EXAMINING LEADERSHIP STYLES AND EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT IN THE PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS

by

Vernice J. Moody

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of the Requirements for the Degree

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Abstract

The current quantitative correlational research sought to determine if specific relationships exist between leadership styles and employee engagement. Participants represented different organizations and industries in the public and private sectors in the Washington, DC Metropolitan Division area. Participants completed the MLQ-Form 5X Short for Raters instrument for leadership styles and the E3® Employee Engagement Survey instrument for engagement. The independent variables were three leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire). The dependent variable was employee engagement. Findings from the study revealed public and private sector employees had similar views on the relationship between leadership styles and employee engagement. Employees, who perceived their supervisors or managers as transformational leaders, tended to have higher levels of employee engagement. Public and private sector employees who perceived their supervisors or managers as laissez-faire, tended to have lower levels of employee engagement. Employees, who perceived their supervisors or managers as transactional leaders, tended to have higher levels of employee engagement when leaders acknowledge and reward employees.

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Dedication

I dedicate this research paper in loving memory of my parents the late Wilfred J. Moody and Annie P. Moody.

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Acknowledgments

I want to thank God for giving me the will power to complete this journey. I want to acknowledge my parents, the late Jay and Ann Moody. I want to acknowledge and thank my siblings JD Moody and Jeannie Moody and my niece Jaylen Moody for their encouragement, patience, and support. I also want to acknowledge and thank my family, friends, neighbors, church family, and coworkers for encouraging and supporting me. A special thank you to Shirley, Sharon, Tonya, John, Charla, Steve, Marc and Company, Dr. Cathy, Dr. Ross, and Dr. Kemp.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

A critical issue and growing interest for organizational leaders is employee engagement (Gatenby, Rees, Soane, & Truss, 2009). Robbins and Judge (2007) defined employee engagement as involvement, satisfaction, and enthusiasm with work. Engaged employees work beyond the job description and toward organizational objectives (Snell, 2009). Engaged employees also contribute to organizational success as a link between company reputation and stakeholder value (Gallup, 2010; Lockwood, 2007). However, disengaged employees lack interest in work, make poor decisions, and take excessive time off from the job (Pech & Slade, 2006). Disengaged employees give 50% of performance while receiving 100% of their pay (Ayers, 2007).

BlessingWhite (2008) posited the industry with the highest proportion of engaged employees is human resources (HR) consulting/training. Engaged HR employees represent 46 % from this private-sector industry. The industry with the lowest proportion of engaged employees is government. Engaged government employees represent 25% from the public sector (BlessingWhite, 2008). A concern for leaders is determining the conditions in which some employees are fully engaged while others are disengaged (Wildermuth & Pauken, 2008a).

Within the organization, the leadership team creates and nurtures the culture (Corace, 2007). Leaders are responsible for creating a relationship between the employee and the organization (Lockwood, 2007). A successful workplace requires leaders to understand and manage employees' expectations; therefore, an effective relationship is essential (Bourgeois, 2006; McGuire, By, & Hutchings, 2007; Sexton, 2007).

Leaders play a key role in employee engagement and the leadership quality influences this engagement (McBain, 2006; Wellins & Concelman, 2008). Finding and leveraging

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opportunities for organizational leaders to engage employees are important (Trahant, 2009). Chapter 1 includes the background, purpose, and significance of the study. The chapter also includes the research questions and hypotheses, the theoretical framework, definitions, assumptions, and limitations.

Background of the Problem

Employers in the Washington, DC Metropolitan Division area employed 25,800 workers in October 2009 (Department of Employment Services, 2009). The increase in the job market represented 14,500 jobs in the public sector and 11,300 jobs in the private sector (Department of Employment Services, 2009). Between 2009 and 2010, the job market in the Washington, DC Metropolitan Division area decreased by 11,400 (Department of Employment Services, 2010). The change in the job market represented 2,600 jobs for the public sector and 8,800 jobs for the private sector (Department of Employment Services, 2010). The changes in the work unit result in differences in the approach to the organization, leaders, and duties (Patota, Schwartz, & Schwartz, 2007). Thus, leaders must articulate how these approaches align to business strategies and plans (Welbourne, 2007).

Public and private sector leaders must implement a plan to attract, hire, manage, and retain employees (Boddie, Contardo, & Childs, 2007). Because money is not always a motivator for employees, leaders must offer certain nonmonetary incentives (Woodruffe, 2006). Employees expect greater fulfillment in the work and life balances. Fulfillments include the opportunity to collaborate in the workplace and the flexibility to set working hours (McBain, 2006). Leaders must also know what employees expect from the work environment to maintain an engaged workforce (Patota et al., 2007).

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Differences in opinion exist in defining the employee engagement paradigm. Opposing views on employee engagement philosophies occur between the practitioner community and the academic community (Zigarmi, Nimon, Houson, Witt, & Diehl, 2009). According to Catteeuw, Flynn, and Vonderhorst (2007), employee engagement relates to value, collaboration, and trust. McBain (2007) associated employee engagement to goal alignment within the organization. In addition, Wellins, Berthal, and Phelps (2005) affirmed employee engagement is the connection between the organization, the leader, and the individual.

Opinions in defining engagement lead to uncertainty in determining whether employee engagement is an attitude or behavior or whether employee engagement is an individual or group phenomenon (Little & Little, 2006). Without a standard definition, the effect is confusion in the organization (Mastrangelo, 2009). Organizational leaders should continue to search for employee engagement evidence in terms of the return on investment (Mastrangelo, 2009).

Opposing views also exist in determining situations that cause engagement barriers. Barriers in the workplace contribute to low engagement and include behaviors, rules, and cultures that cause problems for employees and challenges for leaders (Gatenby et al., 2009; Lockwood, 2007; Schiemann, 2006). Leaders, who fail to appreciate employees, do not recognize employees, and provide little feedback and coaching, cause disengagement (Branham, 2005). Such disengagement leads to lack of trust or confidence in leaders (Branham, 2005; Schiemann, 2006).

In a changing work environment, the diverse set of jobs makes it difficult for organizational leaders to specify roles and responsibilities (Masson, Royal, Agnew, & Fine, 2008). A culture in which employees' jobs do not match expectations or employees have unrealistic goals also contributes to engagement barriers (Schiemann, 2006). The decline in

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employee engagement could have an effect on productivity, customer service, and performance (Schiemann, 2006).

Managing employee engagement levels within the organization is a concern for leaders (O'Neal & Gebauer, 2006). By allocating time and investing money, leaders can conduct employee surveys as a benchmark for engagement (Sanchez, 2007). Communicating the results of the engagement surveys and taking action for improvement is a positive step for leaders (Lawrence, 2007). Organizational leaders, who ignore the results of surveys indicating various levels of engagement, risk costly consequences (Kimball & Nink, 2006).

Leaders who know employees' engagement levels can identify effective strategies and action plans (Towers Perrin, 2009). Increasing employee engagement levels is difficult and complex (Richardsen, Burke, & Martinussen, 2006). Leaders know a 100% engaged workforce is unrealistic (Stairs, Galpin, Page, & Linley, 2006). Leaders are not sure what to expect as a realistic engagement level for employees (Welbourne, 2007).

Leadership studies involved leaders' behavior and attitude, power, and influence (Trehan, 2007). Leadership styles can range from boss-centered to subordinate-centered (Nickels, McHugh, & McHugh, 2008). Three predominant leadership styles include transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire (Bass, 1990b; Bass & Avolio, 1995; Burns, 1978). Transformational leaders have such characteristics as enhancing commitment, articulating vision, and inspiring others (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006). Transactional leaders focus on rewards or punishments to gain compliance (Kirkbride, 2006). Laissez-faire leaders have nonleader characteristics (Pounder, 2008).

McBain (2007) indicated leaders have the greatest influence on employee engagement in the organization. However, the leadership style based on experience and knowledge may not be

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effective in all situations (Rad & Yarmohammadian, 2006). Wildermuth and Pauken (2008a) stated leaders cannot require employees to engage. Organizational leaders need to assess their leadership style to ensure a fully engaged workforce (Lyons, 2009).

Gaps in knowledge exist regarding the correlation between the leaders' styles and their influence on employee engagement. Hooijberg and Choi (2001) noted several similarities and differences in leadership in the public and private sectors. Little research exists that examines differences in leadership behavior and effectiveness within these sectors (Hooijberg & Choi, 2001). In addition, little information is available on the factors affecting engagement and its effect on the different roles, jobs, groups, and organizations (Kular, Gatenby, Rees, Soane, & Truss, 2008).

Statement of Problem

Employee engagement is a major challenge for organizational leaders (Pritchard, 2008). Disengaged employees negatively affect multiple business areas, such as customer service, productivity, profit, and performance in the workplace (Fink, 2012). In organizations with different expectations and needs, a goal is achieving high employee engagement levels (McBain, 2007; Snell, 2009). The general problem is determining the conditions in which some employees are fully engaged while others are disengaged (Wildermuth & Pauken, 2008a). Leaders want to understand why employees demonstrate various engagement levels (Corace, 2007).

Turner (2007) noted public and private sector leaders have trouble engaging the workforce. Researchers at Gallup (2010) reported a ratio of 1.83:1 for engaged to actively disengaged employees in the workforce. Differences in engagement also occur between public sector workers and private sector workers (Pritchard, 2008). The specific problem is public sector employees trail behind private sectors employees in employee engagement (Pritchard,

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2008). This quantitative correlational research addressed the general and specific problems of establishing relationships between leadership styles and employee engagement in the public and private workforce.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this quantitative correlational research was to determine if specific relationships exist between leadership styles and employee engagement among representatives from the public and private sectors in the Washington, DC Metropolitan Division area. The aim of the study was to determine if certain leadership styles exhibited by public and private sector leaders foster an environment for employees to engage in the workforce. The study participants included nonmanagers working full-time with one year or more tenure in their current positions. Employees represented different organizations and industries. Industries included aerospace and defense, information technology services, financial services, health care, government, and education. The method for identifying participants included nonprobability sampling. Nonprobability sampling, also known as purposive sampling, selects individuals who represent certain characteristics or criteria (Creswell, 2008; Gelo, Braakmann, & Benetka, 2008).

Significance of the Study

Employees disengage when leaders fail to appreciate employees, do not recognize employees, and provide little feedback and coaching (Branham, 2005). Disengaged employees are nonproductive for an average of 1.5 hours a day and the lost hours cost employers an average of $759 billion a year (Branham, 2005). As estimated by Gallup researchers, the cost to the economy is $300 billion in lost productivity from actively disengaged employees (Gallup, 2010). This research study adds to the body of knowledge regarding the relations between leadership styles and employee engagement from public and private sector employees.

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Significance to Leadership

Employees join organizations in response to "pull" factors. Reasons to join include benefits and opportunities within the organization (Branham, 2005). Employees leave because of "push" factors, which include interactions with managers and not having the right tools to perform duties (Braham, 2005). McBain (2007) identified the organization, management and leadership, and working life as categories of employee engagement drivers. Organizational leaders should take the time to understand these engagement drivers (McBain, 2006; O'Neal & Gebauer, 2006).

Although employers try to attract and recruit new talents, employers must also recognize the contributions of an engaged workforce. An engaged workforce contributes to individual, team, and organizational performance (McBain, 2006). Thus, organizational success and survival depends on investing in employees (Bassi & McMurrer, 2007). Effective leaders must also understand and manage the expectations of employees (McGuire et al., 2007; Sexton, 2007). Knowing the employee engagement levels could help leaders optimize the employee-employer relationship and facilitate employees moving to the next engagement level (Sanchez & McCauley, 2006). The study findings also contribute useful information to the body of knowledge regarding the leader-follower relationship. The research provides knowledge concerning the outcomes of a particular behavior of leaders and the effect on employees' motivation to engage.

Leadership style is a balance between managerial behaviors and attitudes (Dubrin, 2009). Gill (2009) noted differences in leadership styles occur between the public and private sectors. The results of this study provide knowledge to help leaders understand employees' perceptions of effective and ineffective leadership behaviors. The research study also adds to the body of

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knowledge concerning the similarities and differences between the public and private sectors. Effective leaders look for relationships within and beyond the organization (McCallum & O'Connell, 2009). The research results provide knowledge useful in beginning or increasing collaboration among leaders within the industries or between the sectors in discussing effective leadership styles and engaging employees.

Nature of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative correlational research was to determine if specific relationships exist between leadership styles and employee engagement among representatives from the public and private sectors in the Washington, DC Metropolitan Division area. The independent variables included transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles. The dependent variable included employee engagement. The aim of the study was to determine if certain leadership styles exhibited by public and private sector leaders foster an environment for employees to engage in the workforce. Participants represented different organizations and industries. The participants included full-time employees with one or more years in their current positions. Participants were also nonmanagers in their organizations.

The data collection process began with an electronic invitation to participate in the research. Participants received a link to a secure website hosted by Zoomerang. Each participant completed an informed consent form before beginning the survey process. Participants who did not agree to the terms of the informed consent could not continue the survey. Participants completed three closed-ended questionnaires. The closed-ended format enabled data coding to obtain numerical values for statistical analysis (Gelo et al., 2008).

The data collection process consisted of three sections. The first section contained demographic questions. The second section included questions from the Multifactor Leadership

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Questionnaire (MLQ-Form 5X Short for Raters). The instrument had 45 core statements to measure the perception of leaders' behaviors by employees. The third section contained questions from the E3® Employee Engagement Survey. The instrument included 17 core statements to measure engagement levels in the workgroup.

A quantitative correlational research was appropriate for this study. The study included responses from subjects to determine the relationship between leadership styles (the independent variables) and employee engagement (the dependent variable). Borrego, Douglas, and Amelink (2009) suggested "Quantitative methods are a good fit for deductive approaches, in which a theory or hypothesis justifies the variables, the purpose statement, and the direction of the narrowly defined research questions" (p. 54). Quantitative research yields information about relationships between the independent and dependent variables (Creswell, 2008). Furthermore, correlational research relates differences in one variable or variables to those in another variable or variables (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010).

The qualitative method was not appropriate because its emphasis is on textual data collection and analysis of narratives, conversations, and personal experiences (Magilvy, Thomas, & Kotzer, 2009). Qualitative research also involves exploring little known problems (Creswell, 2008). Qualitative research uses a data-driven and exploratory inductive approach whereas quantitative research uses a theory-driven and confirmatory deductive approach to prove or disprove hypotheses (Gelo et al., 2008).

Research Questions

The aim of the study was to determine if certain leadership styles exhibited by public and private sector leaders foster an environment for employees to engage in the workforce. In

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addressing the relationships between leaders and employees, three research questions guided the present study:

1. What is the relationship between workers' perceptions of transformational leadership style and the conditions that foster employee engagement?

2. What is the relationship between workers' perceptions of transactional leadership style and the conditions that foster employee engagement?

3. What is the relationship between workers' perceptions of laissez-faire leadership style and the conditions that foster employee engagement?

The current research study tested the null hypotheses and the hypotheses associated with the research questions. The hypotheses were as follows:

Hypothesis 1

$H1.1_0$: There is no relationship between transformational leadership style and employee engagement in the public sector.

$H1.1_a$: There is a relationship between transformational leadership and employee engagement in the public sector.

$H1.2_0$: There is no relationship between transformational leadership style and employee engagement in the private sector.

$H1.2_a$: There is a relationship between transformational leadership and employee engagement in the private sector.

Hypothesis 2

$H2.1_0$: There is no relationship between transactional leadership style and employee engagement in the public sector.

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$H2.1_a$: There is a relationship between transactional leadership and employee engagement in the public sector.

$H2.2_0$: There is no relationship between transactional leadership style and employee engagement in the private sector.

$H2.2_a$: There is a relationship between transactional leadership and employee engagement in the private sector.

Hypothesis 3

$H3.1_0$: There is no relationship between laissez-faire leadership style and employee engagement in the public sector.

$H3.1_a$: There is a relationship between laissez-faire leadership and employee engagement in the public sector.

$H3.2_0$: There is no relationship between laissez-faire leadership style and employee engagement in the private sector.

$H3.2_a$: There is a relationship between laissez-faire leadership and employee engagement in the private sector.

Conceptual or Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this study derived from the trait theory, behavioral theory, contingency theory, and the theory of personal engagement. The study of leadership styles included insight into the effectiveness of behaviors and practices of leaders. Employee engagement included insight into employees' effectiveness in the workplace.

Early researchers believed leaders were born with specific traits. Researchers associated leadership with certain qualities that differentiated leaders from followers (Kao & Kao, 2007). In the 1940s, Jenkins (1947) challenged the trait theory and the assumption that leaders were

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born. In the 1960s and 1970s, researcher Ghiselli (1963) added to the trait theory by concluding individual effectiveness determined a leader.

The behavioral theory evolved following a shift from identifying specific traits of leaders to emphasizing the actions of leaders (Melchar, Bosco, & Cantrell, 2008). The behavioral theory inspired several leadership studies including the Ohio State leadership studies (Fleishman, Harris, & Burtt, 1955), the University of Michigan leadership studies (Likert, 1961), and the development of the managerial grid (Blake & Mouton, 1982).

Fiedler (1964) proposed a framework on leaders' personality effect on the group performance. Fiedler (1964) developed the least preferred coworker (LPC) scale to measure this relationship. With the situational theory, Hershey and Blanchard (1982) discussed task behavior and relationship behavior. House (1971) proposed a path-goal theory that focused on the effect of leaders' behavior on followers' performance. Leaders exhibit four leadership styles: (a) participative, (b) supportive, (c) achievement-oriented, and (d) directive (House, 1971).

Researchers began to shift the leadership concentration from trait or situation to an exchange between leaders and followers (Bass, 1990a). The leaders' style included the transactional, transformational, or passive leadership behavior (Bass, 1990b; Bass & Avolio, 1995; Burns, 1978). Bass (1990b) characterized a transactional leader as one who satisfies followers' needs in exchange for certain outcomes. Transformational leaders rely on noncontrolling powers that empower and motivate employees (Rainey, 2009). Leaders who practice laissez-faire style avoid making decisions (Bass, 1990b).

