks and support, and thus were expected to predict leadership behaviors that emphasize getting along with others. Leadership, Creativity, and Quickness traits were hypothesized to drive a leader toward advancing in power, status, and achievement. As such, these traits were expected to predict leadership behaviors targeted at getting ahead in the organization.

Table 9

Intercorrelations Among Personality Traits

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1 Get Along Traits	--							
2 Stability	--	--						
3 Sociability	--	.22*	--					
4 Friendliness	--	.43*	.43*	--				
5 Dutifulness	--	.41*	-.06	.54*	--			
6 Get Ahead Traits	.84*	--	--	--	--	--		
7 Leadership	--	.49*	.43*	.63*	.53*	--	--	
8 Creativity	--	.47*	.31*	.80*	.50*	--	.55*	--
9 Quickness	--	.44*	.33*	.80*	.54*	--	.61*	.87*

$n=130$. * Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Table 10

Correlations Between Leadership Styles and Personality

	Get Along					Get Ahead			
	Traits	Stability	Sociability	Friendliness	Dutifulness	Traits	Leadership	Creativity	Quickness
Transformational	.12	.30*	.07	-.01	.01	.07	.17	.05	-.01
Individualized Consideration	.13	.27*	.07	.03	.01	.10	.16	.09	.04
Idealized Influence	.13	.26*	.09	-.01	.04	.07	.21*	.02	-.03
Intellectual Stimulation	-.01	.17*	.03	-.12	-.09	-.05	.03	-.04	-.10
Inspirational Motivation	.19*	.37*	.07	.06	.06	.12	.22*	.09	.03
Contingent Reward	.16	.28*	.14	.02	.02	.11	.25*	.04	.03
MBE-Active	.04	.04	.04	.02	.02	.02	-.05	.08	.02
MBE-Passive	.01	-.04	-.01	.03	.04	-.01	-.10	.06	-.01
Abusive Supervision	-.20*	-.35*	.03	-.03	-.26*	-.15	-.21*	-.08	-.10

n=130. * Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

To test these hypotheses, the traits that represented each socioanalytic motive were averaged and correlations with the appropriate leadership styles were analyzed. Specifically, the Stability, Sociability, Friendliness, and Dutifulness scale scores were averaged to create a getting along composite score and the Leadership, Creativity, and Quickness scale scores were averaged to create a getting ahead composite score. Hypothesis 4 was not supported. The getting along composite score was not significantly related to either (a) individualized consideration or (b) idealized influence leadership behaviors. Looking at each of the traits individually, Stability was the only trait significantly related to these leadership behaviors ($r = .27$ and $r = .26$, $p < .05$, respectively). This can be interpreted to mean that individuals who are more emotionally stable and show a more positive attitude exhibited more considerate and ethical leadership behaviors. In fact, this trait was related to each of the four facets of transformational leadership, suggesting that it may be a useful predictor of this leadership style.

The personality traits directed at getting ahead were hypothesized to predict two facets of transformational leadership: (Hypothesis 5a) intellectual stimulation and (5b) inspirational motivation. The data fail to show a link between the set of getting ahead traits and these leadership behaviors, thus not supporting Hypotheses 5a and 5b. Of these traits, Leadership was the only one to show a significant correlation to either of these criteria. Specifically, the Leadership trait was related to inspirational motivation ($r = .22$, $p < .05$) indicating that those who are high in Leadership are somewhat more likely to communicate an optimistic vision for the future and inspire their teams to work toward the collective goals. Similarly, Hypothesis 5c was not supported as the frequency of

contingent reward behaviors was not predicted by the cluster of traits representing the motivation to get ahead ($r = .11$, *NS*). However, this leadership style was significantly related to trait Leadership ($r = .25$, $p < .05$), which is one trait representative of the socioanalytic drive to get ahead. Contingent reward behaviors were also related to Stability ($r = .28$, $p < .05$). As a trait reflective of the drive to get along with others, Stability was not hypothesized to predict contingent reward behaviors. However, given the high correlation between contingent reward and transformational leadership, it is reasonable to expect these two leadership styles to show a similar pattern of relationships with other variables.

Hypothesis 5d was also not supported; abusive supervision was not related to the getting ahead trait composite as predicted. Hypothesis 6 further explores the nature of these relationships by predicting an interaction effect. High levels of traits directed at getting ahead and low levels of traits directed at getting along were expected to predict the highest frequency of abusive supervision behaviors. To test this, an interaction variable was created such that a high score on the interaction term indicated high getting ahead traits and low getting along traits. This required the getting along composite score to be reverse coded and then multiplied by the getting ahead composite score. The reason for reverse coding the getting along composite score was to ensure that those managers who scored highest on the interaction term were those who were high in Leadership, Creativity, and Quickness, and were low in Stability, Sociability, Friendliness, Dutifulness. As a result, individuals who received the lowest score on the interaction term were those who were low in getting ahead traits and high in getting along traits- the opposite configuration of the hypothesized trait interaction. Those who received mid-

range scores were either high in both sets of traits or low in both sets of traits. The reverse scoring of the getting along composite before computing the interaction variable was necessary because without reverse coding first, the interaction term score would have been indistinguishable between those managers who were high in getting ahead traits and low in getting along traits and those managers who were low in getting ahead traits and high in getting along traits.

Although the getting along traits showed the expected inverse relationship ($r = -.20, p < .05$), the interaction variable was not significantly correlated with abusive supervision ($r = .06, ns$). Nonetheless, I conducted a hierarchical regression because this is the standard technique to evaluate the incremental validity of an interaction term over the individual predictor variables. To conduct the regression, I entered the two original predictors into the regression equation in the first step and then entered the interaction term in the second step. The total variance explained in abusive supervision was examined for a statistically significant increase in the new model. See Table 11 for results. The data did not support this hypothesis; the interaction term did not explain significant variance beyond that explained by the individual predictors ($\Delta R^2 = .03, ns$).

Table 11

Hierarchical Regression of Abusive Supervision

Variable	β Step 1	β Step 2
Get Ahead Traits	.07	.94
Get Along Traits (reverse-coded)	.26	1.19*
Interaction		-.54
R^2	.04	.07*
ΔR^2		.03

n= 130. *Significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

DV=Abusive Supervision

The correlation found between abusive supervision and the getting along trait composite is driven by a correlation with two traits: Stability ($r = -.35, p < .05$) and Dutifulness ($r = -.26, p < .05$). The data indicate that abusive supervision is not related to extreme ambition, rather it may primarily be a reflection of a reduced ability to control emotion and stress level and a tendency toward impulsivity, taking risks, and breaking rules.

Motivation to Lead as a Moderator

Motivation to lead (MTL) was predicted to moderate the relationship between personality and leadership styles such that each of the three motivations- affective-identity, social-normative, and noncalculative- interacted with personality to better predict leadership style. Building on Hypothesis 5c, Hypothesis 7 predicted that the link between personality traits directed at getting ahead and frequency of contingent reward behaviors would be moderated by MTL. Specifically, a higher social-normative MTL should increase the frequency of contingent reward behaviors among those who are already high in these ambition and achievement-oriented traits. This hypothesis was tested using hierarchical regression against contingent reward behaviors, see Table 12 for results. The criterion was regressed on the getting ahead composite variable and the social-normative motivation to lead score, and the R-square was noted. Next, an interaction variable was created by multiplying the two predictor variables (getting ahead composite score x social-normative MTL). Finally, I regressed contingent reward on the two original predictors and noted the total variance explained (R^2). Then, in step two, I entered the interaction variable into the regression equation and the change in overall variance explained in contingent reward behaviors was examined for a statistically significant increase. The data did not support this hypothesis; the interaction term did not explain additional variance beyond the individual predictors ($\Delta R^2 = .00, NS$).

Testing Hypothesis 8 also required the recoding of some predictor variables. This hypothesis stated that abusive supervision would be best predicted by considering the interaction between high levels of traits directed at getting ahead, low levels of traits directed at getting along, and low noncalculative MTL. This hypothesis was also tested

using hierarchical regression to estimate the incremental variance explained in abusive supervision behaviors by this interaction term, see Table 15 for results . In this case, a three-way interaction variable was formed by multiplying the Get Ahead composite score, the reverse-coded Get Along composite score, and the reverse-coded noncalculative MTL score. Because this hypothesis predicts a three way interaction, the regression required three steps. First, abusive supervision was regressed on the three individual predictors, second, the two-way interaction variables were entered in this regression equation, and finally the three way interaction variable was entered. This interaction failed to account for additional variance in abusive supervision behaviors ($\Delta R^2 = .00, NS$).

Table 12

Hierarchical Regression of Contingent Reward Leadership

Variable	β Step 1	β Step 2
Get Ahead Traits	.05	.16
Social-Normative MTL	.18	.28
Interaction		-.17
R^2	.04	.04
ΔR^2		.00

$n = 130$. DV=Contingent Reward Leadership

Table 13

Hierarchical Regression of Abusive Supervision

Variable	β Step 1	β Step 2	β Step 3
Get Ahead Traits	.06	-.23	-1.82
Get Along Traits (reverse-coded)	.19	-.82	-2.63
Noncalculative MTL (reverse-coded)	.20*	-3.11	-5.81
Get Ahead x (Rev) Get Along		-.20	.84
Get Ahead x (Rev) Noncalculative		1.05	3.60
(Rev) Get Along x (Rev) Noncalculative		3.06*	6.85
Three-way Interaction			-2.82
R^2	.08*	.18*	.18*
ΔR^2		.10*	.01 ^a

$n=130$. * Significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

^a Apparent discrepancy is due to rounding.

DV=Abusive Supervision

Motivation to lead also failed to emerge as a moderator in the prediction of transformational leadership. Hypothesis 9 predicted that high levels of getting along traits, getting ahead traits, and an affective-identify MTL would result in a higher frequency of transformational leadership behaviors. To test this, an interaction variable was created by multiplying the predictors. Then a hierarchical regression was conducted by first regressing the transformational leadership criterion onto the three single predictors. Second, the criterion was regressed onto the three predictors and the two-way interaction terms. Finally, the criterion was regressed onto the three individual predictors, the three two-way interaction terms, and the three way interaction term. The change in variance explained by each model was compared for incremental validity. See Table 14 for results. As with the other interaction effects examined in this study, this three-way interaction term did not add incremental validity for the prediction of transformational leadership ($\Delta R^2 = .00$, *NS*). Of the predictors examined in this study, the only one that significantly predicted transformational leadership was Stability ($r = .30$, $p < .05$).

Table 14

Hierarchical Regression of Transformational Leadership

Variable	β Step 1	β Step 2	β Step 3
Get Ahead Traits	-.14	1.07	2.59
Get Along Traits	.20	1.33	2.44
Affective-Identify MTL	.13	-.86	.58
Get Ahead x Get Along		-3.22*	-5.78
Get Ahead x Affective-Identify MTL		1.07	-1.36
Get Along x Affective-Identify MTL		.59	-1.53
Three-way Interaction			3.42
R^2	.03	.07	.08
ΔR^2		.04	.00 ^a

$n=130$. * Significant at .05 level (2-tailed). ^a Apparent discrepancy is due to rounding. DV=Transformational Leadership.

Hypothesis 10 and 11 explore whether transformational leadership and abusive supervision mediate the links between the predictor variables and employee engagement. However, these models are not supported by the data as evidenced by the lack of correlations in the expected patterns between the leader individual difference variables and the leadership style criteria. As such, leadership style cannot be a mediator where no

relationship exists. However, for the purpose of testing each hypothesis that was originally proposed, the mediational models were tested here using Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach. It should be noted that structural equation modeling (SEM) is sometimes the preferred method to test causal models and estimate path coefficients. The drawback to using this approach is that large sample sizes are required to test even simple models. Research indicates that a sample size of 400-500 should be the minimum required to conduct SEM (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). For this study, it would be inappropriate to test a complex model such as the mediated moderation model proposed here using SEM with this sample size ($n=130$). Baron and Kenny's approach is an appropriate alternative and was used to test Hypotheses 10 and 11.