Employee engagement derived from Kahn's (1990) theory of personal engagement. The personal engagement concept involved an individual's connection to tasks and roles in the workplace. The individual's connection derives from emotional, cognitive, and physical

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energies needed for performance (Kahn, 1990). Personally engaged individuals exhibit a higher energy level that results in positive expression. However, personally disengaged individuals exhibit a lower energy level that results in withdrawal. Kahn also indicated certain psychological conditions such as safety, availability, and meaningfulness contributed to employee engagement levels (Kahn, 1990).

Researchers defined employee engagement in different ways in various academic and practitioner journals (Saks, 2006). Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, and Bakker (2002) proposed an operational definition that involved an emotional state. Employees also experience several dimensions in the work setting that enable engagement: (a) vigor, (b) absorption, and (c) dedication (Schaufeli et al., 2002). With vigor, employees exhibit persistence. With absorption, employees have difficulties detaching from the job. Dedication includes the levels of involvement (Schaufeli et al., 2002).

Employee engagement research focused on two main questions: "What do the most talented employees need from the workplace?" and "How do the world's greatest managers find, focus, and keep talented employees?" (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999, p. 11). Lockwood (2007) stated leaders need to know what drives engagement, especially in a culturally diverse workforce. Within the organization, surveys provide a measure of engagement levels (Gatenby et al., 2009). In addition, several companies assist organizational leaders by providing techniques for measuring employee engagement levels. Researchers at Modern Survey (2009) used four employee engagement levels derived from an engagement index. The positive responses from a five-question survey determined engagement levels, which included fully engaged, moderately engaged, under engaged, and disengaged (Modern Survey, 2009).

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Researchers at Towers Perrin (2008) categorized the engagement levels as rational, emotional, and motivation. The levels included engaged, enrolled, disenchanted, and disengaged. Enhancements in the employee engagement study added enrolled, which signifies partially engaged and disenchanted, which means partially disengaged (Towers Perrin, 2008). Researchers listed levels according to 12 core questions known as the Q12 (Gallup, 2010). The engagement levels included engaged, not engaged, and actively disengaged (Gallup, 2010). Development Dimensions International researchers categorized employee engagement based on (a) assign effort with strategy, (b) empowerment, (c) teamwork and collaboration, (d) growth and development, and (e) support and recognition topics (Wellins et al, 2005).

Definitions

Definitions in this study provide readers with an understanding of meaning and context.

Disengaged employees are disconnected from the organization (BlessingWhite, 2008).

Employee engagement is a combination of feelings and behaviors associated with work and the organization. Feelings include energy and enthusiasm. Behaviors include accomplishing goals (Schneider, Macey, Barbera, & Martin, 2009).

Engaged employees drive innovation and connects with the organization (Gallup, 2006).

Engagement is an opportunity for employees to connect with the organization (Gatenby et al., 2009).

Laissez-faire leaders lack responses to users' needs and performance (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008).

Leadership is the ability to influence followers to achieve visions or goals (Robbins & Judge, 2007).

Leadership style is a balance between managerial behaviors and attitudes (Dubrin, 2009).

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Transactional leaders offer rewards in exchange for performance (Xirasagar, 2008).

Transformational leaders inspire followers and enhance commitment to vision (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006).

Washington, DC Metropolitan Division area includes the District of Columbia and counties in Maryland, Virginia, and West Virginia (Department of Employment Services, 2010).

Assumptions

Assumptions included participants represented nonmanagers in the workplace and that they could provide leaders with information for assessing various leadership styles and employee engagement perceptions in the workplace. Participants answered the questions honestly and completely. Confidentiality was preserved and the identities of the participants were not revealed. Participation was voluntary and participants had the right to complete the questionnaires, decline, or opt out without risk of penalty. The honest and complete responses to the questions would give leaders a better understanding of employees' diverse views in the workplace. Finally, assumptions included participants answered the survey based on their knowledge and experience.

Scope

The research study results provide leaders and employees with information to identify the leadership styles effective in promoting employee engagement. One challenge for leaders is achieving high engagement levels, especially in organizations with different expectations and needs (McBain, 2007; Snell, 2009). Another challenge for leaders is determining the conditions in which some employees are engaged while other employees are disengaged (Wildermuth & Pauken, 2008a).

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Limitations

The small sample size of 37, limited the generalization of the findings. Circumstances including a change in job status, family emergencies, and computer security settings contributed to the small sample size. Another limitation included the reporting format. The self-reporting closed format did not allow respondents to choose more than one answer to describe a leadership behavior or engagement characteristics. The self-reporting, forced choice questions can produce inaccurate answers because of participants' concern for anonymity, even though the informed consent form addressed anonymity and confidentiality concerns. Another limitation included the location of employees. The sample included employees from the Washington, DC Metropolitan Division area and industries in the region. The findings may not be generalized to employees or industries outside the area.

Delimitations

A delimitation of this study concerned the sample composition. Participants included employees working in the Washington, DC Metropolitan Division area. Participants were also nonmanagers and worked fulltime. Employees representing management, supervisory personnel, or leadership teams were not included. The delimitations also included the sample strategy. A verification process eliminated participants who did not meet the criteria. Focusing on specific independent and dependent variables was another delimitation. Leadership styles and employee engagement instruments provided reliability and validity by focusing on these variables. Delimitations included using the online survey method to take advantage of (a) time, (b) money, and (c) resources. Online surveys have start and completion times that enable participants to provide immediate responses. Self-administered surveys are also less expensive than face-to-

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face interviews. Online surveys provide greater accessibility allowing participants to complete it at work, at home, or any location with an Internet connection (Cooper & Schindler, 2008).

Summary

The purpose of this quantitative correlational research was to determine if specific relationships exist between leadership styles and employee engagement among representatives from the public and private sectors in the Washington, DC Metropolitan Division area. The aim of the study was to determine if certain leadership styles exhibited by public and private sector leaders foster an environment for employees to engage in the workforce. Introduced in Chapter 1 were the independent and dependent variables, research problems, research questions, hypotheses, and research method. Chapter 1 also included the background, purpose, and significance of the study.

The objective of this research was to add to the body of knowledge by providing leaders with data on behavior effectiveness and its influence on engagement within the workplace. The study could provide opportunities for leaders from both sectors to collaborate in discussing lessons learned in engaging employees. The results could also add new information that connects employee engagement and leadership styles theories in practitioner and academic literatures.

Chapter 2 includes an overview of the literature. The literature pertains to the research questions and the independent and dependent variables. Chapter 2 also includes a review of the theories of leadership and theories of engagement.

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Chapter 2: Review of the Literature

Chapter 2 includes historical and current literature concerning how leaders can achieve a higher employee engagement level in the workplace. The review also includes literature gaps. The purpose of this quantitative correlational research was to determine if specific relationships exist between leadership styles and employee engagement among representatives from the public and private sectors in the Washington, DC Metropolitan Division area. The aim of the study was to determine if certain leadership styles exhibited by public and private sector leaders foster an environment for employees to engage in the workforce. Chapter 2 also includes literature pertaining to the research questions, the independent variables, and dependent variables.

Title Searches, Articles, Research Documents, and Journals Researched

A plethora of information was available on employee engagement and leadership styles. Moderate information addressed the relationship between the leaders' style and the impact on employee engagement. The literature review included searches in the areas of leadership styles (the independent variables) and employee engagement (the dependent variable). The keywords and terms associated in these areas include leadership theories and personal engagement theories. The review also included information concerning the problem statement and purpose.

According to Creswell (2008), a literature review includes a summary of the body of knowledge based on journal articles, books, and other sources. Electronic databases used for this research study included University of Phoenix Library databases that contain EBSCOHost database, ProQuest database, Sage database, Emerald database, Gale PowerSearch database, and PsycARTICLES database. Search engines including Google, Bing, and Yahoo provided content. Books, peer-reviewed publications, dissertations, and website articles also provided content. Table 1 shows the searches conducted.

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Table 1

Searches Conducted on Independent and Dependent Variables

Variables	Scholarly journal articles	Search engines	Books	Dissertations
Employee engagement	970	18,986,000	77,900	114
Leadership styles	1,510	29,787,000	307,000	4,222
Transformational leaders	710	2,715,000	93,200	324
Transactional leaders	627	853,600	34,000	61
Laissez-faire	1,190	23,490,000	1,380,000	539
Employee engagement and leadership styles	411	1,116,900	442	4
Public and private sector leaders	1,274	30,040,000	284,000	8

Historical Overview and Findings of Leadership

As stated by Bass (1990b), the "theories of leadership attempt to explain the factors involved either in the emergence of leadership or in the nature of leadership and its consequences" (p. 37). The theories contribute to the emergence and success of leaders (Bass, 1990b). Mostovicz, Kakabadse, and Kakabadse (2009) stated leadership theories should address three components: (a) *what* signifies the goals of leaders, (b) *how* signifies the method leaders take to reach goals, and (c) *why* signifies the reasoning behind the method to reach goals.

Defining Leadership

Several definitions emerged in the literature review on leadership study. An early researcher, Bingham (1927) described leadership as a group performing activities to accomplish

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a common purpose. Throughout the years, various definitions appeared. Leadership involves a two-way process between the leader and the follower (Kesby, 2008). Robbins and Judge (2007) described leadership as the ability to influence a group toward a vision or set of goals. Such influences within the organization can be formal or informal. Formal influence occurs with the position of authority whereas informal influence occurs when an individual takes on certain responsibilities (Robbins & Judge, 2007).

Trait Theory of Leadership

Discussion of the trait theory began in the 1880s. Early researchers believed leaders were naturally born with specific traits (Kao & Kao, 2007). Researchers associated leadership with certain qualities that distinguished leaders from followers.

Bowden (1927) researched personality as the quality for describing leadership. The personality study attempted to identify enduring characteristics of individuals' behaviors (Robbins & Judge, 2007). Bowden's research addressed physical and social characteristics. Physical factors included height, weight, and voice pitch. Other physical characteristics used in describing leaders included skin complexion, hair color, and eye color. Leadership social factors included popularity, recognition, power, and influence. Research on student leaders revealed physical personality factors were less important in leadership. Social characteristics benefit interactions in the social environment (Bowden, 1927).

Schenk (1928) acknowledged leadership is the demonstration of personal power. His research, in a military setting, focused on individuals who persuade and inspire. Schenk found three major characteristics distinguished leaders from followers: character, ability, and prestige. The character trait involved a leader's skill in building a follower's confidence and guiding the follower in a specific direction. Leaders who displayed self-control received the followers'

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respect. The ability trait involved a leader's knowledge and experience in problem solving. Leaders displayed judgment, common sense, and resourcefulness in accomplishing tasks. The prestige trait also involved a leader's demeanor and reputation. Leaders received followers' respect according to certain medals or insignia and adherence to dress codes (Schenk, 1928).

Research by Tead (1935) described leadership as an influence. Leaders who displayed kindness and concern for employees also influenced this behavior in followers. Leaders also had the technical mastery trait. Through acquired knowledge and experience, leaders could teach these skills to followers (Tead, 1935). However, the weakness in the trait characteristics caused researchers to reject the pure trait theory (Bass, 1990a).

In the late 1940s, Jenkins challenged the trait theory and the assumption that leaders were born. Jenkins (1947) found leadership characteristics varied according to specific situations. His research on leadership included participants from industry and government, as well as scientific and professional personnel, schoolchildren, schools, and the military. Jenkins also noted leadership characteristics varied for individuals in similar situations.

In the 1960s and 1970s, researchers added to the trait theory by concluding an individual's effectiveness determined a leader. Ghiselli (1963) found five important traits for managerial function and success. The intelligence trait validated the results from early research by Tead (1935). The initiative trait involved the motivation to start an action and the capability to implement the action. Ghiselli noted the self-assurance trait enabled individuals to deal effectively with problems. In addition, individuals were confident and displayed sound judgment. His research also cited supervisory ability and perceived occupational levels as factors for effectiveness (Ghiselli, 1963).

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Northouse (2009) noted several strengths in the trait theory. First, the theory confirmed the idea that leaders are gifted individuals who can do extraordinary things. Second, the theory included information about the leadership process. Leaders had a better understanding of their effect in the workplace. Later research on traits contributed to the development of the Big Five personalities for leaders (Robbins & Judge, 2007). Factors included (a) openness to experience, which ranged from curiosity to comfort with the familiar; (b) emotional stability, which varied from self-confidence and security to depression and insecurity; (c) agreeableness, which ranged from cooperativeness to aggressive; (d) extraversion, which varied from sociable to quiet; and (e) conscientiousness, which ranged from responsible to disorganized (Robbins & Judge, 2007).

Although early researchers found trait common to certain leaders such as (a) intelligence, (b) personality, (c) responsibility, and (d) physical characteristics, the trait theory had weaknesses. The trait theory delineated a leadership typology or profile without explanations or predictions of leadership (Nielson & Pate, 2008). Trait theory critics also indicated the qualities listed did not focus on a leader's effect on followers. The theory does not identify the traits that determine leaders' advancement or group performance (Yukl, 2009). The weakness in the trait theory led researchers to focus on leaders' behaviors rather their traits (Robbins & Judge, 2007).

Behavioral Theory of Leadership

Research on the behavioral theory began in the late 1930s (Shriberg & Shriberg, 2010). The theory contradicted the trait theory that leaders are born (Benson, 2008). Leadership research shifted from specific traits of leaders to the actions of leaders positing that individuals learn certain qualities that enable leadership development (Melchar et al., 2008; Mostovicz et al., 2009). Leaders can change their behavior to emulate effective leaders (Benson, 2008).

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Lewin and Lippitt (1938) viewed leaders' behaviors as democratic or autocratic. The democratic leaders' behaviors allow freedom among the group members and assists in providing advice to members. Democratic leaders value flexibility and empathy (Nickels et al., 2008). The autocratic leader assigns tasks to members and dictates steps required to meet goals (Lewin & Lippitt, 1938). Autocratic leaders are effective with employees who need guidance (Nickels et al., 2008). In the research by Lewin and Lippitt, the group with a democratic leader displayed cooperativeness and constructiveness. The members also displayed a higher level of unity. The group with an autocratic leader displayed tension and hostility toward each other. Disorganization in the group structure occurred with leadership influence withdrawn (Lewin & Lippitt, 1938).

Ohio State Leadership Studies. Fleishman et al. (1955) conducted the Ohio State Leadership Studies. A systematic approach to measuring leadership behaviors resulted in the development of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). Two behavior dimensions emerged from the analysis: consideration and initiating structure (Fleishman et al., 1955).

University of Michigan Leadership Studies. Research by Likert (1961) inspired the University of Michigan Leadership Studies. Likert compared leadership types and variables between the best and worst work units. Leaders' behavior characteristics included production-oriented and employee-oriented. Employee-oriented leaders showed an interest in employees. An interpersonal relationship existed between the leader and the work unit. Production-oriented leaders focused on accomplishing job tasks. Leaders are effective in low productivity work units (Robbins & Judge, 2007).

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The Managerial Grid. Another model influenced by the behavior theory is the managerial grid, also known as the leadership grid. Blake and Mouton (1982) determined certain leadership styles and mapped them to a nine-scale grid. The x-axis represented concern for production and y-axis represented concern for people. The styles mapped on the grid included country club (1, 9), task (9, 1), impoverished (1, 1), middle-of-the-road (5, 5), and team (9, 9). The development of the managerial grid provided a conceptual and attitudinal leadership analysis.

Yukl, Gordon, and Taber (2002) identified three behavior categories that depict leaders: task behavior, relations behaviors, and change behaviors. Leaders who display task behaviors develop schedules, provide short-term planning, and monitor unit activities. Relations-oriented leaders demonstrate certain levels of effort to establish and maintain employee relationships (Kilburn & Cates, 2010). Changed-oriented leaders encourage creative ideas by seeking improvements (Yukl et al., 2002).

The behavior theories had several strengths. The behavior research was instrumental in developing management principles (Benson, 2008). Northouse (2009) stressed the behavioral theories highlight the importance of task behavior and relationship behavior in the leadership process. The behavioral theories also provided insight into the consideration and ability to initiate structure shown by leaders (Robbins & Judge, 2007). The theories enabled leaders to assess their actions and make improvements as necessary (Northouse, 2009).

Critics of behavioral theories critics noted several weaknesses. The theories do not link leadership behavior to certain outcomes, such as (a) job satisfaction, (b) morale, and (c) productivity (Northouse, 2009). The theories do not connect a leader's behavior to a leader's

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success (Robbins & Judge, 2007). Nielson and Pate (2008) also stated the theories lack "predictive capacity and boundaries for application" (p. 6).

Contingency Theory of Leadership

The contingency theories were popular from the 1960s (Benson, 2008). Researchers of these theories incorporated new ideas and elements from past theories (Benson, 2008). Browning (2007) noted that the objective of these theories was to match the correct leadership style with the situation.

Contingency Model of Leadership. Fiedler (1964) proposed a framework of leaders' personality effects on group performance. The contingency theory included the relations between organizational setting and leadership style; highlighting leaders' effectiveness in different contexts (Northouse, 2009). Fiedler (1964) developed the least preferred coworker (LPC) scale to measure three situations relating to the relationship motivated and task motivated styles. The leader-member relations scale measured how followers view leaders according to loyalty and trust. The power position scale measured the level of authority to punish or reward followers. The task structure scale measured the ambiguity or clarity level of tasks (Northouse, 2009).

Situational Theory. Hersey and Blanchard (1982) discussed the importance of different leader styles when communicating with employees. The results indicated a leader adjusts his or her style according to the followers' maturity. Hersey and Blanchard (1982) stated leaders should engage in relationship and task behaviors. The situational theory researchers discussed four leadership styles: selling, delegating, participating, and telling (Northouse, 2009). The selling or coaching style is two-way communication in which leaders solicit input from followers. The participating or support style includes shared decision making between leader

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and follower. Leaders give decision-making authority to followers. The telling or directing style involves one-way communication with the leader giving instructions to followers (Northouse, 2009).

Leader-Member Exchange Theory. The leader-member exchange theory by Graen and Schiemann (1978) addressed behavior interdependencies between leader and member. The research indicated a higher quality exchange produces mutual trust and respect between leaders and members. In contrast, a mid-to-low quality exchange produces a weak relationship (Graen & Schiemann, 1978).

Path-Goal Theory. House (1971) proposed a path-goal theory that focuses on the effect of leaders' behavior on followers' performance. Leaders exhibited four styles in interactions with followers: participative, supportive, achievement-oriented, and directive (Rainey, 2009). The participative-style leader encouraged followers to express views and ideas. The supportive leader showed compassion and understanding in the leader-follower relationship. Leaders who displayed the achievement-oriented style concentrate on followers' performance according to goals and expectations. Directive-style leaders gave instructions and directions (Rainey, 2009).