In this approach, the first step is to estimate the correlation between the predictor and the mediator. Because the predictor is expected to cause the mediator, the two should be significantly correlated. The second step in this approach is to estimate the correlation between the predictor and criterion. The third and final step is to partial out the variance associated with the mediator and determine if the correlation between predictor and criterion was significantly decreased. If so, then support is found for the mediated model.

Applying this to Hypothesis 10, I first determined the correlation between the three way interaction term (Getting Along composite score x Getting Ahead composite score x affective-identity MTL) that was formed when testing Hypothesis 9, and the frequency of transformational leadership behaviors. This correlation was not significant, indicating that this interaction does not predict the mediator of leadership style, ($r= .13$, *NS*). The correlation between the predictor and employee engagement also failed to meet a level of statistical significance ($r= .14$, *NS*). Finally, the correlation between the

interaction variable predictor and engagement outcome was somewhat smaller when controlling for transformational leadership ($r = .10, NS$), however the difference did not reach a level of statistical significance. Hypothesis 10 was not supported by the data.

Hypothesis 11 predicted that high levels of traits directed at getting ahead, low levels of traits directed at getting along, and a low noncalculative motivation to lead would result in a higher frequency of abusive supervision behaviors, which then result in lower employee engagement. This hypothesis was tested using the Baron and Kenny approach described above, with similar results. The interaction variable predictor (low Get Ahead composite score x Get Ahead composite score x low noncalculative motivation to lead) was significantly correlated to the mediator proposed here, abusive supervision ($r = .25, p < .05$). As shown in the test for Hypothesis 8, this interaction term does not add significant incremental validity over the individual predictors and two-way interaction terms. The interaction term was not significantly related to the outcome, employee engagement ($r = .03, NS$). This correlation does not decrease significantly when controlling for abusive supervision (partial $r = .10, NS$). As such, Hypothesis 11 is also not supported.

Ancillary Analyses

The seven factor model of personality used in this study was chosen because this framework showed clear links to the socioanalytic theory driving the hypotheses. Given that this framework provided disappointing results, another common model was also explored. The Big Five model is a widely accepted model of personality, and consists of the traits Extraversion, Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness, Emotional Stability, and Agreeableness. To reframe the seven factor model into the Big Five, Sociability and

Leadership were averaged to form the trait Extraversion, and Creativity and Quickness were averaged to form Openness to Experience. The Dutifulness scale was used to represent Conscientiousness, Stability for Emotional Stability, and Friendliness for Agreeableness. Descriptive statistics and intercorrelations among the new traits- Extraversion and Openness to Experience- are presented in Table 15.

Table 15

Descriptive Statistics for Big Five Traits

	Mean	SD	α	Skewness	Kurtosis	Extraversion	Openness to Exper	Emotional Stability	Agreeable	Conscientious
Extraversion	3.49	0.54	.85	.63	.57	-	-	.42*	.62*	.28*
Openness to Experience	3.45	0.74	.93	.49	-.76	.55*	-	.47*	.83*	.54*

n= 130. Note: The Big Five traits included in this table were extracted from the IPIP scales as indicated: Extraversion

(Sociability and Leadership), Openness to Experience (Creativity and Quickness), Emotional Stability (Stability), Agreeable (Friendliness), and Conscientious (Prudence).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Correlations between the Big Five traits and employee engagement were examined (see Table 16). Emotional Stability and Openness to Experience show positive correlations with employee engagement. As with the seven factor model presented earlier in this paper, Emotional Stability is the only trait of the Big Five that is significantly related to transformational leadership. However, the idealized influence component is also correlated with Extraversion. Recall that this facet of transformational leadership is about leading by example and displaying ethical behavior. Emotional Stability and Conscientiousness are linked with lower levels of Abusive Supervision; these results are similar to those of the seven factor model presented in Table 10.

Table 16

Correlations Between Big Five and Study Outcomes

	Extra- version	Openness to Exper	Emotional Stability	Agree able	Conscien- tious
Engagement	.12	.19*	.22*	.08	.01
Transformational	.14	.02	.30*	-.01	.01
Indiv. Consideration	.13	.07	.27*	.03	.01
Idealized Influence	.17*	.00	.26*	-.01	.04
Intellect.Stimulation	.03	-.07	.17*	-.12	-.09
Inspir. Motivation	.17	.06	.37*	.06	.06
Contingent Reward	.23	.04	.28*	.02	.02
MBE-Active	-.01	.05	.04	.02	.02
MBE-Passive	-.07	.03	-.04	.03	.04
Abusive Supervision	-.11	-.10	-.35*	-.03	-.26*

n=130. * Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Chapter IV

Discussion

Summary of Results

This study explored an important outcome variable that has been receiving more and more attention in organizations. To stay ahead of the competition, organization leaders and/or their human resource advisors must stay current in practices that can help to increase their likelihood of success. The most effective leaders are those who understand that their role is to accomplish through others and understand that they must keep the workforce engaged in the organization's mission and goals and motivate them to work toward this end. When employees believe that their work is contributing toward the accomplishment of a mutually beneficial goal and is meaningful to them on a personal level, they will be more likely to work harder and longer and display discretionary effort toward meeting the goal. Because the leader is responsible for conveying the goals and vision and for helping each employee to understand his part in the team's objectives, the leader plays a large role in creating an engaging work environment.