The situational theories have several strengths. The theories highlighted opportunities for leaders to build followers' skills and confidence (Yukl, 2009). Situational theory also introduced the idea that followers influence leaders' effectiveness by accepting or rejecting the leaders (Robbins & Judge, 2007).

Critics of contingency theories cited several weaknesses. The quadrants in the situational theory do not consistently define which behavior influenced followers (Yukl, 2009). The path-goal theory complexity made it difficult to test its validity (Robbins & Judge, 2007). Benson (2008) noted the theories are difficult to apply.

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Leadership Styles

Leadership style is a balance between managerial behaviors and attitudes (Dubrin, 2009). Researchers began to shift their focus in leadership research from trait or situation to an exchange between leaders and followers. Leaders guide followers through task and role clarification, inspire followers through self-development, and allow followers to make decisions (Bass, 1990a; Burns, 1978). Leaders exhibited these behaviors from the transactional, transformational, or laissez-faire leadership perspectives (Bass, 1990b; Burns, 1978).

Downton (1973) first discussed transactional and transformational leaders. Burns (1978) added to the theory and provided greater distinctions between the two leadership styles. Further research on transactional and transformational leaders showed these styles complemented each other (Robbins & Judge, 2007). The leadership style model also included laissez-faire (Bass, 1990b; Bass & Avolio, 1995).

Transactional Leadership

Bass (1990b) indicated leaders who displayed transactional characteristics know the actions followers should take to complete an outcome so they satisfy followers' needs in exchange for certain achievements. Transactional leaders also offered rewards or impose punishments to gain compliance (Kirkbride, 2006). With transactional leadership, followers do not perform beyond expectations (Robbins & Judge, 2007). Whittington, Coker, Goodwin, Ickes, and Murray (2009) stated this type of leadership consists of constructive and corrective transactions. Constructive transactions clarify expectations whereas corrective transactions create desired change (Whittington et al., 2009).

Bass (1990b) and Bass and Avolio (1995) developed a 73-item questionnaire of leaders' characteristics. From this research, three attributes emerged describing the leader-follower

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exchange of transactional leaders. The elements include contingent reward, management by exception (active), and management by exception (passive).

Contingent reward. The first attribute identified is contingent reward. With this characteristic, followers received rewards for effort and good performance as indicated by the agreed contract (Bass, 1990b). The rewards are not always monetary (Kirkbride, 2006). Leaders must offer certain nonmonetary incentives for employees (Woodruffe, 2006). Rewards include time off work, praise, recognition, or work preferences. Leaders set clear goals, objectives, and targets and ensure followers have appropriate resources to complete tasks (Kirkbride, 2006). Followers avoid disciplinary actions if employees are in compliance (Bass, 1990b).

Management by exception (active). The second attribute of transactional leaders is management by exception (active). With the active characteristic, followers and leaders clarify expectations (Bass, 1990a). Leaders monitor followers' performance and search for mistakes (Rainey, 2009). They also control work tasks and notify followers as problems occur (Kirkbride, 2006). Leaders and followers also implement actions to avoid mistakes or correct mistakes (Rainey, 2009).

Management by exception (passive). The third attribute of transactional leaders is management by exception (passive). With the passive characteristics, leaders implement punishments or corrective actions for deviations (Rainey, 2009). Leaders also avoid making changes by emphasizing routine task importance (Kirkbride, 2006).

Transformational Leadership

Bass (1990b) characterized transformational leaders as those who elevate employees' interests, generate awareness, and build a relationship with followers. Transformational leaders rely on noncontrolling powers that inspire empowerment and motivation (Rainey, 2009).

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Transformational leaders promote commitment and articulated vision (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006). Leaders also help develop others (Larson, 2009).

The leadership questionnaire developed consisted of transformational characteristics (Bass, 1990a; Bass & Avolio, 1995). Four attributes emerged describing transformational leaders. The four elements include idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Bass, 1990a; Bass & Avolio, 1995).

Idealized influence. The first attribute of transformational leaders is idealized influence, which includes attitude attributed and behavior. Leaders instill respect and trust. A charismatic leader is an example of this characteristic (Bass, 1990b). Leaders are also role models and create an atmosphere of pride and an environment of common purpose (Bingham, 1927; Pounder, 2008).

Inspirational motivation. The second attribute of transformational leaders is inspirational motivation. Leaders exemplify an acceptable behavior for subordinates to emulate (Rainey, 2009). With inspirational motivation, leaders encourage followers to take ownership for their actions and achieve high performance (Pounder, 2008).

Intellectual stimulation. The third attribute is intellectual stimulation. As stated by Bass (1990b), leaders promote problem-solving practice. Leaders also solicit new ideas and suggestions (Pounder, 2008). Richardson (2011) noted leaders promote developmental activities that enhance learning opportunities. With intellectual stimulation, leaders urge followers to challenge beliefs and revisit problems (Kirkbride, 2006).

Individualized consideration. The fourth attribute is individualized consideration. Leaders communicate through teaching and coaching (Xirasagar, 2008). Leaders also promote improving self and those around them (Richardson, 2011). Leaders mentor followers for

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development and growth (Bass, 1990b). With individualized consideration, leaders are also coaches or mentors for employees (Robbins & Judge, 2007).

Laissez-Faire

Leaders who practiced laissez-faire style avoid making decisions (Bass, 1990b). Followers under this leadership style have conflicting roles and responsibilities (Kirkbride, 2006). Researchers characterized laissez-faire as the least effective leadership style (Robbins & Judge, 2007). Skogstad, Einarsen, Torsheim, Aasland, and Hetland (2007) noted laissez-faire leadership contributes to workplace stressors, bullying and distress. However, Hinkin and Schriesheim (2008) noted a nonresponsive behavior by leaders could be fair or equitable if poor performance by employees is out of their control.

Historical Overview and Findings of Engagement

Research on engagement included perspective from practitioners and academics. Each group had differences in views and opinions about engagement. One group of researchers correlated engagement to commitment and vision and another other group of researchers correlated engagement with role and job (Zigarmi et al., 2009).

Several definitions emerged during the literature review on engagement. Researchers such as Salanova and Schaufeli (2008) stated engagement is an "affective-motivational state" (p. 118). However, engagement was also described as an opportunity for employees to connect with the organization (Gatenby et al., 2009).

Theory of Personal Engagement

Kahn (1990) first developed the personal engagement and personal disengagement theory. In his research of camp counselors and an architecture firm, he determined people

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occupy roles. Within these roles, individuals bring themselves into or remove themselves from certain behaviors. The self-in-role calibrations are personal engagement and personal disengagement. The behaviors affect individuals (a) physically through their involvement in tasks, (b) cognitively through their role awareness, and (c) emotionally through their connections with others (Kahn, 1990).

Personal engagement is "the simultaneous employment and expression of a person's 'preferred self' in task behaviors" (Kahn, 1990, p. 700). Engagement affects how an individual connects to work, others, himself or herself, and role performances. Personally engaged individuals display behaviors that convey self and role. Individuals display physical, cognitive, and emotional energies through involvement in tasks, vigilance in performing tasks, and connections with others in performing tasks (Kahn, 1990).

Personal disengagement is "the simultaneous withdrawal and defense of a person's 'preferred self' in task behaviors" (Kahn, 1990, p. 701). Disengaged individuals lack the energy associated with physical, emotional, and cognitive behaviors. According to Kahn, personally disengaged individuals disconnect or remove themselves from work, others, and roles (Kahn, 1990).

Certain psychological conditions influenced engagement and disengagement (Kahn, 1990). Kahn focused on experiences or moments that influenced or deterred engagement. May, Gilson, and Hater (2004) cited three fundamental questions for these situations. Individuals ask themselves the following: (a) "How meaningful is it for me to bring myself into this performance?" (b) "How safe is it to do so?" and (c) "How available am I to do so?" (p. 14).

Psychological meaningfulness is a feeling of receiving a return on one's investments (Kahn, 1990). Meaningfulness implies giving one's best to one's job and to one's relationship

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with others as well as receiving from others. Kahn cited three characteristics influencing psychological meaningfulness: (a) task, (b) role, and (c) work interaction. The task characteristic involved completing routine duties and experiencing challenging, creative, and autonomous work. The role characteristic is the status, position, or influence individuals have in the workplace. Work interaction involved self-appreciation and relationships with others in personal and professional settings. Individuals experience meaningfulness when they feel worthwhile, valued, or useful. However, those who have not found meaningfulness lack expectation (Kahn, 1990).

Psychological safety occurs when individuals express themselves without fearing negative consequences (Kahn, 1990). In his research, Kahn cited four components influencing safety: (a) interpersonal relationships, (b) group and intergroup dynamics, (c) management style and process, and (d) organizational norms. First, interpersonal relationships involve support, trust, and sharing ideas within the work environment. Second, formal and informal interactions among members in a workgroup describe group and intergroup dynamics. Third, management style and process include individuals receiving support and openness from managers and having opportunities to experiment with new ways of performing tasks. Finally, organizational norms entail individuals working within their comfort zones. Individuals experience safety when their status or careers will not suffer from self-expression. In contrast, individuals confronted with unclear, threatening, or unpredictable situations experience insecurities in personal engagement (Kahn, 1990).

Psychological availability involves an individual's sense of readiness to engage despite distractions (Kahn, 1990). Individuals adjust role performance according to work and nonwork environment demands. Kahn cited several studies resulting in four dimensions affecting

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availability: (a) physical energy depletion, (b) emotional energy depletion, (c) individual insecurity, and (d) interference from outside lives. Depletion of physical energy involves low-level performance when individuals experience exhaustion. Depletion of emotional energy entails low-level passion when individuals experience frustration. Individual insecurity involves distractions that cause individuals to lose self-confidence. Interference from outside lives refers to allowing activities from personal relationships to affect work-related activities. Depending on the distraction level, the engagement level varies (Kahn, 1990).

Job Engagement

Schaufeli et al. (2002) proposed a definition of operational engagement that involves a state of mind. Engaged employees have a connection with work activities. Job engagement enables employees to handle the demands in the work environment. A tool used to measure job engagement is the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale. The results indicated engaged employees create their own positive feedback, such as recognition or success; describe tiredness as a pleasant state because of positive accomplishments; and enjoy external activities (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Employees also experience three constructs in the work environment that support engagement: vigor, absorption, and dedication (Schaufeli et al., 2002).

The first element in job engagement is vigor. Schaufeli et al., (2002) characterized vigor as a high energy level and resilience when working. Even in difficult times, employees exhibit persistence. The second element in job engagement is absorption. Absorption involves an interest in one's work. With absorption, employees have difficulties detaching from the job. The last element in job engagement is dedication. Employees experience pride and enthusiasm in their work. The involvement level is higher for employees who exhibit dedication (Schaufeli et al., 2002).

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Bakker and Demerouti (2008) cited several job engagement drivers under job resources and personal resources. Job resources are the social support within the work environment that enables growth, learning and development, and goal achievements. Examples of job resources included performance feedback and a positive work relationship with colleagues. Personal resources enable employees to self-assess performance. Employees with such personal resources display positive attitudes, self-esteem, and optimism. Employees can cope with changes that occur in the work environment (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008).

Employee Engagement

For more than 30 years, researchers have worked on employee engagement (Gallup, 2010). The research focused on two main questions "What do the most talented employees need from the workplace?" and "How do the world's greatest managers find, focus, and keep talented employees?" (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999, p. 11).

Through open-ended questions on employee engagement asked of several focus groups, five factors emerged from the data (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999). The work environment and procedures engagement factor addressed the physical work environment. The next factor, immediate supervisor, addressed the supervisor's behavior. The team and coworker factor addressed team members' perceptions. The overall company and senior management factor addressed company initiatives and leaders. The individual commitment and service factor addressed employees' commitment to the company (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999).

Several issues existed in the study of employee engagement. The practitioner community and the academic community had opposing views on employee engagement impressions (Zigarmi et al., 2009). Problems included defining the construct, identifying barriers that affect employee engagement and low engagement, and assessing the various engagement levels.

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Defining the construct. Researchers defined employee engagement in different ways (Saks, 2006). Confusion regarding engagement exists because some organizational leaders associated the construct with commitment, job satisfaction, and involvement and other leaders associated engagement with different constructs (McBain, 2007). Catteeuw et al. (2007) related employee engagement to value, collaboration, and trust. Schneider et al. (2009) described employee engagement as feelings that included energy and enthusiasm. With the varying definitions of engagement, it is unclear whether employee engagement is an attitude or behavior or an individual or group phenomenon (Little & Little, 2006).

Identifying barriers. Barriers in the workplace can lead to low engagement (Schiemann, 2006). Barriers include behaviors, rules, and cultures that cause problems for employees and challenges for leaders (Gatenby et al., 2009). For example, low engagement can lead to illness (Kimball & Nink, 2006). Employees with low engagement take excessive time off from work (Pech & Slade, 2006).

Certain leader behaviors could cause engagement barriers. Employees disengage when leaders fail to appreciate employees, do not recognize employees, or provide little feedback and coaching (Branham, 2005). As a result, employees lack confidence and trust in leaders (Branham, 2005; Schiemann, 2006). If not recognized and addressed, such disengagement can cause employees to undermine the work unit (Ayers, 2007).

Other engagement barriers include policies and practices that disregard quality of life issues (Boddie et al., 2007). Balancing work and life is a reality in the workplace (Bourgeois, 2006). Employees expect a work environment that includes flexibility and fulfillment (McBain, 2006). Implementing effective policies, procedures, and practices could help leaders meet employees' expectations (Richardsen et al., 2006).

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Barriers also exist when employees have unspecified roles and responsibilities (Masson et al., 2008). A decline in employee engagement results when employees' jobs do not match expectations or employees have unrealistic goals (Schiemann, 2006). Employees rely on leaders to provide pertinent information regarding the status and stability of the organization (Polet, 2009). The number of employees who knows the organizational strategic direction is fewer than 20% (Schiemann, 2007).

Assessing the engagement levels. Managing engagement levels within the organization is also a concern for leaders (O'Neal & Gebauer, 2006). Leaders are unclear on a realistic engagement level (Welbourne, 2007). Leaders know having a 100% engaged workforce is unrealistic (Stairs et al., 2006). Several organizations provide different measurements and levels for employee engagement. Leaders can identify effective strategies and action plans to address problems if they know employees' engagement levels (Towers Perrin, 2009).

Researchers at Modern Survey (2009) compiled an engagement index with four levels: fully engaged, moderately engaged, under engaged, and disengaged. The number of positive responses from a five-question survey determines the level of engagement. Towers Perrin (2008) researchers categorized the engagement levels as rational, emotional, and motivation. The original levels included engaged, enrolled, disenchanted, and disengaged. Enhancements to the study added enrolled, which signifies partially engaged and disenchanted, which means partially disengaged (Towers Perrin, 2008). Researchers at Gallup (2010) delineated levels, including engaged, not engaged, and actively disengaged, assessed through 12 core questions known as the Q12.

Employee engagement drivers. McBain (2007) described employee engagement drivers as factors that create engagement in employees and components that organizational

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leaders offer employees. McBain identified the organization, management and leadership, and working life as categories of employee engagement drivers. Elements within these categories included organizational culture or brand, the leadership and management team, and the work environment (McBain, 2007).

Stairs et al. (2006) identified several employee engagement drivers. First, organizational affiliation involves employees' commitment to the organization. Second, corporate values, ethics, customer services, and work tasks can promote a sense of purpose. Finally, role factors can include opportunities for employees to do their best, especially when performing tasks. Ketter (2008) listed 26 key employee engagement drivers. Examples include learning and development opportunities, a supportive management team, meaningful and challenging work, and recognizing employees' work.

The human capital management research discussed by Bassi and McMurrer (2007) identified practices in the organization that drive employee engagement. For example, organizational leaders should show a commitment to employees and recognize employees for work performed. Employees should have opportunities for advancement and development. Organizational leaders should also ensure employees have the time to perform job duties and balance their personal lives. Leaders should also take advantage of employees' skills (Bassi & McMurrer, 2007).

To compete in the global market, organizational leaders need to know what drives engagement, especially in a culturally diverse workforce (Lockwood, 2007). Common global drivers include learning and developing skills, improving skills, organizational reputation, and customers (O'Neal & Gebauer, 2006). Mastrangelo (2009) indicated research from global

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companies found micro-level and macro-level elements that drive engagement. Employees cited performance feedback and honesty as drivers (Mastrangelo, 2009).

Employee engagement outcomes. The results by Towers Perrin (2008) provided evidence that employee engagement plays an important role in organizational outcomes. A critical factor in the competitive marketplace is employee engagement (Lockwood, 2007). Companies with high employee engagement levels reported increases in financial performance than other companies. Revenue growth, net income, and operating income benefit from such an increase (Towers Perrin, 2008). Sales goals averaged 99% for highly engaged employees whereas sales goals averaged 91% for disengaged employees (Wellins et al., 2005).

Employee engagement also plays a part in other organizational outcomes (McBain, 2007). For example, such outcomes as customer satisfaction, customer loyalty, and customer service indicate the relationship between the customer and the organization (McBain, 2007). Retention, recruitment, and turnover are also employee engagement outcomes (Hughes & Rog, 2008). Research in a manufacturing company indicated highly engaged teams averaged a turnover rate of 4.1% while less-engaged teams averaged 14.5% (Wellins et al., 2005). Another outcome positively related to employee engagement was individual well-being (Koyuncu, Burke, & Fiksenbaum, 2006).

In a global research on attraction, the top five elements included nonmonetary and monetary drivers. Employees expected competitive pay, work and life balance, career advancement, challenging work, and salary increases (O'Neal & Gebauer, 2006). The top retention drivers included retaining skilled workers, having a fair decision-making process, motivating employees, balancing work and life events, and working for a company with a good reputation (O'Neal & Gebauer, 2006).

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Measuring employee engagement. Organizational leaders are allocating time and investing money to measure employee perceptions, which included a focus on employee engagement (Lockwood, 2007; Sanchez, 2007). Employee engagement surveys gauge engagement levels within an organization (Gatenby et al., 2009). Knowing the employee engagement levels could help leaders optimize employee-employer relationships and help move employees to the next engagement level (Sanchez & McCauley, 2006).

Organizational success and survival depends on investing in employees (Bassi & McMurrer, 2007). Information from the engagement surveys provides leaders with the tools to identify gaps and take corrective actions (Schiemann, 2006). Surveys enable leaders to target capabilities and strengths and weaknesses in organizational performance (Bassi & McMurrer, 2007). In addition, surveys help leaders identify positive areas and practices within an organization (Lawrence, 2007). Leaders who know the employees' engagement levels can identify effective strategies and action plans (Towers Perrin, 2008). Organizational leaders should consider the information resulting from various engagement levels to avoid costly consequences (Kimball & Nink, 2006).

Engaged employees are assets for a dynamic and unpredictable work environment (Chaudhary, Rangnekar, & Barua, 2011). Employees work toward organizational objectives (Snell, 2009). Engaged employees exhibit a passion for work and a connection to the job (Gallup, 2006). Differences in engagement occur between public sector workers and private sector workers (Pritchard, 2008). BlessingWhite (2008) reported 46% of employees in the HR consulting/training industry were engaged but 25% of government employees were engaged.

Pech and Slade (2006) indicated disengaged employees still contribute to their organizations. Disengaged employees show up and perform at work but lack energy (Gallup,

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2006). Actively disengaged employees are unhappy at work and undermine the accomplishments of others (Gallup, 2006). Actively disengaged employees create negative impacts in the organization (Gallup, 2010).

Researchers from Gallup (2006) also studied the perception of happiness and well-being in the workplace. Results from the Employee Index survey showed 77% of engaged employees believed their supervisors focused on strengths. Eight-six percent of engaged employees have a positive interaction with coworkers while only 42% of actively disengaged employees indicated a positive interaction with coworkers (Gallup, 2006).

Researchers from Towers Perrin (2008) used the Global Workforce Study to measure the views of workers concerning issues related to the job, rewards, and organization. The 9-item questionnaire included three sections categorized as rational, emotional, and motivation. Employees survey responses mapped to one of four categories of engagement; which included engaged, enrolled, disenchanted, and disengaged (Towers Perrin, 2008). Categories included factors that describe what employees think and believe about work and the organization (Heger, 2007).

Results from a 2007 Towers Perrin study showed 71% of employees fell within the partly engaged and partly disengaged categories: enrolled and disenchanted respectfully (Towers Perrin, 2009). A Towers Perrin 2005 study sampled employees from eight European countries, four Asian countries, the United States, Mexico, Canada, and Brazil (O'Neal & Gebauer, 2006). According to the study, the United States ranked third, with 21% of respondents as highly engaged employees (O'Neal & Gebauer, 2006).

Development Dimensions International researchers developed the E3® Employee Engagement Survey instrument to measure engagement in a workgroup setting (Wellins et al.,

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2005). Engagement measurements linked to categories associated with leaders, individuals, and the organization (Development Dimensions International, 2005). The tool consisted of 17 items categorized into five core sections: (a) assign effort with strategy, (b) empowerment, (c) teamwork and collaboration, (d) growth and development, and (e) support and recognition (Wellins et al., 2005).

The first component was assign effort with strategy. Employees understand job expectations through clear, written job descriptions and performance objectives (Wellins et al., 2005). Employees know how individual goals align to organizational goals. By ensuring a good communication system and strong accountability, leaders can help employees identify with their roles (Wellins et al., 2005). Employees know their job contributes to organizational success (Soyars & Brusino, 2009). Feedback is an important element in conveying expectations. Through processes and procedures, leaders can help employees understand goals, know why these goals are important, and know how to attain these goals (Seijts & Crim, 2006).

The second component was empowerment, which includes the characteristic of decision-making authority. Empowerment also occurs when tasks are self-determined rather than directed (Wellins et al., 2005). Leaders must provide opportunities for employees to control the flow and pace of their job (Seijts & Crim, 2006). The role employees have in an organization can help the organization reach goals (Soyars & Brusino, 2009).

The third component was teamwork and collaboration. Cooperation among group members facilitates a work environment for sharing ideas and creative solutions (Wellins et al., 2005). Leaders must create an environment that facilitates trust and cooperation among team members (Seijts & Crim, 2006). Teambuilding and social events in the workplace also enable positive relationships (Stair et al., 2006).

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The fourth component was growth and development. Employees expect learning opportunities within the workplace (Wellins et al., 2005). Training quality has a strong influence on engagement (Soyars & Brusino, 2009). For example, opportunities build new skills while maintaining existing competencies. Leaders need to understand the strengths and weaknesses of employees to leverage these skills and knowledge (Wellins et al., 2005). Leaders should also create an environment that provides challenging, meaningful, and career advancing work. Employee must have the tools, resources, and knowledge to succeed in the organization (Seijts & Crim, 2006).

The fifth component was support and recognition. Leaders should provide an atmosphere that appreciates employees' ideas and suggestions (Wellins et al., 2005). Leaders should take time to recognize accomplishments because recognition builds a strong partnership and employee self-esteem (Wellins et al., 2005). Leaders should also create an atmosphere that promotes praise for performance. Employees want to know they are contributing to the success of the organization (Seijts & Crim, 2006).

Leadership Styles and Employee Engagement

Nickels et al. (2008) noted research on leaders' styles, behaviors, or traits are unreliable. The various leadership styles provide meaningful classification of leaders' behavioral profiles (Oshagbemi & Ocholi, 2006). Leaders' styles differ according to experience and knowledge (Rad & Yarmohammadian, 2006). Leadership styles can range from boss-centered to subordinate-centered (Nickels et al., 2008). A leader is more than having employees; leaders must know how to work with employees (Fisk, 2008). Effective leaders understand and manage the expectations of employees (McGuire et al., 2007; Sexton, 2007).

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A critical element in employee engagement is leadership (O'Neal & Gebauer, 2006). The leadership quality influences this engagement (Wellins & Concelman, 2008). The multiple generations in the workplace have differences in their approach to the organization, leaders, and job duties (Patota et al., 2007). Differences also exist between employees' work and communication styles (Wilson & Folz, 2005). Leaders need to assess their leadership style to ensure a fully engaged workforce (Lyons, 2009).

Leaders have the greatest influence on employee engagement in the organization (McBain, 2007). Organizational leaders who cannot answer the question "What am I doing to properly engage employees?" are not doing enough to address employee engagement (Lyons, 2009, p. 1). As noted by Wildermuth and Pauken (2008a), leaders cannot require employees to engage. Leaders must be supportive of engagement (Corace, 2007). Opportunities by leaders to find and leverage employee engagement are worth examining (Trahant, 2009).

Public and Private Sectors Leaders

Hooijberg and Choi (2001) researched the advantage of generic theories to determine leadership behavior and effectiveness in public and private organizations. By applying the competing values framework, researchers indicated that leadership maps included (a) internal focus, (b) external focus, (c) flexibility, and (d) control. Four leadership style orientations for this framework included people orientation, adaptability, stability, and task orientation.

Leaders in the flexibility and internal focus quadrants display people-oriented characteristics (Hooijberg & Choi, 2001). The leadership roles are mentors and facilitators. Mentors are considerate, open, and helpful to employees. Facilitators foster teamwork. Leaders in the flexibility and external focus quadrants display adaptability. Leaders are innovators and

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brokers. The innovator role seeks new ideas, whereas the broker role acquires information and resources from outside the unit (Hooijberg & Choi, 2001).

Leaders in the control and internal focus quadrants displayed stability (Hooijberg & Choi, 2001). The coordinator role handles crises and issues within the unit. The monitor role oversees the day-to-day operations, processes, and procedures of the unit. Leaders in the control and external focus quadrants displayed task-oriented characteristics. The producer role facilitates an environment that fosters motivation for accomplishing goals. The director role clarifies expectation and establishes objectives (Hooijberg & Choi, 2001).

Hooijberg and Choi (2001) cited several similarities and differences in the leadership of the public and private sectors. Leaders from both sectors perceived leadership effectiveness in adaptability. The perception is evident as employers in the Washington, DC Metropolitan Division area secured 11,300 private sector jobs and 14,500 public sector jobs (Department of Employment Services, 2009). Between 2009 and 2010, the job market in the Washington, DC Metropolitan Division area decreased by 11,400. The statistics represented 2,600 jobs for the public sector and 8,800 jobs for the private sector (Department of Employment Services, 2010).

Differences in leadership between the public and private sectors occurred in attitudes, approaches, challenges, and constraints (Gill, 2009). Leaders in the public sector perceived task orientation as less effective and people orientation as effective. Private sector leaders tend to perceive the opposite. Employees in both sectors perceived task-oriented leaders as effective (Hooijberg & Choi, 2001). Research by Andersen (2010) found the leadership style of public sector leaders was change oriented while leaders in the private sector had relationship oriented leadership styles. Hansen and Villadsen (2010) research indicated managers in the private sector use the directive style of leadership.

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Fernandez (2004) researched the advantage of using the integrative framework to determine leadership effectiveness in the public sector. The integrative framework incorporated the trait, behavior, situation, and styles of leaders into a single model, which represented leadership performance according to eight leadership variables. The variables of managing internal environment and managing external environment are similar to the internal focus in the generic theories cited by Hooijberg and Choi (2001). The political variable measures leaders' support from public opinion, constituents, and political actors. The task difficulties variable measures level of effort while the delegation and discretion variables measure the level of control given to subordinates. Experience and promoting change also affect performance (Fernandez, 2004).

Trottier, Van Wart, and Wang (2008) conducted research on the importance of transformational and transactional leaders in a government setting. From the study, followers perceived managers as less receptive to change and inspirational motivation. Wright and Pandey (2010) studied transformational leadership in the public sector. The results indicated public sector leaders exhibited transformational leadership characteristics.

Conclusion

The literature search revealed many studies in leadership. The review of leadership research involved leaders' behavior and attitude, power, and influence (Trehan, 2007). The first studies of leadership indicated leaders are naturally born with specific traits. The second wave of studies on leadership indicated individuals learn certain qualities that enable leadership development (Kao & Kao, 2007; Mostovicz et al., 2009). A shift to a new paradigm in the study of leadership focused on leader and follower relationships. Effective leadership benefits organizations and employees (Melchar et al., 2008). Leaders sustain high performance, facilitate

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innovation, respond to market and environmental changes, and address challenges (Turner, 2007). Leadership styles include transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire (Bass, 1990b; Bass & Avolio, 1995; Burns, 1978). Kesby (2008) noted leadership is a relationship that is dynamic, authentic, and takes employees to new places. Leadership involves building and maintaining relationships and coping with change (McCallum & O'Connell, 2009). As change agents, leaders can help employees understand and meet organizational goals and objectives (Leban & Stone, 2008). The more leaders strive to create an environment in which employees can flourish, the more the organization benefits (Stairs et al., 2006).

The literature search also revealed many studies in engagement. Academia described engagement as improving issues relating to the job. Practitioners described engagement as improving productivity and competition (Zigarmi et al., 2009). Employee engagement is vital to employees and the organization (Richman, Civian, Shannon, Hill, & Brennan, 2008). An engaged workforce benefits the organization because employees connect with the organization, display loyalty, and become involved in the job (Lockwood, 2007; Wildermuth & Pauken, 2008a). Engaged employees also have a knowledge base that allows the organization to remain competitive (O'Neal & Gebauer, 2006).

Richardsen et al. (2006) noted increasing employee engagement level is difficult and complex. However, such tools as surveys, engagement champions, and leadership development programs can enhance and development engagement (McBain, 2007). Leaders should analyze the data and take action for improvement (Pritchard, 2008). Sanchez and McCauley (2006) posited knowing employee engagement levels could help leaders help employees move to the next engagement level and optimize employee-employer relationships. Three common categories existed in the employee engagement study: engagement drivers, engagement

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outcomes, and employee engagement measures. Each area offered opportunities for leaders to take action (Atwater & Brett, 2006).

A plethora of information is available on employee engagement and leadership styles. Wildermuth and Pauken (2008b) stated some research results indicated transformational leadership style fosters engagement. Little information exists concerning the types of factors important in engagement and the effects on the different roles, jobs, groups, and organizations (Kular et al., 2008). Researching the complexity of employee engagement and the challenges of several leadership styles benefits the organization (Lockwood, 2007; Nickels et al., 2008). Studying leadership and its effect on employee engagement in various business settings could provide new insight into leader and follower relationships.

In the literature, several views existed concerning leadership in the public and private sectors. Differences in leadership styles occur between the public and private sectors (Gill, 2009). Research by Wright and Pandey (2010) indicated public sector leaders exhibited transformational leadership styles. Andersen (2010) found private sector leaders exhibited relationship oriented leadership styles. The results of this research could help initiate or improve collaboration among leaders within the industries or between sectors.

Summary

Chapter 2 included a review of the body of literature relating to leadership and engagement. The review included historical and current reviews of the theories of leadership. The trait theories of leadership researchers such as Bowden (1927), Schenk (1928), Tead (1935), Jenkins (1947), and Ghiselli (1963), proposed such characteristics as personality, ability, and kindness differentiate leaders. Others researching the behavioral theories of leadership, such as Fleishman et al. (1955), Likert (1961), Blake and Mouton (1982), and Yukl et al. (2002)

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proposed the behavior of leaders determines effectiveness. Finally, researchers investigating the contingency theories of leadership, such as Fiedler (1964), House (1971), Graen and Schiemann (1978), and Hershey and Blanchard (1982), proposed leadership is a combination of traits and behaviors. The chapter also included a review of the leadership styles: transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire. Researchers such as Downton (1973), Burns (1978), Bass (1990a), and Bass and Avolio (1995) proposed the effectiveness of leadership styles is essential in the work environment.

The chapter also included an examination of personal engagement, job engagement, and employee engagement. Researchers such as Kahn (1990), Schaufeli et al. (2002), and Bakker and Demerouti (2008) proposed the roles of individuals improve engagement. Buckingham and Coffman (1999) noted components essential for employee engagement. Companies such as Gallup (2006), Towers Perrin (2008), Development Dimensions International (2005), Modern Survey (2008), and BlessingWhite (2008) implemented engagement survey tools to determine drivers and levels of employee engagement in the workplace.

Hooijberg and Choi (2001) studied a leadership model based on a value framework differentiating the public and private sectors. Fernandez (2004), Trottier et al. (2008), and Wright and Pandey (2010) studied leadership effectiveness in public organizations. Andersen (2010) studied the leadership styles in the public and private sectors.

Chapter 3 includes an examination of the foundational methodology designed to answer the research questions. The chapter also includes discussion of design appropriateness, population, data collection, and instrument validity and reliability. The research study used a quantitative correlational approach to collect data from full-time employees working in the

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Washington, DC Metropolitan Division area. The research could support a framework to assist leaders in the leader-follower relationship.

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Chapter 3: Research Method

The purpose of this quantitative correlational research was to determine if specific relationships exist between leadership styles and employee engagement among representatives from the public and private sectors in the Washington, DC Metropolitan Division area. The aim of the study was to determine if certain leadership styles exhibited by public and private sector leaders foster an environment for employees to engage in the workforce. Chapter 3 includes research methodology details to support or reject the hypotheses. Chapter 3 also includes discussions of (a) the research design, (b) population and sampling, (c) informed consent, confidentiality, and geography, (d) data collection process, (e) instrument validity and reliability, and (f) data analysis used to determine if differences in leadership styles promote employee engagement in various industries and organizations. The research adds to the body of knowledge by providing leaders with data on effective behaviors and influences on employee engagement in the workplace.

Research Method and Design Appropriateness

According to Borrego et al. (2009), "quantitative methods are a good fit for deductive approaches, in which theory or hypothesis justifies the variables, the purpose statement, and the direction of the narrowly defined research questions" (p. 54). The quantitative research also involves collecting data in an objective unbiased manner (Creswell, 2008). Quantitative research measures consumers' behaviors, opinions, knowledge, or attitudes (Cooper & Schindler, 2008). Quantitative research includes describing a trend or explaining a relationship between the independent and dependent variables (Creswell, 2008). The independent variables for leadership styles include (a) transformational, (b) transactional, and (c) laissez-faire. The dependent variable is employee engagement.

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The study addressed the relationship between leaders and employees appropriate for quantitative research. Three research questions addressed the relationship between leaders and employees:

1. What is the relationship between workers' perceptions of transformational leadership style and the conditions that foster employee engagement?

2. What is the relationship between workers' perceptions of transactional leadership style and the conditions that foster employee engagement?

3. What is the relationship between workers' perceptions of laissez-faire leadership style and the conditions that foster employee engagement?

Correlational research involves gathering data for two or more characteristics from a unit of study (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). Correlational research also involves counting occurrences between these entities (Gelo et al., 2008). The study tested the hypotheses associated with the research questions: The hypotheses include the following:

$H1.1_0$: There is no relationship between transformational leadership style and employee engagement in the public sector.

$H1.1_a$: There is a relationship between transformational leadership and employee engagement in the public sector.

$H1.2_0$: There is no relationship between transformational leadership style and employee engagement in the private sector.

$H1.2_a$: There is a relationship between transformational leadership and employee engagement in the private sector.

$H2.1_0$: There is no relationship between transactional leadership style and employee engagement in the public sector.

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$H2.1_a$: There is a relationship between transactional leadership and employee engagement in the public sector.

$H2.2_0$: There is no relationship between transactional leadership style and employee engagement in the private sector.

$H2.2_a$: There is a relationship between transactional leadership and employee engagement in the private sector.

$H3.1_0$: There is no relationship between laissez-faire leadership style and employee engagement in the public sector.

$H3.1_a$: There is a relationship between laissez-faire leadership and employee engagement in the public sector.

$H3.2_0$: There is no relationship between laissez-faire leadership style and employee engagement in the private sector.

$H3.2_a$: There is a relationship between laissez-faire leadership and employee engagement in the private sector.

A qualitative method was not appropriate for this study because the purpose of the study was to determine whether a relationship exists between known variables. Qualitative methods emphasize textual data collection and analyze narratives, conversations, and personal experiences (Magilvy et al., 2009). Qualitative research also involves exploring little known problems (Creswell, 2008).