Many of the leadership styles assessed here showed the expected relationships to employee engagement. The more involved, considerate, stimulating, and inspiring leadership behaviors showed a strong link to higher levels of employee engagement. The leadership styles represented by more insulting, unsupportive, and uninvolved behaviors were associated with lower levels of employee engagement. Specifically,

transformational leadership showed the strongest positive link to employee engagement. When leaders are able to convey an inspiring vision for the future, encourage innovative approaches to meet goals, facilitate development for each employee, and inspire trust and loyalty by upholding high ethical standards, they are more likely to see high levels of engagement among their employees. This is consistent with May, Harter, and Gilson's (2004) finding that employees are more engaged when they find meaningfulness in their work. Contingent reward behaviors showed the next strongest link to employee engagement. These leader behaviors reflect the basic reward-for-performance approach that allows employees to understand expectations for performance and the rewards associated with meeting those expectations. This is another important component of effective leadership, in addition to the transformational leader behaviors described previously. It is unfortunate that some leaders choose to ridicule and embarrass their employees, break promises, lie, and generally mistreat their employees. These types of behaviors are representative of an abusive supervision style and this study shows that they are associated with lower levels of engagement.

This study was intended to introduce personality and motivation to lead as predictors of leadership styles that cultivate an engaged workforce. To guide predictions around how and why personality would relate to leader behaviors, I used socioanalytic theory to link traits to leader behaviors. Contrary to the study's hypotheses, use of this framework did not contribute to the predictive power of personality. Hogan and Holland (2003) were successfully able to use socioanalytic theory to align personality predictors and job performance criteria to result in stronger than average correlations. They did not combine the traits to form an overall composite as was done in this study; instead, they

assigned traits to each socioanalytic motive, but used the full range of traits within the seven factor model. Similarly, in this study, the trait approach yielded some significant results where the socioanalytic framework did not. This indicates that the reason the socioanalytic approach did not hold up well in this study was due to the broad banding of traits used in the regression analyses. Hogan and Roberts (1996) comment on the fidelity-bandwidth issue and argue that broader predictors best predict broader criteria, and narrower predictors best predict narrower criteria. In this study, the broad socioanalytic motives may have been too wide-reaching to show significant correlations with the specific leadership behaviors. As such, the approach of aligning predictors and criteria through theory is still endorsed, but it is also important to ensure appropriate span of the variables at hand.

Reviewing the results of the seven factor and Big Five models of personality explored in this study, Emotional Stability and the Leadership facet of Extraversion hold the strongest links to leadership. Trait Stability reflects the tendency to be calm, not easily irritated, and handle stress well. This trait predicted higher frequency of transformational leader behaviors and contingent reward behaviors. Further, low levels of stability also predicted more abusive supervision and laissez-faire leader behaviors. These findings suggest that poor leadership may stem from an inability to handle stress and pressure. Leaders who are able to stay calm during times of stress are able to maintain focus on the goals at hand and keep the team in a positive and upbeat frame of mind. Trait Leadership reflects the tendency to take initiative and actively seek out opportunities to lead. Managers who are higher in Leadership are also more confident and

optimistic about their ability to lead the team and are less likely to become discouraged by obstacles and setbacks.

These results vary somewhat from meta-analytic findings of Bono and Judge (2004). Of the Big Five, Bono and Judge found that Extraversion was the strongest predictor of transformational leadership, with an observed average correlation that was somewhat stronger than that observed within this study ($r_{obs} = .19, p < .05$ versus this study $r = .14, ns$). They also found that transformational leadership was negatively related to Neuroticism. However, the effect size was smaller than that found in this study ($r_{obs} = -.15, p < .05$ versus this study $r = -.30, p < .05$). These differences may be a result of the characteristics of this sample. One fifth of this sample reported working in retail sales, an industry in which maintaining a consistently pleasant mood and happy disposition may be more important than some other types of work environments such as office work, construction, or information technology positions that may have been more prevalent in the samples included in Bono and Judge's study.

I previously hypothesized that abusive supervision tendencies resulted from a strong ambitious drive at the expense of getting along with others. The data here failed to support this hypothesis, instead indicating this hostile leadership style is linked with mood instability, lower tendency toward social dominance, and impulsivity or disregard for the rules (negative relationships with Stability, Leadership, and Dutifulness). The lack of relationship to Sociability and Friendliness suggest that abusive supervision is not a reflection of a disinterest in building relationships or lack of consideration for others as originally predicted. However, Stability is the only one of these traits to predict engagement level of employees. Hogan and Holland (2003) found a similar result in that

Adjustment – the Hogan Personality Inventory’s version of Stability – had the strongest validity of the seven traits for predicting performance when the criteria reflective of the drive to get along and get ahead were combined. When considering the remaining personality traits assessed in this study, Openness to Experience also showed a significant, albeit small, relationship to engagement. Interestingly, this trait was not related to any of the leader behaviors studied here. Given this data, Stability and Creativity are the only traits that seem to show some potential use for selecting effective leaders, but more research is needed before recommending either personality trait for widespread assessment and selection practice.

Motivation to lead is a construct proposed by Chan and Drasgow (2001) to reflect a leader’s motivation to ascend to a position of leadership. The three motives, affective-identity, social-normative, and noncalculative, were expected to moderate the relationships between personality and leadership styles. Consideration of this factor as a moderator did not add to the prediction of leader behaviors in this study. When examining possible direct links between each of these drives and leadership styles, the data indicate that abusive supervision is related to lower levels of Noncalculative and Social-Normative motivation to lead. Taken together, these results indicate that abusive supervisors may take a more calculated approach and are more inclined to weigh the personal risks and rewards when deciding whether to take on leadership. They are less driven by a sense of duty or obligation to serve and help their team. However, neither of the three motivations to lead predicted employee engagement, and as such would be inappropriate to use for selection or placement purposes when employee engagement is the goal.

Although the majority of hypotheses in this study were not supported by the data, it may be fortunate for organizations that effective leadership behaviors are not necessarily pre-determined by personality or motivational characteristics. This study makes a valuable contribution by showing the link between leadership style and engagement; my hope is that this will promote further research in this area and encourage organizations to implement training and development efforts around these leadership styles. Barling, Weber, and Kelloway (1996) found success with training managers to use transformational leadership behaviors. It is a heartening idea that effective leadership is less related to innate personality and may, in fact, be quite trainable. Those with the desire and drive to become an effective leader may be able to become just that with some training and coaching.

Where personality is concerned, this study did show a link between emotional stability and effective leadership; future research should examine whether training on coping skills and stress management can increase transformational leader behaviors and decrease the frequency of abusive supervision behaviors. Although the results of this study differ from the meta-analytic findings of Bono and Judge (2004), our papers do, however, share the conclusion that additional non-dispositional determinants of leadership style should be explored. Examples worth researching include prior leadership training and experience in diverse leadership roles.

Exploring Causality

The next section is devoted to discussing the directionality of the relationships found here. In this paper, I have discussed the possible links between leader personality and motivation, leadership style, and employee engagement as though it is the leader's

responsibility to cultivate engagement within the employee. This assumes a degree of causality from leader behavior to employee engagement, when in fact, a variety of scenarios could explain this correlation. I will describe five specific examples that are reasonable possibilities and deserve future examination to support or disprove.

The first scenario is that transformational leadership behaviors create a state of psychological engagement in employees. The rationale behind this is that the leader is conveying a compelling vision for the future and causing the employee to feel competent, important, and valued in their efforts toward realizing that vision. Testing this theory would require much more experimental control than what was present in this study. Leaders would need to be randomly assigned to exhibit different leadership styles to randomly assigned groups of employees. Systematic differences in engagement levels over time between the groups would indicate causality between leadership style and employee engagement. However, it is likely that the contrived nature of this design would limit the generalizability of the results to organizations due to low external validity.

A second scenario that could explain the correlations between leadership style and engagement is that leaders do not necessarily cultivate engagement within the employee, but do create an engaged work team by attracting those employees who are predisposed to be engaged in their work. In this example, leadership style is still responsible for cultivating an engaged workforce, but not directly effecting psychological engagement. Support for this theory could be found by using a time-series design and monitoring the flow of employees over time to and from leaders who exemplify each leadership style.

A third scenario is the converse of the second. It is possible that a transformational leader will be more likely to accept a role as head of a team of highly engaged employees and may seek out job opportunities that allow them to work with engaged teams. This option suggests that the engaged employee is attracting the transformational leader and repelling the abusive leader. This scenario could also be studied by using the design described above and comparing the directionality of staffing moves over time.

A fourth scenario is that engaged employees are skilled at upward influence and are able to motivate their manager to utilize more transformational type behaviors and less hostile, demeaning behaviors. This scenario suggests that employee engagement is causing leadership behavior. A true test of this theory would be very difficult as it would require experimental control to randomly assign employees to hold varying levels of engagement. A quasi-experimental design would be more appropriate, but still quite challenging. An example design would involve measuring employee engagement and then using that to assign employees to work with randomly assigned leaders and measuring the leadership styles over time. If results showed that the leaders who worked with more engaged employees showed an increase in transformational behaviors and a decrease in abusive supervision over time, this would provide support for this scenario.

The fifth scenario is that a third variable is the cause of both leadership style and employee engagement. Possible causal factors include aspects of the organizational culture, perceptions of organizational justice from both the manager and the subordinate, and other leader dispositional variables not studied here (e.g. integrity, emotional intelligence). I recommend additional research on these and other factors that may impact

leadership style and employee engagement in order to inform organizations and encourage practices that cultivate an engaged workforce.

Macey and Schneider (2008) suggest that some of these processes may occur jointly to produce the observed link between transformational leadership and engagement; specifically, individuals who possess trait engagement both choose and proactively create engaging work environments. They are better able to identify which managers will encourage and support innovation, independent thought, and proactive behaviors and they will influence and encourage this among their workgroups. This could be further explored by measuring levels of engagement in workers and tracking their career moves, engagement levels, and leaders' behaviors over time. This would require a very complex longitudinal study that would involve a large starting sample because one would be unlikely to attain high levels of leader participation across many career moves, and attrition rates would pose a significant problem for studies lasting ten years or more.

Limitations of the Current Research

This study has several limitations that impact the generalizability of the results. One limitation often found in psychological research is the use of a student sample. In this study, students comprised approximately two thirds of the sample. All participants were employed, but it is a reasonable criticism that the types of employment held by students may not be representative of professional and higher level roles that are not often held by students. One third of the sample were employed individuals who were not recruited through the student participant pool and are likely to be representative of those professional level jobs. Due to the anonymous administration of the survey, it is not

possible to identify which responses belong to non-students to test for differences between the two groups.

Similar to the above limitation, the size of the sample is also a concern. Ideally, a larger sample would be collected in order to fully test the mediated models predicted here. A desirable sample would be a large cross-section of employees across organizations and levels. A minimum $N = 500$ would be more appropriate to use advanced statistical techniques such as structural equation modeling or tests of moderated mediation such as that called for by the research questions proposed here. Some may criticize the use of Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach for testing mediation on the grounds that a correlation between the predictor and a distal outcome variable may be quite small and is not necessary for establishing mediation. I suggest that this test was appropriate for this study given the stated goal of identifying characteristics upon which to base selection or placement decisions for leaders. For this reason, it is important to first show a significant and meaningful correlation between the predictor and the outcome of interest if the data is to support and defend hiring practices based on that predictor. Baron and Kenny's method does rely on first finding this relationship between the predictor and the outcome and is appropriate for this reason.

Directions for Future Research

Given the low to moderate correlations between leadership style and engagement, further research is warranted to study whether frequency of abusive supervision behavior declines with training and development. This study did not gather data around the extent and nature of past leadership training as this was beyond the scope of the research questions at hand. The failure to show substantial links between leader personality or

motivation to lead and leadership style suggests that there are other factors that determine how one behaves in leadership roles and the types of behavior one exhibits when interacting with subordinates.