Disengaged employees negatively affect multiple business areas, such as profit, performance, customer service, and productivity (Fink, 2012). The general problem is determining the conditions in which some employees are fully engaged while others are disengaged (Wildermuth & Pauken, 2008a). Researcher from BlessingWhite (2008) indicated

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the industry with the highest engaged employees is HR consulting/training, whereas the sector with the lowest engaged employees is government. The specific problem is public sector employees trail behind private sector employees in employee engagement (Pritchard, 2008).

Population

Population refers to individuals with similar characteristics (Creswell, 2008). The population for this study included workers in the Washington, DC Metropolitan Division area. Participants represented different organizations and industries from the public and private sectors. By choosing participants from a large population in the Washington, DC area, representation included different age groups, levels of experience, and occupational titles in the workplace. Employees' differences affect expectations in the workplace and expectations affect how employees perceive leaders (Patota et al., 2007; Rothenburger, 2008).

Sample

In quantitative research, individuals chosen as representatives of a population are a study sample. Using a sample provides external validity in the study (Gelo et al., 2008). Participants included full-time employees with one or more years in their current positions. Participants were also nonmanagers within their organizations. For the purpose of this study, nonmanagers included employees who do not write, rate, review, or evaluate other employees' performance appraisal. Because the background of the research problem involved the public and private sectors, employees from different industries were relevant to this study. The public and private sectors represented the top industries in the District of Columbia, Virginia, and Maryland. Industries in this study included aerospace and defense, information technology services, government, financial services, health care, hospitality, and education.

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Sampling

Copper and Schlinder (2008) listed several advantages of sampling in research. The advantages include (a) cost, (b) accuracy, (c) data collection speed, and (d) population availability. Nonprobability sampling, also known as purposive sampling selects individuals who represent certain characteristics or criteria (Creswell, 2008; Gelo et al., 2008). Nonprobability sampling was the method of choice because cost and availability played important roles in this research.

Several approaches provide information to determine sample size in research (Israel, 2009). Sample criteria include sampling error, risk level, and variability degree. Strategies include published tables, formulas, and sample size from similar studies (Israel, 2009). The Cochran formula (1977) was the method of choice for determining the desired sample size (196) since the population of public and private workers in the Washington, DC Metropolitan Division is large. The specific version of the formula is ($n_0=[Z^2pq]/e^{2)}$. The confidence level is 95% (Z), the precision is .07 (e), the maximum variability is .5 (p) and the 1-p is .5 (q). Cohen (1992), cited a sample size of 28 when using the Sig *r* test with a large effect size and $\alpha=.05$. The sample from the Washington, DC Metropolitan Division area consisted of 37 public and private sector employees. Creswell (2008) noted that, for correlational study, the minimum sample size is approximately 30 participants.

Informed Consent

An informed consent form conveyed to participants their rights and included an area for participants to acknowledge their understanding of the study's purpose (Creswell, 2008). Examples of rights include the right to refuse, opt out, or complete the questionnaires without risk of penalty or job loss. As suggested by Creswell (2008), the consent form should include

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such information as (a) title of the research, (b) the research purpose, (c) a voluntary statement, (d) the right to withdraw, (e) procedures for data collection, (f) participants' rights, (g) risks involved, and (h) the research benefits.

In the online survey, each participant completed an informed consent form explaining (a) the purpose of the study, (b) the right to refuse or withdraw, and (c) statements about confidentiality and anonymity of the information (see Appendix A). The consent form ensured participants understood taking part in the process was voluntary. The consent process ensured privacy protection and data confidentiality. Participants who did not agree with the terms of the informed consent form did not have the opportunity to continue the survey.

Confidentiality

Participants completed the MLQ-Form 5X Short for Raters and the E3® Employee Engagement questionnaire via Zoomerang. Zoomerang provided external third-party vendor capabilities to address potential concerns with confidentiality and credibility. The demographics questionnaire included sector, work location, years in position, age, gender, and education level.

Participants could not review the results, number of participants, or survey tool status. Zoomerang generates downloadable files in a Microsoft Excel format. The completed data were exported to the researcher's computer and the file was password-protected to ensure confidentiality. The data will be stored and password-protected on the researcher's computer for a minimum of 3 years. Research documentation will be destroyed at the end of this period, including permanently deleting the files from the recycle bin.

Geography

The participants worked in the Washington, DC Metropolitan Division area. The area included the District of Columbia, selected cities and counties in Virginia, and selected counties

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in Maryland. The Washington, DC area headquarters several Fortune 1000 companies and government agencies. The participants represented various organizations and industries in the area. Companies and organizations within these cities and counties represented top industries in the area. Industries included aerospace and defense, information technology services, financial services, health care, government, and education.

Data Collection

Data collection in quantitative research tests the hypotheses and answers the research questions (Creswell, 2008; Gelo et al., 2008). Technology allows for collecting data from the Internet and online methods (Wright & Schwager, 2008). Online surveys enable data collection across large geographical locations (Van Selm & Jankowski, 2006). According to Leedy and Ormond (2010), the following people most likely complete online surveys:

> People who (a) are comfortable with computers, (b) spend a fair amount of time on the Internet, (c) enjoy partaking in research studies, and (c) have been sufficiently enticed by your research topic to participate (p. 204).

Owners, managers, and employees representing public and private sector industries in the Washington, DC Metropolitan Division area gave permission for respondents to participate in the survey. The sampling process for the research also included posting invitations to participate on online bulletin boards and message boards targeting companies and participants representing the sample industries.

The study used Zoomerang, an online Internet-based survey company to assist in the data collection process. Zoomerang provides survey solutions for several organizations and Fortune 100 companies (Zoomerang, 2009). Each participant received an e-mail with the website location and instructions for completing the questionnaire. Participants completed the informed

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consent form, the demographic questions, and the closed-ended leadership styles and employee engagement questions. The closed-ended format enabled data coding to obtain numerical values for statistical analysis (Gelo et al., 2008). The survey was originally available for 3 weeks because of time and cost considerations. One week before the closing date, participants received follow-up e-mail reminders to complete the questionnaire. Low response rates of 27 participants resulted in two extensions of the survey closing date.

Permission to use the MLQ-Form 5X Short for Raters was obtained through personal mail and by purchasing the tool's license (see Appendix B). Mind Garden, Inc. owns the rights to the tool. The instrument includes questions requesting information related to leadership styles. Permission to use the E3® Employee Engagement survey was obtained through personal e-mail (see Appendix C). Development Dimensions International, Inc. provided written permission to use the copyrighted E3 instrument. The survey instrument includes questions requesting information related to employee engagement.

Instrument

Several instrument types provide data collection in quantitative research. Instrument types include standard questionnaires and structured interviews (Gelo et al., 2008). Participants completed closed-ended questionnaires using a 5-point Likert-type scale. The tools included the MLQ-Form 5X Short for Raters instrument and the E3® Employee Engagement Survey instrument.

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

The MLQ-Form 5X Short for Raters was the instrument of choice. The tool measures various leadership styles by identifying characteristics of each type (Mind Garden, 2009). The instrument includes 45 core statements to measure employees' perceptions of leaders' behaviors.

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Example statements from the leadership form include (a) “I provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts”; (b) “I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate”; (c) “I fail to interfere until problems become serious”; (d) “I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards”; and (e) “I avoid getting involved when important issues arise”. The 5-point Likert-type scale included 0 = Not at all, 1 = Once in a while, 2 = Sometimes, 3 = Fairly Often, 4 = Frequently, if not always.

Participants answered questions concerning characteristics associated with transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leaders. Transformational characteristics included idealized influence (attributed and behavior), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Transactional characteristics included contingent reward, management by exception (active), and management by exception (passive). The remaining questions addressed categories on satisfaction, extra effort, and effectiveness (Bass & Avolio, 1995).

E3® Employee Engagement Survey

The E3® Employee Engagement Survey was the other instrument of choice. The E3® tool measures employee engagement (Development Dimensions International, 2005). The E3® instrument included 17 core statements to measure the level of engagement in the workgroup. Statements from the engagement survey include (a) “In my work group, my ideas and opinions are appreciated”; (b) “In my work group, people are assigned tasks that allow them to use their best skills”; and (c) “My work group makes efficient use of its resources, time, and budget”. The 5-point Likert-type scale included 0 = Strongly disagree, 1 = Disagree, 2 = Neither agree nor disagree, 3 = Agree, 4 = Strongly agree. Participants answered questions concerning

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characteristics associated with strategy, empowerment, teamwork, growth, and support (Phelps, 2009).

Instrument Validity and Reliability

The instruments in quantitative research must show reliability, validity, generalizability, and objectivity. Validity ensures the instrument measures data associated with the variables in the research (Borrego et al., 2009). The instrument validity also ensures meaningful and good conclusions from the data collection process (Creswell, 2008). Reliability ensures the results are repeatable (Borrego et al., 2009). A reliable instrument also ensures score stability and consistency (Creswell, 2008).

Results from several research studies confirmed the reliability and validity of the MLQ-Form 5X Short for Raters. The tool validation occurred in profit, not for profit, and government organizations (Xirasagar, 2008). Research by Barbuto (2005) indicated the tool reliability in the study of 186 leaders from various industries and agencies. Seven hundred and fifty-nine direct reports rated the leadership behaviors. Cronbach's alpha coefficients on the full range of leadership behaviors ranged from .71 to .82 (Barbuto, 2005). Casimir, Waldman, Bartram, and Yang (2006) cited tool reliability in a cross-cultural comparison of leadership styles from 241 followers in Australia and China. Instead of testing each variable in a leadership style, the researchers combined the variables under the transactional and transformational leadership styles. Cronbach's alpha coefficients yielded a score of .73 and .71 for the transactional leader scale and .92 and .91 for the transformational leader scale (Casimir et al., 2006).

Results from several studies confirmed the reliability and validity of the E3® Employee Engagement Survey tool. Wellins et al. (2005) implemented the tool for more than 200 organizations and thousands of employees. Industries included manufacturing, service, and

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healthcare. Benchmark studies ensured external data comparison from the results of the survey tool (Development Dimensions International, 2010). Implementing the E3 instrument helped provide leaders and employees with an engagement baseline and reference point (Bernthal, 2005).

Data Analysis

In quantitative research, data analysis tests one or more hypotheses to determine a relation between variables (Gelo et al., 2008). Data analysis includes using a statistical test, measurement scale, and confidence analysis (Gelo et al., 2008). Responses for quantitative research include coding, categorizing, and reducing data to numbers for statistical analysis manipulation (Cooper & Schlinder, 2008).

A technique available for data analysis included Pearson's product moment correlation, *r*. This method "describes the strength of the linear relation between two metric (interval or ratio) variables" (Kornbrot, 2005, p. 1537). The linear relationship ranged from +1 to -1. The Pearson's product moment correlation indicates magnitude, which describes the degree to which the variables moves in unison or opposition and direction to determine whether the values for one variable are associated with the values for another variable (Cooper & Schindler, 2008).

The study had 80% power at the .05 level of significance to detect large effect sizes for all of the hypotheses. A sample size of 19 for public sector employees produced 80% power to detect an effect size of 0.59, which is a large effect size. A sample size of 18 for private sector employees produced 80% power to detect an effect size of 0.61, which is also a large effect size.

Summary

Chapter 3 included an outline of the research methodology designed to answer the research questions. The chapter also included discussions about design appropriateness,

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population, data collection, and instrument validity and reliability. The purpose of this quantitative correlational research was to determine if specific relationships exist between leadership styles (the independence variables) and employee engagement (the dependent variable) among representatives from the public and private sectors in the Washington, DC Metropolitan Division area. The aim of the study was to determine if certain leadership styles exhibited by public and private sector leaders foster an environment for employees to engage in the workforce.

A quantitative correlational research was appropriate for this study. The quantitative research includes a trend or explains a relationship between the independent and dependent variables (Creswell, 2008). The independent variable was leadership styles and the dependent variable was employee engagement. The MLQ-Form 5X Short for Raters instrument included measurements for leadership styles and the E3® Employee Engagement Survey instrument included measurements for employee engagement. Chapter 4 includes research findings from the results of the data collection process.

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Chapter 4: Presentation and Data Analysis

The purpose of this quantitative correlational research was to determine if specific relationships exist between leadership styles and employee engagement among representatives from the public and private sectors in the Washington, DC Metropolitan Division area. The independent variables were transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles. The dependent variable was employee engagement. Demographic variables collected included sector, work location, years in position, gender, age, and education. Representatives included public and private sector employees from different industries and organizations in the Washington, DC Metropolitan Division area. Industries included aerospace and defense, information technology services, government, financial services, health care, hospitality, and education. One hundred and fifty employees from a list of approved participants were invited to participate in the study. Thirty-seven participants completed the entire survey.

Chapter 4 includes a discussion of the procedures used to test the hypotheses and answer the research questions. Respondents completed core statements from the MLQ-Form 5X Short for Raters to measure the employees' perceptions of leaders' behaviors. Respondents also completed core statements from the E3® Employee Engagement to measure the level of engagement. A summary of each finding for the research questions and hypotheses is included with tables and scatter plots to describe significant findings. Chapter 4 concludes with a summary of the results. The discussion includes the results of the study and does not make inferences or interpret of the data.

Data Collection

Public and private sector employees represented the top industries in the District of Columbia, Virginia, and Maryland. Industries included aerospace and defense, information

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technology services, government, financial services, health care, hospitality, and education. One hundred fifty participants received an e-mail invitation announcing the survey and requesting participation. The invitation included an introductory letter explaining (a) the purpose of the study, (b) participants' right to refuse or withdraw without penalty, (c) confidentiality and anonymity of the information, and (d) a declaration that no known risk was associated with the study. Thirty-seven (25%) from 150 respondents completed the survey. Two weeks before the survey closing date, participants received an e-mail reminder to complete the survey. The original survey closing date yielded 27 respondents. Low response rates resulted in two extensions of the survey closing date. Communications from potential participants indicated changes in job status, family emergencies, and computer security settings contributed to the low response rate.

Participants received a link to a secure website hosted by Zoomerang. The first page of the survey contained an online informed consent form. Participants who did not agree to the terms of the informed consent could not continue the survey. During the data collection process, employees had the opportunity to withdraw from the survey or continue with the survey. At the conclusion of the data collection process, employees had the opportunity to withdraw from the survey or submit the answers. The survey had three questionnaire sections. The first section had the demographic questions. Demographic variables included sector, work location, years in position, gender, age, and education.

The second section of the survey contained leadership styles questions. The MLQ-Form 5X Short for Raters includes 45 core statements to measure the employees' perceptions of leaders' behaviors. Transformational characteristics included idealized influence (behavior), idealized influence (attributed), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and

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individualized consideration. Transactional characteristics included contingent reward, management by exception (active), and management by exception (passive). Questions also included characteristics concerning the laissez-faire leadership style. The remaining questions included categories concerning satisfaction, extra effort, and effectiveness, which represent leadership results.

The third section of the survey contained questions about employee engagement. The E3® Employee Engagement instrument included 17 core statements to measure the level of employee engagement. Engagement ratings categories included assign effort with strategy, empowerment, teamwork and collaboration, growth and development, and support and recognition.

Sample Demographics

The study population included employees in the Washington, DC Metropolitan Division area, which includes the District of Columbia, selected cities and counties in Virginia, and selected counties in Maryland. Participants represented different organizations and industries in the public and private sectors. The study participants included nonmanagers working full-time for one year or more in their current positions. Industries included aerospace and defense, information technology services, financial services, health care, government, and education.

Thirty-seven employees consented to participate in the study and completed the survey. Nineteen (51.4%) employees represented the public sector group and 18 (48.6%) represented the private sector group. Among the 37 study participants, 23 (62.2%) represented Virginia. Twenty-two (59.5%) study participants reported having 1 - 5 years of experience in their current positions. Thirty (81.1%) study participants reported their age as 38 or older. Fifteen (40.5%) males and 22 (59.5%) females completed the survey. Among the 37 study participants, 12

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(32.4%) reported their highest level of education as a bachelor's degree. Appendix D shows the complete demographics data.

Data Analysis Procedures

The MLQ-Form 5X Short for Raters consisted of 45 descriptive statements used to collect data concerning transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles. Transformational characteristics included idealized influence (behavior), idealized influence (attributed), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Transactional characteristics included contingent reward, management by exception (active), and management by exception (passive). Questions also included characteristics for the laissez-faire leadership style. Table 2 shows the independent variables, characteristics, and behavior descriptions of the variables. The last nine questions of the MLQ form addressed satisfaction, extra effort, and effectiveness. The average leadership style scores from the respondents included the calculated individual raw scores. Participants rated their immediate supervisors or managers based on a 5-point Likert-type scale for scoring: 0 = Not at all, 1 = Once in a while, 2 = Sometimes, 3 = Fairly often, 4 = Frequently, if not always.

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Table 2

Independent Variables, Characteristics, and Behavior Descriptions

Independent variables	Characteristics	Behavior descriptions
Transformational		
	Idealized influence (behavior)	Leader emphasizes a sense of purpose
	Idealized influence (attributed)	Leader instills pride
	Inspirational motivation	Leader speaks with optimism and enthusiasm
	Intellectual stimulation	Leader seeks different perspectives
	Individualized consideration	Leader coaches and teaches
Transactional		
	Contingent reward	Leader provides assistance in exchange of efforts
	Management-by-exception (active)	Leader focuses on deviations from standards
	Management-by-exception (passive)	Leader waits before taking action
Laissez-Faire		
		Leader is not available when needed

The E3® Employee Engagement instrument consisted of 17 descriptive statements based on assign effort with strategy, empowerment, teamwork and collaboration, growth and development, and support and recognition. Table 3 shows the dependent variable, characteristics, and behavior descriptions for the variable. The average employee engagement scores for the respondents were calculated from the individual raw scores. Participants rated their engagement levels in response to scenarios concerning their workgroups. A 5-point Likert-type scale for scoring included the following possible responses: 0 = Not at all, 1 = Once in a while, 2 = Sometimes, 3 = Fairly often, 4 = Frequently, if not always.

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Table 3

Dependent Variable, Characteristics, and Behavior Descriptions

Dependent variable	Characteristics	Behavior descriptions
Employee engagement		
	Assign effort with strategy	Employee understand job expectations
	Empowerment	Employee has decision-making authority
	Teamwork and collaboration	Employee has cooperation among group members for sharing ideas
	Growth and development	Employee has learning opportunities
	Support and recognition	Employee receives appreciation for ideas and suggestions

Descriptive statistics performed by the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 19.0 provided data on the number of respondents per survey item, the means, and standard deviations for leadership styles and employee engagement. Zoomerang generates downloadable files in a Microsoft Excel .csv format. The leadership scores included the sum of the survey items divided by the number of items. Each characteristic in transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership variables was addressed with four survey items. Pearson's product moment correlation provided analysis to show the strength of the linear association between leadership styles and employee engagement scores. Power calculations using NCSS (2008), Power Analysis and Sample Size provided data on power analysis for public and private sector participants post descriptive analysis. The study had 80% power at the .05 level of significance to detect large effect sizes for all of the hypotheses. Data from power analysis revealed 80% power for public sector employees and 80% power for private sector employees.

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The employee engagement scores ranged from .35 to 4.0. The transformational leadership style characteristics and one transactional leadership style score (contingent reward) were rated above the midpoint of 2.00 on average. Among the nine leadership style characteristics, contingent reward rated highest on average. The leadership style laissez-faire score rated lowest on average. Table 4 shows descriptive statistics for the independent and dependent variables and the characteristics.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics for the Employee Engagement and Leadership Style Scores

Variables	N	M	SD	Min.	Max.
Employee engagement	37	2.5895	.73860	.35	4.00
Transformational					
Idealized influence (attributed)	37	2.3716	.88858	.00	4.00
Idealized influence (behavior)	37	2.3806	.69432	.00	4.00
Inspirational motivation	37	2.5293	.76558	.25	4.00
Intellectual stimulation	37	2.4257	.82257	.00	4.00
Individualized consideration	37	2.4054	.87338	.50	3.75
Transactional					
Management-by-exception (active)	37	1.9910	.78636	1.00	4.00
Management-by-exception (passive)	37	1.7815	.70666	.50	3.00
Contingent reward	37	2.6104	.76327	.00	4.00
Laissez-faire	37	1.4302	.82625	.00	3.00

Cronbach's alpha scores were calculated for the employee engagement and leadership style scores. With the exception of the Management-by-Exception (passive) score, all the scale scores had Cronbach's alpha values above .7, indicating good reliability. Because the Cronbach's alpha for the Management-by-Exception (passive) score was not far below .7, the

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low reliability for that score is not considered a major limitation of the study. Table 5 shows the Cronbach's alpha reliability scores.

Table 5

Cronbach's Alpha Reliability for the Employee and Leadership Style Scores

Variables	N	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
Employee engagement	37	0.95	17
Transformational			
Idealized influence (attributed)	37	0.86	4
Idealized influence (behavior)	37	0.79	4
Inspirational motivation	37	0.91	4
Intellectual stimulation	37	0.85	4
Individualized consideration	37	0.82	4
Transactional			
Management-by-exception (active)	37	0.78	4
Management-by-exception (passive)	37	0.62	4
Contingent reward	37	0.83	4
Laissez-faire	37	0.74	4

Findings

Three research questions provided the structure for the conducted study. The three research questions addressed the relationship between the leadership styles and employee engagement among public and private sector employees. The hypotheses addressed the differences and similarities between public and private sector leaders.

Research Question 1

What is the relationship between workers' perceptions of transformational leadership style and the conditions that foster employee engagement? The null hypotheses (H1.10 and H1.20) were no relationship between transformational leadership style and employee

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engagement in the public sector and private sector. The alternate hypotheses (H1.1a and H1.2a) were a relationship between transformational leadership and employee engagement in the public sector and private sector. The Pearson's product moment correlation analysis showed the strength of the linear association between leadership styles and employee engagement scores. The analysis was repeated for each of the five transformational leadership style scores. The analysis employed a two-tailed test using the $\alpha = .05$ significance level.

Public Sector Findings

The finding revealed a statistically significant, strong positive correlation between the employee engagement scores and the idealized influence (attributed) scores, $r(19) = .77$, $p < .001$. A high level of idealized influence (attributed) characteristic resulted in a higher level of employee engagement. Figure 1 shows the relations between the employee engagement scores and the idealized influence (attributed) scores. The figure gives strong evidence of a positive correlation between the two variables.

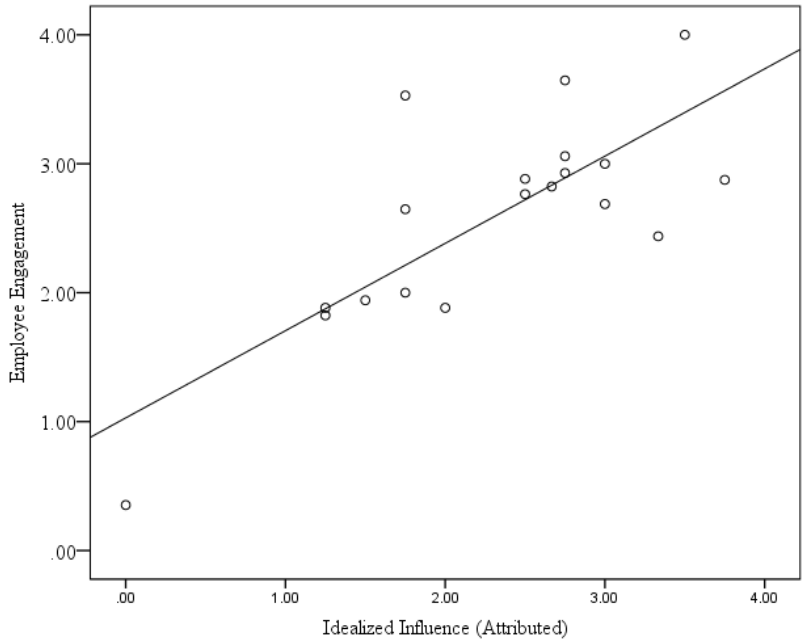

Figure 1. Scatter plot comparing Employee Engagement scores and Idealized Influence Attributed scores

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The findings revealed a statistically significant, strong positive correlation between the employee engagement scores and the idealized influence (behavior) scores, $r(19) = .74$; $p < .001$. A high level of idealized influence (behavior) resulted in a higher level of employee engagement. Figure 2 shows the relationship between the employee engagement scores and the idealized influence (behavior) scores. The figure gives strong evidence of a positive correlation between the two variables.

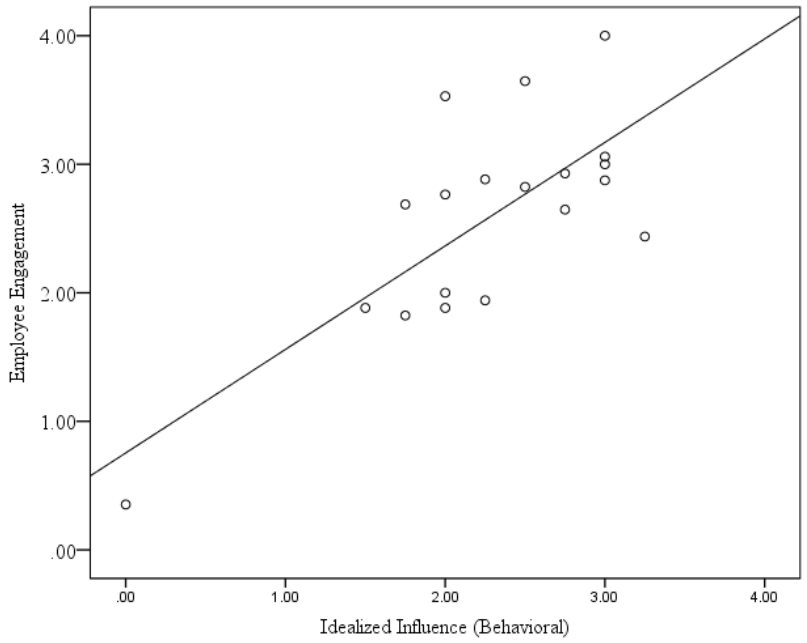

Figure 2. Scatter plot comparing Employee Engagement scores and Idealized Influence Behavior scores

Analysis revealed a statistically significant, strong positive correlation between the employee engagement scores and the inspirational motivation scores, $r(19) = .87$; $p < .001$. A high level of idealized inspirational motivation behavior resulted in a higher level of employee engagement. Figure 3 shows the relationship between the employee engagement scores and the inspirational motivation scores. The figure gives strong evidence of a positive correlation between the two variables.

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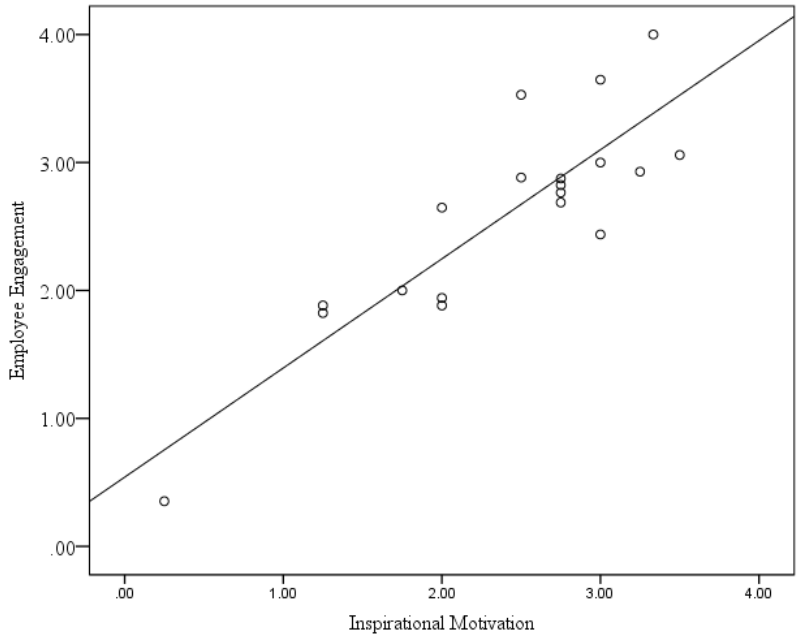

Figure 3. Scatter plot comparing Employee Engagement scores and the Inspirational Motivation scores

Analysis revealed a statistically significant, strong positive correlation between the employee engagement scores and the intellectual stimulation scores, $r(19) = .80$; $p < .001$. A high level of idealized intellectual stimulation behavior resulted in a higher level of employee engagement. Figure 4 shows the relationship between the employee engagement scores and the intellectual stimulation scores. The figure gives strong evidence of a positive correlation between the two variables.

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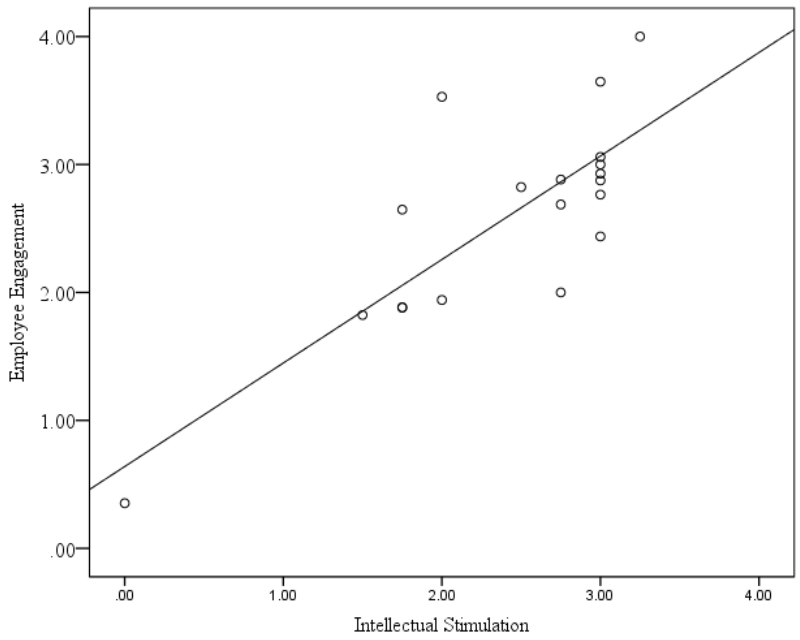

Figure 4. Scatter plot comparing Employee Engagement scores and Intellectual Stimulation scores

The findings revealed a statistically significant, strong positive correlation between the employee engagement scores and the individualized consideration scores, $r(19) = .73$; $p < .001$. A high level of idealized individualized consideration behavior resulted in a higher level of employee engagement. Figure 5 shows the relationship between the employee engagement scores and the individualized consideration scores. The figure gives strong evidence of a positive correlation between the two variables.

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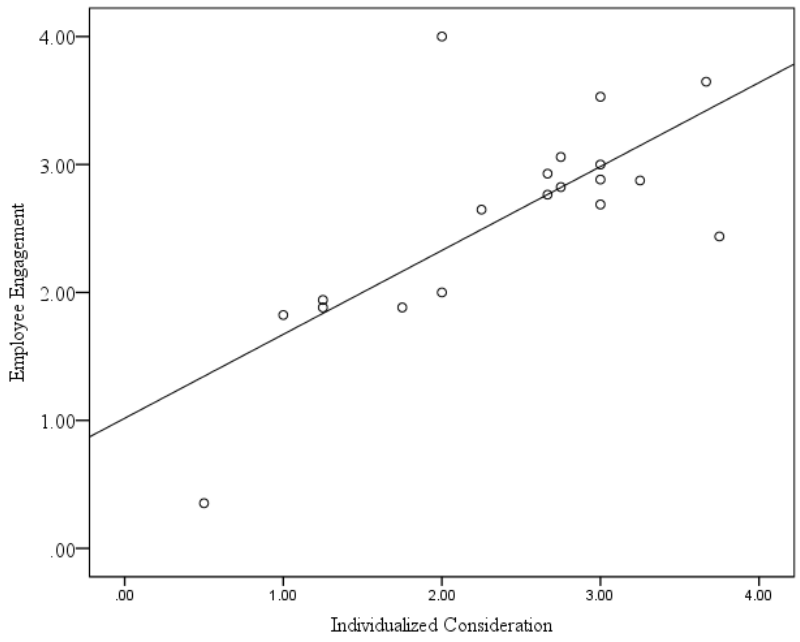

Figure 5. Scatter plot comparing Employee Engagement scores and Individualized Consideration scores

Private Sector Findings

The findings revealed a statistically significant, strong positive correlation between the employee engagement scores and the idealized influence (attributed) scores, $r(18) = .86$; $p < .001$. A high level of idealized influence (attributed) characteristic resulted in a higher level of employee engagement. Figure 6 shows the relationship between the employee engagement scores and the idealized influence (attributed) scores. The figure gives strong evidence of a positive correlation between the two variables.

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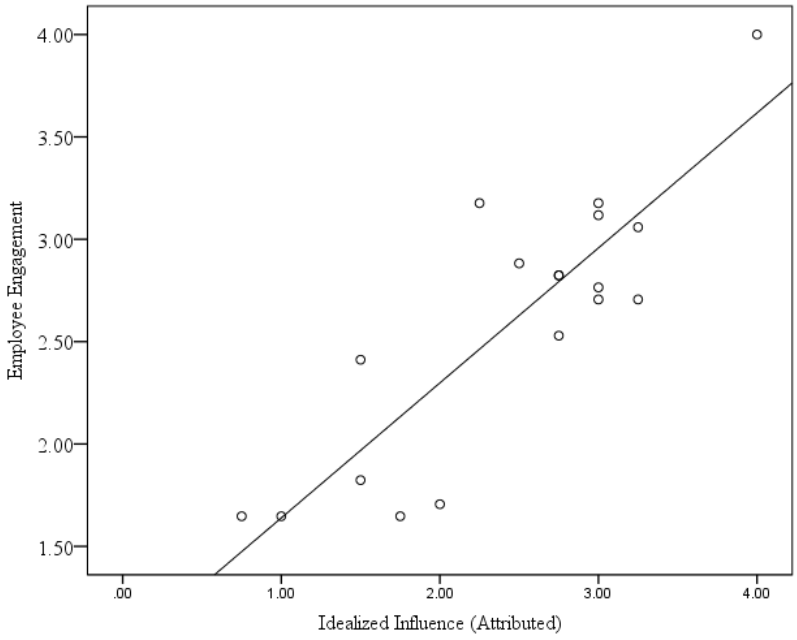

Figure 6. Scatter plot comparing Employee Engagement scores and Idealized Influence Attributed scores

Analysis revealed a statistically significant, strong positive correlation between the employee engagement scores and the idealized influence (behavior) scores, $r(18) = .90$; $p < .001$. A high level of idealized influence (behavior) resulted in a higher level of employee engagement. Figure 7 shows the relationship between the employee engagement scores and the idealized influence (behavior) scores. The figure gives strong evidence of a positive correlation between the two variables.

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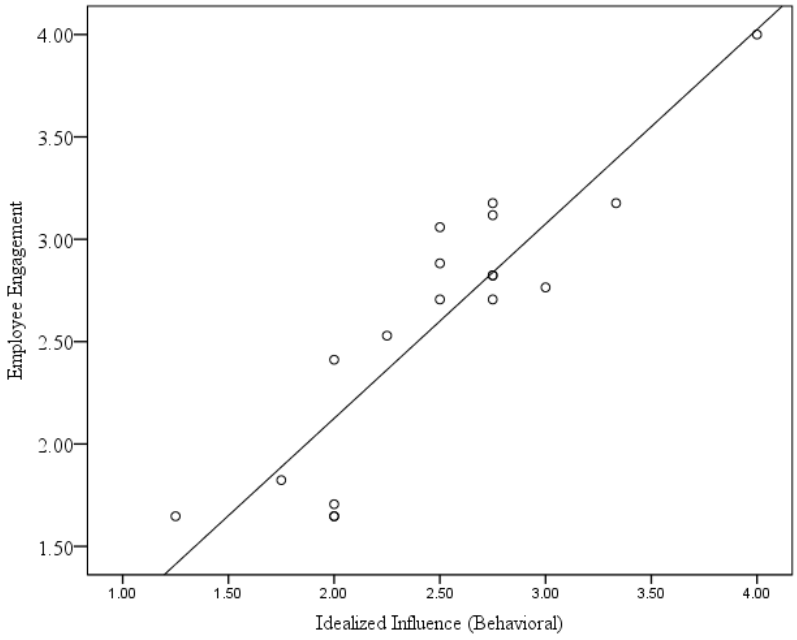

Figure 7. Scatter plot comparing Employee Engagement scores and Idealized Influence Behavior scores

The findings revealed a statistically significant, strong positive correlation between the employee engagement scores and the inspirational motivation scores, $r(18) = .61$; $p = .008$. A high level of idealized inspirational motivation behavior resulted in a higher level of employee engagement. Figure 8 shows the relationship between the employee engagement scores and the inspirational motivation scores. The figure gives strong evidence of a positive correlation between the two variables.