Other important factors in cultivating employee engagement may be unrelated to the leader and his/her interactions with the employee. Research suggests that characteristics of the job itself can impact levels of engagement (Kahn, 1990; May, Harter, & Gilson, 2004). May, Harter, and Gilson found that job enrichment (based on Hackman and Oldham's 1980 model) was positively related to perceived meaningfulness of work, which led to engagement. A transformational leader will work to facilitate the perception of meaningfulness of an employee's work, but it is possible that employees will find their work inherently meaningful and fulfilling beyond the influence or impact of transformational leadership. Additional research should seek to uncover the components of their employees' roles that leaders and organizations should try to enhance. For example, it is likely that facilitating an employee's understanding of the task significance would create a stronger sense of engagement than would increasing feedback.

Another factor that may prove to be an important predictor of employee engagement is the degree of fit with the organization and/or job. When employees are able to work in an environment in which they can behave in a manner consistent with their values, beliefs, and interests, then they are more likely to become psychologically tied to their role and the goals of their team. May, Harter, and Gilson (2004) found some evidence for this, and further research is likely to uncover more information about the

nature and role that person-organization and person-job fit plays in cultivating engagement.

This study hypothesized that leader-subordinate interactions were a primary driver of employee engagement. It may be that coworker relationships are also a significant driver of engagement. A supportive network of colleagues or a trusted mentor may help the employee to find personal fulfillment and meaning in their work, leading to an increase in work engagement.

Contributions of the Current Study

Hypotheses around the links between transformational leadership, abusive supervision, and employee engagement were largely supported. This study replicates earlier findings that transformational leadership is positively related to engagement (Christian, Garza, & Slaughter, 2011) and expands current understanding of other important leadership behaviors and their link to psychological engagement and the harnessing of one's self to their work. This is the first study to examine and compare the possible influence of effective and ineffective leadership (i.e. abusive supervision) on engagement.

The more complex hypotheses around the nature of personality and motivational predictors of leadership styles were not supported. Although socioanalytic theory provides a reasonable explanation around how and why personality relates to workplace behavior, findings from this study suggest that leadership style is not directly related to the drives to “get along” with others or “get ahead” in the social status hierarchy. Instead, results suggest that it may be the response to stressors and stability of mood that predict

one's leadership style. More research in this area with different employed samples is warranted.

Given the inconsistent relationships between the personality traits assessed here and leadership style, it is not recommended to use personality in organizational settings to select leaders when employee engagement is the explicit goal. Instead, it may be more beneficial for organizations to focus their resources on training and development for leaders to take on a more transformational and contingent reward style and avoid all behaviors associated with abusive supervision, laissez-faire, and passive management behaviors. Prior research suggests that some aspects of transformational leadership are trainable (Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996); further exploration of this and the ability to eliminate abusive supervision behaviors is needed.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Email to Employee Participants (Non-Student Version)

Subject line: University of South Florida research project

Thank you for agreeing to participate in the study: Cultivating Employee Engagement
(eIRB# 1837).

Link to survey: [link provided by Survey Monkey]

*Note that this link is unique for you. Do not share it with anyone else.

To participate in this study, you will be asked to complete a brief online survey (10-15 min). In addition, we will need to collect information from your manager by sending him or her a brief online survey as well. For the purpose of this study, your manager is the person at work who is responsible for evaluating your performance and making administrative decisions about your job (i.e. hiring, firing, and assigning work). All information collected from you and your manager will be confidential (your manager will not need to provide his/her name). For your additional protection, your manager will not be informed of the survey questions or answers you completed. Your manager's survey will NOT contain any questions that reference you or your work performance.

Participation in this study is voluntary and you may stop at any time If you have any questions or concerns about this study, please contact the primary investigator, Amy Taylor, at amtaylo3@mail.usf.edu or the University of South Florida IRB office of Research Integrity and Compliance at (813) 974-5683.

To opt out of participating in this study, click here: [link provided by Survey Monkey]

Appendix B

Email to Employee Participants

(Student Version)

Subject line: University of South Florida research project (SONA)

Thank you for agreeing to participate in the study: Cultivating Employee Engagement (eIRB# 1837)! This study is intended to gather individuals' opinions and attitudes about their workplaces in order to research ways to make improvements. This project is being conducted as part of a doctoral dissertation through the University of South Florida.

To participate in this study, you will be asked to complete a brief online survey (10-15 min). In addition, we will need to collect information from your manager by sending him or her a brief online survey as well. For the purpose of this study, your manager is the person at work who is responsible for evaluating your performance and making administrative decisions about your job (i.e. hiring, firing, and assigning work). All information collected from you and your manager will be confidential (your manager will not need to provide his/her name). For your additional protection, your manager will not be informed of the survey questions or answers you completed. Your manager's survey will NOT contain any questions that reference you or your work performance.

Link to survey: [link provided by Survey Monkey]

*Note that this link is unique for you. Do not share it with anyone else.

Participation in this study is voluntary and you may stop at any time. If you have any questions or concerns about this study, please contact the primary investigator, Amy Taylor, at amtaylo3@mail.usf.edu or the University of South Florida IRB office of Research Integrity and Compliance at (813) 974-5683.

For course credit via the SONA system: after completing this experiment you will be awarded 1 point in the SONA system. If you choose not to participate in research experiments, please see your instructor for alternative methods to obtain course credit.

To opt out of participating in this study, click here: [link provided by Survey Monkey]

Appendix C

Email to Managers

Subject line: University of South Florida research project (managers)

You are receiving this email because one of your employees has agreed to participate in a research study being conducted through the University of South Florida. Part of this project involves collecting survey information from the manager as well. To help your employee, we ask that you complete a brief survey containing questions about your opinions and attitudes, including a personality survey. This questionnaire should take approximately 10 minutes to complete. The employee will NOT have access to your responses and all data will be collected anonymously (not tied to your name) in order to protect your privacy. *You may only complete this survey once, if you have already done so for another employee do not take this survey again.*

You will need to enter the code below on the survey website. This code was developed to allow us to collect your survey responses while maintaining your anonymity.