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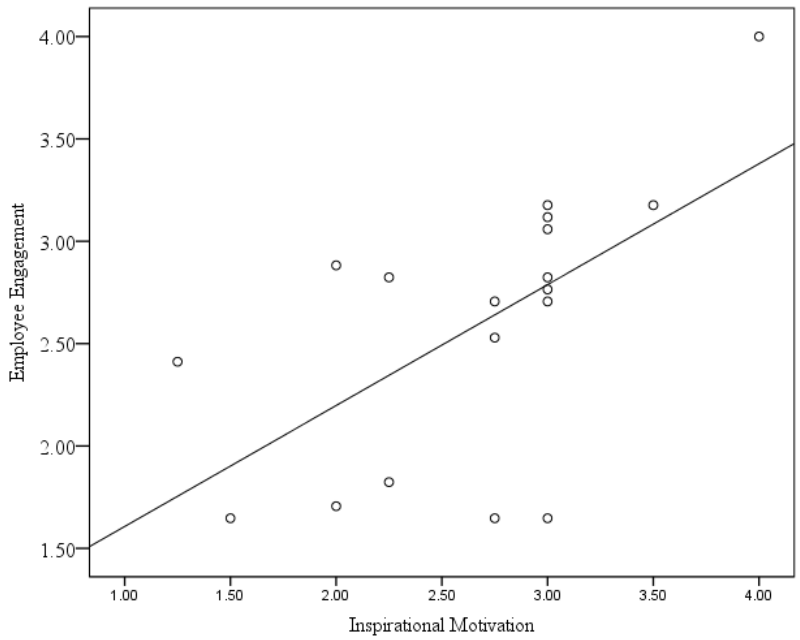

Figure 8. Scatter plot comparing Employee Engagement scores and Inspirational Motivation scores

The findings revealed a statistically significant, strong positive correlation between the employee engagement scores and the intellectual stimulation score, $r(18) = .88$; $p < .001$. A high level of idealized intellectual stimulation behavior resulted in a higher level of employee engagement. Figure 9 shows the relationship between the employee engagement scores and the intellectual stimulation scores. The figure gives strong evidence of a positive correlation between the two variables.

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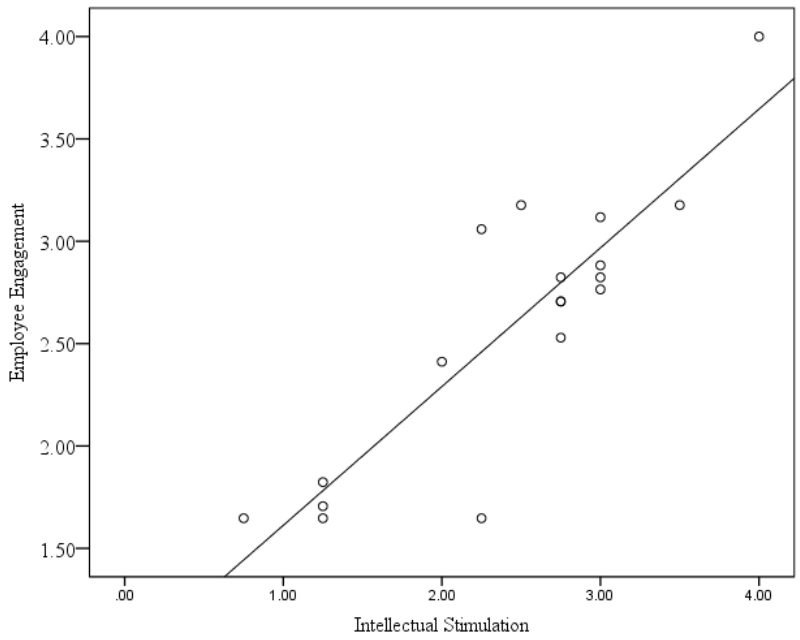

Figure 9. Scatter plot comparing Employee Engagement scores and the Intellectual Stimulation scores

Analysis revealed a statistically significant, strong positive correlation between the employee engagement scores and the individualized consideration scores, $r(18) = .89$; $p < .001$. A high level of idealized individualized consideration behavior resulted in a higher level of employee engagement. Figure 10 shows the relationship between the employee engagement scores and the individualized consideration scores. The figure gives strong evidence of a positive correlation between the two variables.

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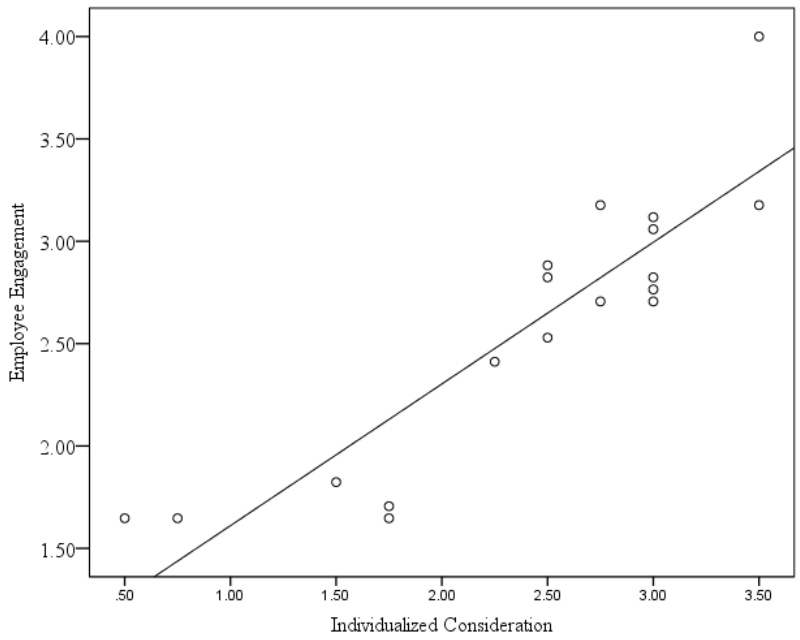

Figure 10. Scatter plot comparing Employee Engagement scores and Individualized Consideration scores

Research Question 2

What is the relationship between workers' perceptions of transactional leadership style and the conditions that foster employee engagement? The null hypotheses (H2.10 and H2.20) were no relationship between transactional leadership style and employee engagement in the public sector and private sector. The alternate hypotheses (H2.1a and H2.2a) were a relationship between transactional leadership and employee engagement in the public sector and private sector. The Pearson's product moment correlation analysis showed the strength of the linear association between leadership style scores and employee engagement scores. The analysis was repeated for each of the three transactional leadership style scores. The analysis employed a two-tailed test using the $\alpha = .05$ significance level.

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Public Sector Findings

The findings revealed no statistically significant correlation between the employee engagement scores and the management-by-exception (active) scores, $r(19) = .036$; $p = .89$. No correlation existed between management-by-exception (active) and employee engagement. Figure 11 shows the relationship between the employee engagement scores and the management-by-exception (active) scores. The figure gives little evidence of a correlation between the two variables.

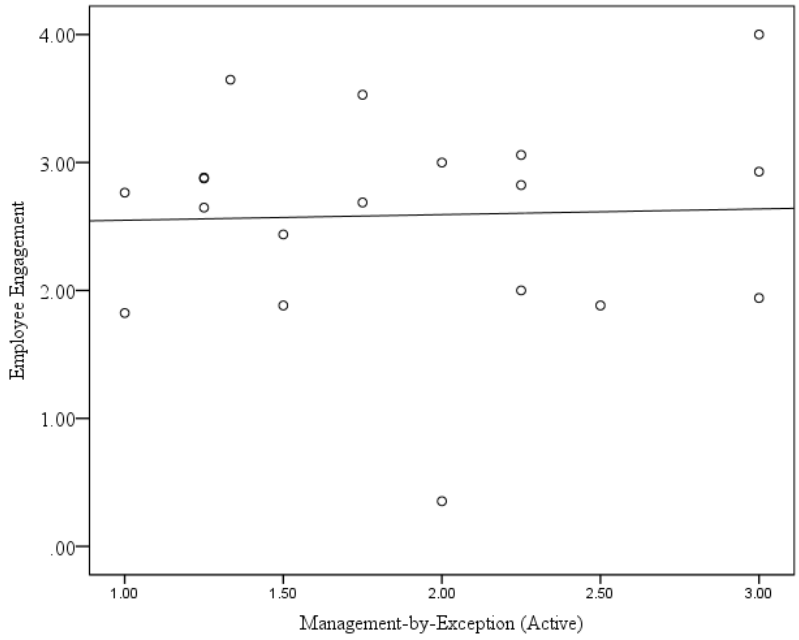

Figure 11. Scatter plot comparing Employee Engagement scores and Management-by-Exception (Active) scores

The findings revealed a statistically significant, strong negative correlation between the employee engagement scores and the management-by-exception (passive) scores, $r(19) = -.81$; $p < .001$. A high level of management-by-exception (passive) behavior resulted in a lower level of employee engagement. Figure 12 shows the relationship between the employee engagement

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scores and the management-by-exception (passive) scores. The figure gives strong evidence of a negative correlation between the two variables.

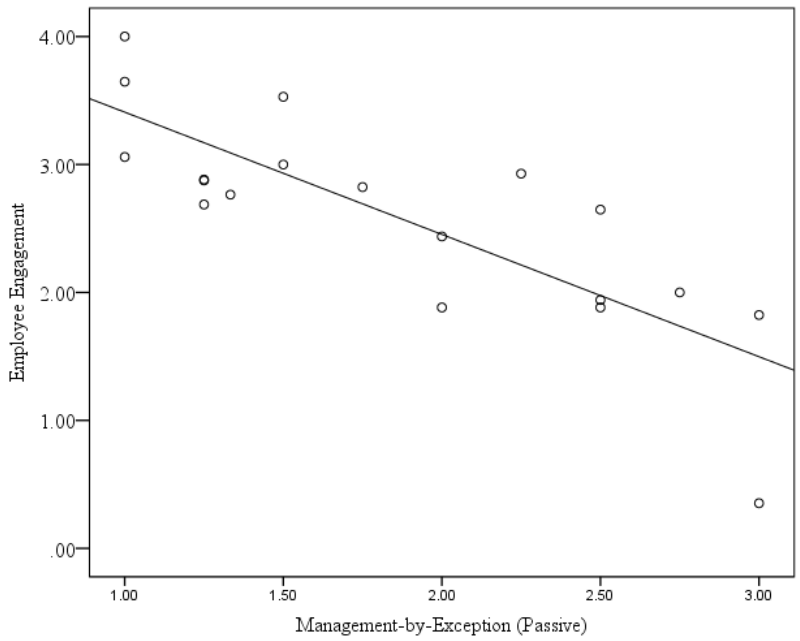

Figure 12. Scatter plot comparing Employee Engagement scores and Management-by-Exception (Passive) scores

Analysis revealed a statistically significant, strong positive correlation between the employee engagement scores and the contingent reward scores, $r(19) = .87$; $p < .001$. A high level of contingent reward behavior resulted in a higher level of employee engagement. Figure 13 shows the relationship between the employee engagement scores and the contingent reward scores. The figure gives strong evidence of a positive correlation between the two variables.

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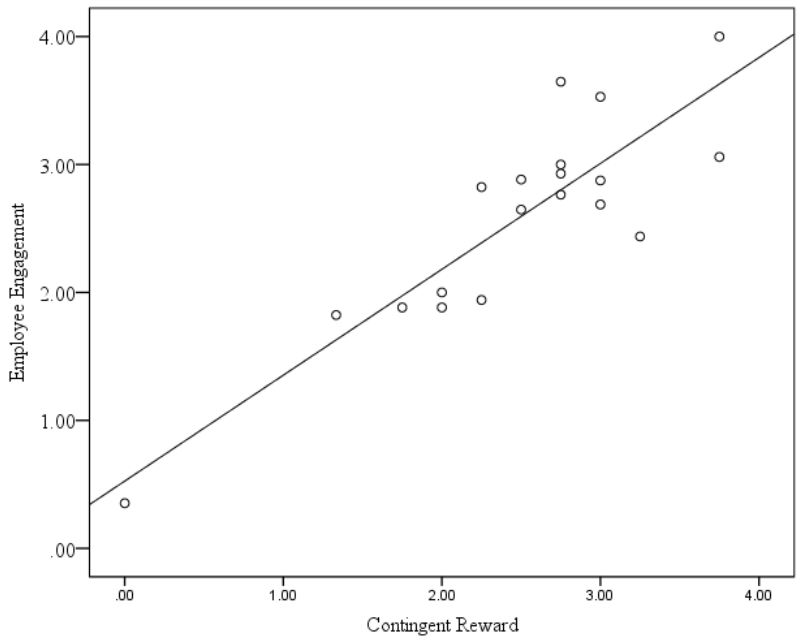

Figure 13. Scatter plot comparing Employee Engagement scores and Contingent Reward scores

Private Sector Findings

The findings revealed no statistically significant correlation between the employee engagement scores and the management-by-exception (active) scores, $r(18) = -.11$; $p = .67$. No correlation exists between management-by-exception (active) and employee engagement. Figure 14 shows the relationship between the employee engagement scores and the management-by-exception (active) scores. The figure gives little evidence of a correlation between the two variables.

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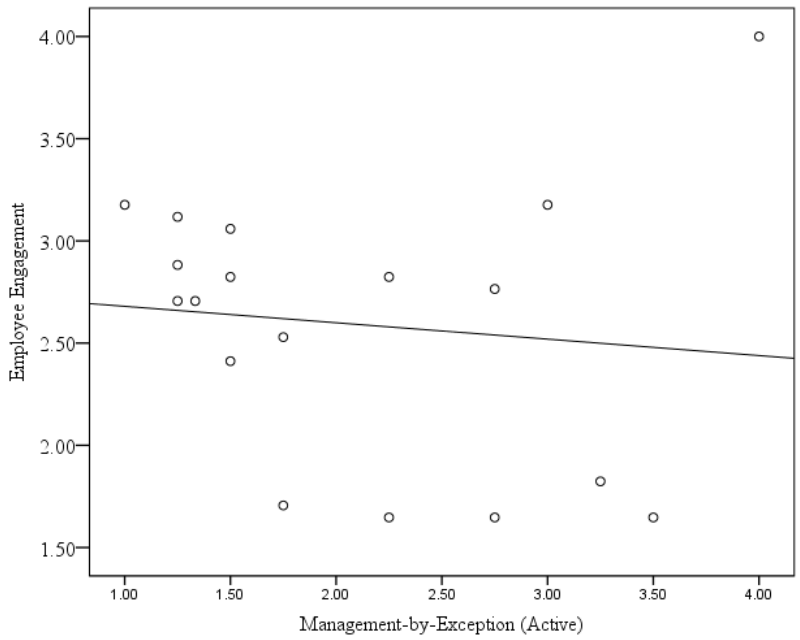

Figure 14. Scatter plot comparing Employee Engagement scores and Management-by-Exception (Active) scores

Analysis revealed a statistically significant, strong negative correlation between the employee engagement scores and the management-by-exception (passive) scores, $r(18) = -.58$; $p = .011$. A high level of management-by-exception (passive) behavior resulted in a lower level of employee engagement. Figure 15 shows the relationship between the employee engagement scores and the management-by-exception (passive) scores. The figure gives strong evidence of a negative correlation between the two variables.

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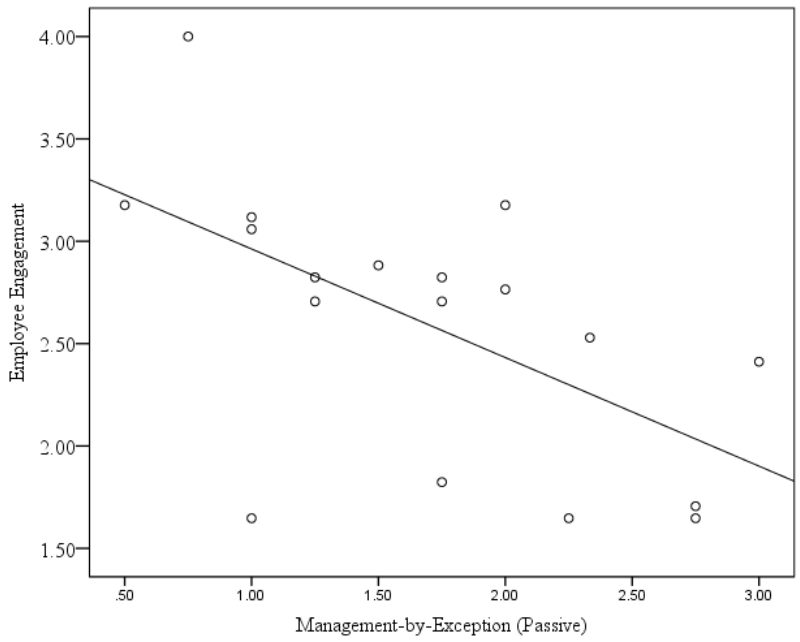

Figure 15. Scatter plot comparing Employee Engagement scores and Management-by-Exception (Passive) scores

The findings revealed a statistically significant, strong positive correlation between the employee engagement scores and the contingent reward scores, $r(18) = .81$; $p < .001$. A high level of contingent reward behavior resulted in a higher level of employee engagement. Figure 16 shows the relationship between the employee engagement scores and the contingent reward scores. The figure gives strong evidence of a positive correlation between the two variables.