Link to survey: [link provided by Survey Monkey]

7 digit secret code:

This study is being conducted as part of a doctoral dissertation intended to research attitudes and opinions and how they relate to the workplace. Participation in this study is voluntary and you may stop at any time. If you have any questions or concerns about this study, please contact the primary investigator, Amy Taylor, at amtaylo3@mail.usf.edu or the University of South Florida IRB office of Research Integrity and Compliance at (813) 974-5683. Reference IRB# 1837 (study name: Cultivating Employee Engagement).

To opt out of participating in this study, click this link: [link provided by Survey Monkey]

Appendix D

Email to Recruit Government Employee Participants

Subject line: research survey (City of _____)

****Please help! I am working towards completing my doctoral dissertation and I need your help to finish. You were randomly selected among a small group of City of _____ employees to participate in this research study and complete a short anonymous online survey. See detailed information below.****

This study is being conducted as part of a doctoral dissertation through the University of South Florida. It is intended to gather individuals' opinions and attitudes about their workplaces in order to research ways to make improvements. Your participation would be greatly appreciated.

To participate in this study, you will be asked to complete a brief online survey (10-15 min). In addition, we will need to collect information from your manager by sending him or her a brief online survey as well. For the purpose of this study, your manager is the person at work who is responsible for evaluating your performance and making

administrative decisions about your job (i.e. hiring, firing, and assigning work). All information collected from you and your manager will be anonymous and not tied to names. For your additional protection, your manager will not be informed of the survey questions or answers you completed. Your manager's survey will NOT contain any questions that reference you or your work performance.

If you are willing to participate in this study, please reply or send an email to Amy Taylor at amtaylo3@mail.usf.edu and provide the email address to which you would like the unique survey link to be sent. This procedure is being used to minimize unnecessary exposure of a proprietary scale.

Participation in this study is voluntary and you may stop at any time. If you have any questions or concerns about this study, please contact the primary investigator, Amy Taylor, at amtaylo3@mail.usf.edu or (813) 300-0931.

Thank you in advance for your help.

Appendix E

Email to Recruit University Faculty Employee Participants

Subject line: University of South Florida research study

You are invited to participate in a research project titled Cultivating Employee Engagement (IRB# Pro00001837). This study is being conducted as part of a doctoral dissertation through the University of South Florida. It is intended to gather individuals' opinions and attitudes about their workplaces in order to research ways to make improvements. Your participation would be greatly appreciated.

To participate in this study, you will be asked to complete a brief online survey (10-15 min). In addition, we will need to collect information from your department chair by sending him or her a brief online survey as well. All information collected from you and your chair will be anonymous and not tied to names (unless you choose to provide an email address that contains your name). For your additional protection, your chair will not be informed of the survey questions or answers you completed. Your chair's survey

will NOT contain any questions that reference you or your work performance. Note that in the survey, questions about your “manager” refer to your department chair.

If you are willing to participate in this study, please reply or send an email to Amy Taylor at amtaylo3@mail.usf.edu and provide the email address to which you would like the unique survey link to be sent. This procedure is being used to minimize unnecessary exposure of a proprietary scale.

Participation in this study is voluntary and you may stop at any time. If you have any questions or concerns about this study, please contact the primary investigator, Amy Taylor, at amtaylo3@mail.usf.edu or the University of South Florida IRB office of Research Integrity and Compliance at (813) 974-5683.

Appendix F

Employee Engagement Scale (adapted from May, Gilson, & Harter, 2004)

1. Performing my job is so absorbing that I forget about everything else.
2. I often think about other things when performing my job. R
3. I am rarely distracted when performing my job.
4. Time passes quickly when I perform my job.
5. I really put my heart into my job.
6. I get excited when I perform well on my job.
7. I often feel emotionally detached from my job. R
8. My own feelings are affected by how well I perform my job.
9. I exert a lot of energy performing my job.
10. I stay until the job is done.
11. I avoid working overtime whenever possible. R
12. I take work home to do.
13. I avoid working too hard. R
14. I rarely think about looking for a new job elsewhere.*

*Last item added to original scale.

Appendix G

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire-Rater Form

Sample Questions

Response options:

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

My direct supervisor:

1. Articulates a compelling vision of the future
2. Seeks differing perspectives when solving problems
3. Makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved
4. Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments
5. Fails to interfere until problems become serious

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Appendix H

Abusive Supervision Scale (Tepper 2000)

Response options:

- 1- I cannot remember him/her ever using this behavior with me.
- 2- He/she very seldom uses this behavior with me.
- 3- He/she occasionally uses this behavior with me.
- 4- He/she uses this behavior moderately often with me.
- 5- He/she uses this behavior very often with me.

My boss...

1. Ridicules me
2. Tells me my thoughts or feelings are stupid
3. Gives me the silent treatment
4. Puts me down in front of others
5. Invades my privacy
6. Reminds me of my past mistakes and failures
7. Doesn't give me credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort
8. Blames me to save himself/herself embarrassment
9. Breaks promises he/she makes

10. Expresses anger at me when he/she is mad for another reason
11. Makes negative comments about me to others
12. Is rude to me
13. Does not allow me to interact with my coworkers
14. Tells me I'm incompetent
15. Lies to me

Appendix I

Motivation to Lead Scale (Chan & Drasgow, 2001)

Rated on 5-point Likert scale (SA-SD)

Factor 1: Affective-Identity MTL

1. Most of the time, I prefer being a leader rather than a follower when working in a group.
2. I am the type of person who is not interested to lead others. R
3. I am definitely not a leader by nature. R
4. I am the type of person who likes to be in charge of others.
5. I believe I can contribute more to a group if I am a follower rather than a leader. R
6. I usually want to be the leader in the groups that I work in.
7. I am the type who would actively support a leader but prefers not to be appointed as leader. R
8. I have a tendency to take charge in most groups or teams that I work in.
9. I am seldom reluctant to be the leader of a group.

Factor 2: Noncalculative MTL

10. I am only interested to lead a group if there are clear advantages for me. R
11. I will never agree to lead if I cannot see any benefits from accepting that role. R

12. I would only agree to be a group leader if I know I can benefit from that role. R
13. I would agree to lead others even if there are no special rewards or benefits with that role.
14. I would want to know “what’s in it for me” if I am going to agree to lead a group. R
15. I never expect to get more privileges if I agree to lead a group.
16. If I agree to lead a group, I would never expect any advantages or special benefits.
17. I have more of my own problems to worry about than to be concerned about the rest of the group. R
18. Leading others is really more of a dirty job rather than an honorable one. R

Factor 3: Social-Normative MTL

19. I feel that I have a duty to lead others if I am asked.
20. I agree to lead whenever I am asked or nominated by the other members.
21. I was taught to believe in the value of leading others.
22. It is appropriate for people to accept leadership roles or positions when they are asked.
23. I have been taught that I should always volunteer to lead others if I can.
24. It is not right to decline leadership roles.
25. It is an honor and privilege to be asked to lead.
26. People should volunteer to lead rather than wait for others to ask or vote for them.
27. I would never agree to lead just because others voted for me. R

Appendix J

IPIP Personality Scales

International Personality Item Pool (IPIP) items measuring the seven factor model of personality (<http://ipip.ori.org>).

Stability

1. I rarely get irritated.
2. I am relaxed most of the time.
3. I seldom get mad.
4. I am not easily annoyed.
5. I am not easily bothered by things.
6. I have frequent mood swings. R
7. I get upset easily. R
8. I am often in a bad mood. R
9. I have days when I'm mad at the world. R
10. I get stressed out easily. R

Leadership

1. I take charge.
2. I express myself easily.
3. I try to lead others.

4. I think highly of myself.
5. I take the initiative.
6. I wait for others to lead the way. R
7. I am easily intimidated. R
8. I have a low opinion of myself. R
9. I am easily discouraged. R
10. I find it difficult to approach others. R

Sociability

1. I like to attract attention.
2. I love large parties.
3. I enjoy being part of a loud crowd.
4. I amuse my friends.
5. I like to amuse others.
6. I seek adventure.
7. I love action.
8. I make myself the center of attention.
9. I don't like crowded events. R
10. I dislike loud music. R

Friendliness

1. I make friends easily.
2. I feel at ease with people.

3. I cheer people up.
4. I am interested in people.
5. I warm up quickly to others.
6. I am not really interested in others. R
7. I am hard to get to know. R
8. I keep others at a distance. R
9. I avoid contacts with others. R
10. I want to be left alone. R

Dutifulness

1. I respect authority.
2. I try to follow the rules.
3. I stick to the rules.
4. I would never cheat on my taxes.
5. I do things by the book.
6. I enjoy being reckless. R
7. I use swear words. R
8. I do things that others find strange. R
9. I do crazy things. R
10. I do unexpected things. R

Creativity

1. I like to solve complex problems.

2. I love to read challenging material.
3. I love to think up new ways of doing things.
4. I have a vivid imagination.
5. I know how things work.
6. I am not interested in abstract ideas. R
7. I am not interested in theoretical discussions. R
8. I avoid difficult reading material. R
9. I try to avoid complex people. R
10. I do not have a good imagination. R

Quickness

1. I read quickly.
2. I like to read.
3. I have a rich vocabulary.
4. I am quick to understand things.
5. I catch on to things quickly.
6. I can handle a lot of information.
7. I read slowly. R
8. I skip difficult words while reading. R
9. I have a poor vocabulary. R
10. I don't understand things. R

Appendix K
Demographic Items

The following was asked of the employees (subordinates):

1. Please enter your age.
2. What is your sex?
 - a. Male
 - b. Female
3. What is your race?
 - a. Asian
 - b. Black
 - c. Hispanic
 - d. White/Non-Hispanic
 - e. Other
4. In which industry do you work?
 - a. Agriculture or mining
 - b. Construction
 - c. Manufacturing, transportation, or utility services
 - d. Wholesale trade
 - e. Retail sales
 - f. Finance, insurance, and real estate

- g. Services (business, legal, social, educational)
 - h. Public administration
5. How long have you worked in your current organization?
- a. 0-3 months
 - b. 3-6 months
 - c. 6-12 months
 - d. 1-2 years
 - e. 3-5 years
 - f. 5-10 years
 - g. 10+ years
6. How long have you worked with your current manager?
- a. 0-3 months
 - b. 3-6 months
 - c. 6-12 months
 - d. 1-2 years
 - e. 3-5 years
 - f. 5-10 years
 - g. 10+ years
7. Do you have employees who report directly to you?
- a. Yes, I have direct reports
 - b. No, I do not have direct reports

The following was asked of the managers:

1. Please enter your age.
2. What is your sex?
 - a. Male
 - b. Female
3. What is your race?
 - a. Asian
 - b. Black
 - c. Hispanic
 - d. White/Non-Hispanic
 - e. Other
4. How long have you worked in your current organization?
 - a. 0-3 months
 - b. 3-6 months
 - c. 6-12 months
 - d. 1-2 years
 - e. 3-5 years
 - f. 5-10 years
 - g. 10+ years
5. What is your level in the organization?
 - a. First line supervisor
 - b. Middle management
 - c. Senior leader

d. Executive or officer

About the Author

Amy Taylor originally began her studies in the field of psychology while attending Allen D. Nease High School in St. Augustine, FL. She continued on to complete a Bachelor of Science with honors in Psychology at the University of Florida. She then moved on to a social work and counseling position, and found herself intrigued by the organizational dynamics and leadership styles that surrounded her. This interest spawned the career move into the Industrial/Organizational Psychology program at the University of South Florida. During this program, her research focused on predicting leadership emergence and effectiveness, and the role of personality in the workplace.

Amy currently resides in Tampa, FL and works as a leadership development consultant with a financial services firm. Outside of work, Amy enjoys attending local art events, cooking, and wine tasting.