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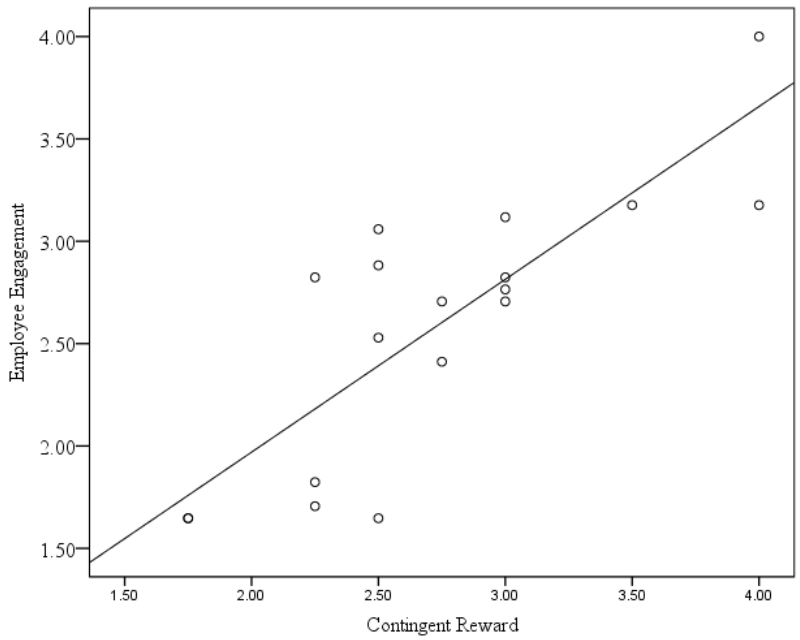

Figure 16. Scatter plot comparing Employee Engagement scores and Contingent Reward scores

Research Question 3

What is the relationship between workers' perceptions of laissez-faire leadership style and the conditions that foster employee engagement? The null hypotheses (H3.10 and H3.20) were no relationship between laissez-faire leadership style and employee engagement in the public sector and private sector. The alternate hypotheses (H3.1a and H3.2a) were a relationship between laissez-faire leadership and employee engagement in the public sector and private sector. The Pearson's product moment correlation analysis showed the strength of the linear association between leadership style scores and employee engagement scores. The analysis employed a two-tailed test using the $\alpha = .05$ significance level.

Public Sector Findings

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The findings revealed a statistically significant, strong negative correlation between the employee engagement scores and the laissez-faire scores, $r(19) = -.61$; $p = .005$. A high level of laissez-faire leadership behavior resulted in a lower level of employee engagement. Figure 17 shows the relationship between the employee engagement scores and the laissez-faire scores. The figure gives strong evidence of a negative correlation between the two variables.

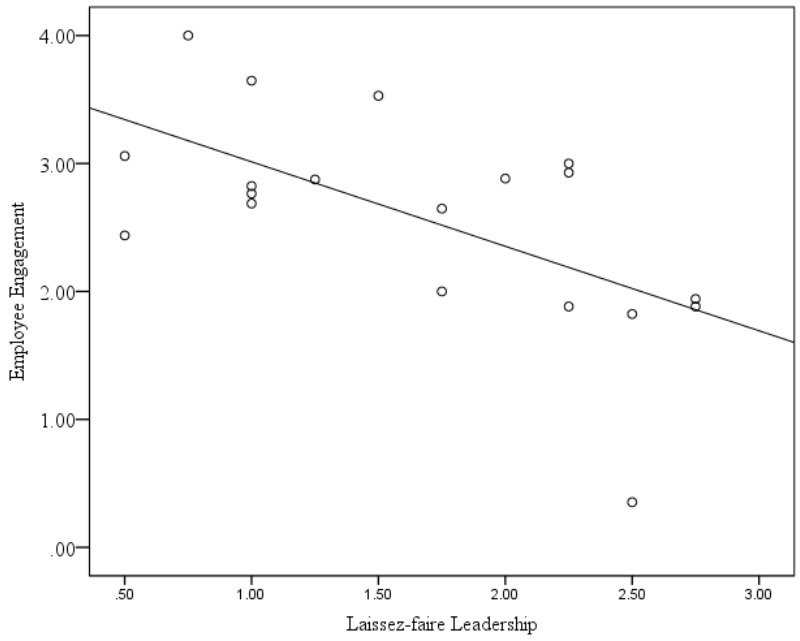

Figure 17. Scatter plot comparing Employee Engagement scores and Laissez-Faire scores

Private Sector Findings

The findings revealed a statistically significant, strong negative correlation between the employee engagement scores and the laissez-faire scores, $r(18) = -.53$; $p = .023$. A high level of laissez-faire leadership behavior resulted in a lower level of employee engagement. Figure 18 shows the relationship between the employee engagement scores and the laissez-faire scores. The figure gives strong evidence of a negative correlation between the two variables.

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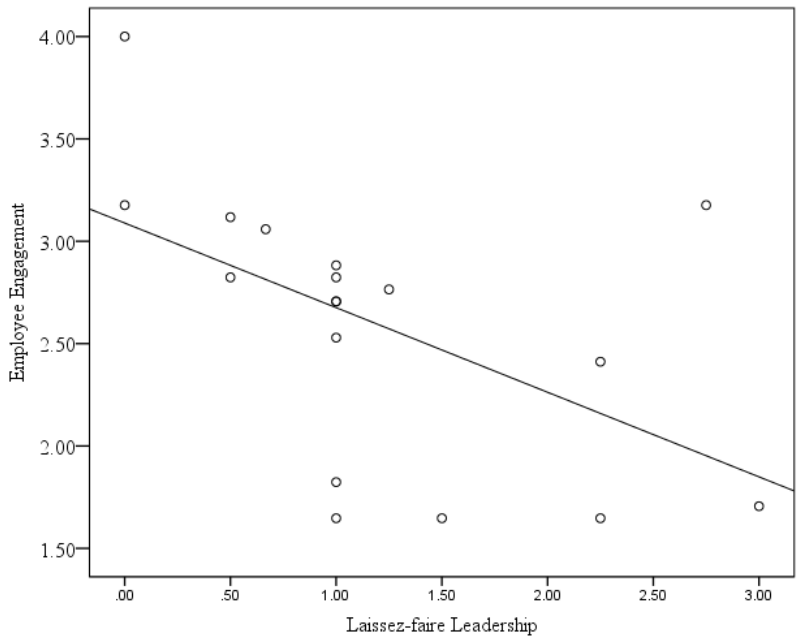

Figure 18. Scatter plot comparing Employee Engagement scores and Laissez-Faire scores

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Summary and Conclusion

Chapter 4 included the descriptive statistics of the study population and the independent and dependent variables. Thirty-seven respondents completed the survey. Respondents included public and private sector employees from different industries and organizations in the Washington, DC Metropolitan Division area. Industries included aerospace and defense, information technology services, government, financial services, health care, hospitality, and education. The MLQ-Form 5X Short for Raters included 45 core statements for measuring leadership styles. The E3® Employee Engagement Survey included 17 core statements for measuring the level of employee engagement. Respondents also completed demographic questions that included sector, work location, years in position, gender, age, and education.

Employees in the public and private sectors who perceived their supervisors or managers as transformational leaders, tended to have higher levels of employee engagement. In contrast, public and private sector employees who perceived their supervisors or managers as laissez-faire, tended to have lower levels of employee engagement. Employees who perceive their supervisors or managers as transactional leaders, tended to have higher levels of employee engagement when leaders acknowledged employees.

Chapter 5 includes a discussion on the research findings and interpretations. The chapter also includes implications, recommendations, and limitations about the study. Chapter 5 concludes with suggestions for future research.

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Chapter 5: Conclusions and Recommendations

Employee engagement is a major challenge for organizational leaders (Pritchard, 2008). Leaders want to understand why employees demonstrate various engagement levels (Corace, 2007). The general problem for leaders is determining the conditions in which some employees are fully engaged while others are disengaged (Wildermuth & Pauken, 2008a). Differences in engagement also occur between public sector workers and private sector workers (Pritchard, 2008). For public sector leaders, the specific problem is public sector employees trail behind private sector employees in employee engagement (Pritchard, 2008). The study used the perceptions of public and private sector employees in the Washington, DC Metropolitan Division area concerning leadership styles and employee engagement. Studying effective leadership and its effect on employee engagement in various business settings could provide new insight into leader and follower relationships.

Findings and Interpretations

The hypotheses addressed whether relationships exist between leadership styles and employee engagement among public and private sector employees. The study revealed several findings regarding the relationships between public and private sector leaders and followers. The study also revealed findings regarding similarities and differences between public and private sector employees.

Research Question 1 and Transformational Hypotheses

What is the relationship between workers' perceptions of transformational leadership style and the conditions that foster employee engagement? The findings revealed similar views between public and private sector workers when comparing the perception of the relationship between transformational leadership and employee engagement. Employees in the Washington,

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DC Metropolitan Division area perceived transformational behavior essential in creating a constructive environment for employees to engage. Engagement levels increased as transformational behaviors of leaders increased. The results indicated leaders with an effective behavior can build a positive influence and build a positive relationship with employees. The findings supported the theoretical framework of transformational leadership indicating leaders stimulate employees (Bass 1990b). The findings also supported the theoretical framework of employee engagement indicating managers are catalysts between employees and the organization (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999).

Public sector employees indicated the idealized influence (attribute), idealized influence (behavior), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration characteristics under the transformational leadership style positively correlated with employee engagement. The inspirational motivation characteristic had the highest score for the public sector. A possible explanation for the high score could be public sector employees perceive engagement as a personal obligation driven by leadership involvement. The findings support research indicating the inspirational motivation characteristic of leaders encourages ownership (Pounder, 2008). The individualized consideration had the lowest score, although positively correlated to employee engagement. A possible explanation could be behaviors, such as mentoring and coaching are not widely implemented in the public sector. The findings support research indicating public sector leaders exhibit change-oriented behaviors, which includes searching for new initiatives to improve the organization (Andersen, 2010; Hooijberg & Choi, 2001). The null hypothesis that predicted no relationship between transformational leadership styles and employee engagement among public sector employees was rejected.

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Private sector employees also indicated the characteristics under the transformational leadership style positively associated with employee engagement. The idealized influence (behavior) characteristic had the highest score for the private sector. The inspirational motivation characteristic had the lowest score, although positively associated to employee engagement. A possible explanation for the low score could be private industry leaders focus on the productivity of employees to satisfy stakeholders for the success of the organization. The findings support research indicating private sector leaders exhibit relationship-oriented behaviors (Andersen, 2010). The results indicated employees understand the connection between performance and organizational outcomes. The null hypothesis that predicted no relationship between transformational leadership styles and employee engagement among private sector employees was rejected.

Research Question 2 and Transactional Hypotheses

What is the relationship between workers' perceptions of transactional leadership style and the conditions that foster employee engagement? The findings revealed similar views between public and private sector workers when comparing transactional leadership and employee engagement. The contingent reward behavior under transactional leadership had a higher score for public and private sector employees than scores for behaviors under transformational leadership. Bennett (2009) noted similar results indicating a connection between contingent reward behaviors and transformational leaders. Employees in the Washington, DC Metropolitan Division area perceived transactional behavior essential in fostering engagement if leaders provide feedback or incentives for performed tasks. Engagement levels increased when feedback from leaders increased. Public and private sector employees indicated no association between the management by exception (active) characteristic and

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employee engagement. The employee engagement levels remained the same for employees. Management by exception (passive) characteristic had a negative impact on engagement. The findings confirmed the research in the study of transactional leadership indicating effective leaders reward employees for performed tasks (Bass, 1990b). The findings also confirmed the theoretical framework of employee engagement indicating effective leaders create an atmosphere of recognition (Wellins et al., 2005).

The findings from public sector employees revealed mixed results for transactional leaders. The results indicated the management by exception (active) characteristics is ineffective in promoting employee engagement. Management by exception (passive) had a negative effect on fostering engagement in the workplace. Employees, who perceived their supervisors or managers had high levels of management-by-exception (passive) leadership style, tended to indicate lower levels of employee engagement. The findings revealed contingent reward had a positive correlation with employee engagement. Public sector employees perceived contingent reward characteristics are essential in fostering engagement in the workplace. Employees, who perceived their supervisors or managers had high levels of contingent reward leadership style, tended to indicate higher levels of employee engagement. A possible explanation could be employees still expect recognition for completing tasks, such as on-the-spot awards, certifications of appreciation, or time-off. The findings supported research indicating employees want to feel valued in the organization (Kahn, 1990). The null hypothesis that predicted no relationship between transactional leadership styles and employee engagement among public sector employees was rejected.

The findings from the private sector employees also revealed similar results for transactional leaders. The findings indicated no correlation between employee engagement and

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the management-by-exception (active) characteristic among employees in the private sector. Supervisors or managers, who displayed the management-by-exception (passive) characteristic, tended to influence a lower level of employee engagement. Private sector employees, who perceived their supervisors or managers had high levels of contingent reward behavior, tended to indicate higher levels of employee engagement. The engagement levels increased with the structured management style of transactional behavior when leaders showed appreciation for employees. A possible explanation could be employees expect monetary and non-monetary recognition for completing tasks. The findings supported research indicating employees want to know they contributed to the organizational success (Seijts & Crim, 2006). The null hypothesis that predicted no relationship between transactional leadership styles and employee engagement among private sector employees was rejected.

Research Question 3 and Laissez-Faire Hypotheses

What is the relationship between workers' perceptions of laissez-faire leadership style and the conditions that foster employee engagement? The findings revealed similar views between public and private sector workers when comparing the perception of the relationship between laissez-faire leadership and employee engagement. Washington, DC Metropolitan Division area employees perceived laissez-faire leadership as an identifiable barrier for employee engagement. The passive behavior characteristics decreased employee engagement levels. Leaders unwilling to take responsibility or make concrete commitments on decisions can lead to unknown expectation from employees. The findings supported the research in the indicating leadership behaviors impacts employees (Lewin & Lippitt, 1938). The findings also confirmed research indicting employees need emotional and physical resources in the work environment (Shuck & Wollard, 2008).

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For public sector employees, the results revealed a negative correlation between laissez-faire leadership and employee engagement. High levels of laissez-faire behavior resulted in lower levels of employee engagement. A possible explanation could be leaders who are unavailable or unwilling to take responsibility for actions; leads to limited decision-making authority for employees. Employees look to supervisors and managers for guidance and will disengage if guidance is not available. The findings supported the research indicating the laissez-faire leadership is counterproductive in the workplace (Skogstad, et. al, 2007). The null hypothesis that predicted no relationship between laissez-faire leadership styles and employee engagement among public sector employees was rejected.

The results from private sector employees also revealed a negative correlation between laissez-faire leadership and employee engagement. The outcome could be the result of the type of connection that exists between leaders and employees in the private sector. Leaders who exhibit the characteristics associated with laissez-faire behavior hinder employees' motivation to engage in the workplace. The findings supported the research indicating the laissez-faire leadership is ineffective in the workplace (Robbins & Judge, 2007). The null hypothesis that predicted no relationship between laissez-faire leadership styles and employee engagement among private sector employees was rejected.

Leadership and Employee Engagement

Results from public and private sector workers confirmed the behaviors of leadership influence engagement in the workplace. Workers in the Washington, DC Metropolitan Division area perceived transformational leadership important in fostering employee engagement. Employees who reported to transformational leaders were more engaged than employees who reported to passive leaders. Laissez-faire leadership behavior was perceived as ineffective for

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increasing employee. Transactional leaders who can incorporate reward and recognition can increase the engagement level of employees. The findings are consistent with early research indicating the behaviors of the immediate supervisor or manager impact on engagement (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999). Few studies focused on the impact of leadership behaviors on employee engagement among the various industries and between sectors in the Washington, DC Metropolitan Division area. This research provided knowledge into the outcomes of particular behaviors of leaders and the impact on employees' motivation to engage.

The finding revealed no differences in employee engagement levels between the sectors in the Washington, DC Metropolitan Division area. The leadership behaviors essential for increasing engagement were the same for public and private sector employees. Public sector leaders along with their counterparts in the private sector, who use transformational leadership styles, promote engagement in the workplace. When leaders from both sectors display passive behaviors, employees disengage. Kular, et al., (2008) noted little information exists on the types of factors important in engagement and their effect on the different roles, jobs, groups, and organizations. Few studies have focused on the engagement levels among the various industries and across sectors in the Washington, DC Metropolitan Division area. This research adds to the growing body of research regarding employee engagement in the public and private sectors.

Public and Private Sectors Leadership

The results revealed no differences in the preference for leadership style between public and private sector employees in the Washington, DC Metropolitan Division area. Transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles yielded similar outcomes concerning employee engagement across the sectors. In the day-to-day interactions between leaders and employees, the transformational style of leaders has a positive and strong impact on

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employee engagement in the public and private sectors. Wellins & Concelman (2008) noted the leadership quality influences employee engagement. Hooijberg and Choi (2001) noted minimal research exists that examines differences in leadership behavior and effectiveness within the sectors. Few studies focused leadership styles among the various industries and between sectors in the Washington, DC Metropolitan Division area. This research adds to the growing body of knowledge that confirms similarities in leadership styles between public and private sector leaders. The research results provided knowledge to help start or increase collaboration among leaders within the industries or between the sectors in discussing effective leadership styles and engaging employees.

Implications

The results of the study indicate transformational leadership is effective in increasing employee engagement in the both the public and private sectors. However, in the public sector, the individualized consideration characteristic had the lowest score. The results implied leaders should encourage employees to take an active role in career development by defining and developing job objectives. In the private sector, the inspirational motivation characteristic had the lowest score. The results also implied leaders should encourage employees to take an active role in personal growth and development. Leaders should also take an active role to ensure employees have the necessary skills, connections, and insight to move to the next level. Employees should feel their work is changing the world (Shuck & Wollard, 2008).

The results of the study implied in both sectors, transactional leadership had mixed results in influencing employee engagement. Management by exception (active) had no impact on engagement and management by exception (passive) had negative impact on engagement. Employees noted a positive impact on employee engagement for contingent reward. The

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implication for leaders who continue to use management by exception characteristics could affect employees taking an active role including knowledge sharing, knowledge transfer, and collaboration. Public and private sector leaders should balance the controlled management style with a partnership management style. Leaders and employees work towards the same organizational goals.

The results of the study implied laissez-faire leadership as a barrier for employee engagement in both sectors. The implication for leaders who continue to use the ineffective behaviors is disengagement in the workforce. Employees will become a distraction to the workgroup and the organization. Leaders from both sectors should continue to recognize and develop behavior conducive to a productive work environment. Fisk (2008) noted leaders should share their passion, motivation, and energy in the workplace.

Recommendations for Leaders

Leaders are responsible for removing barriers, which includes a self-assessment of their influence in the work unit. Fisk (2008) noted leaders must know how to work with employees. A recommendation for leaders is to review the effectiveness of individuals in management and supervisory positions. Identifying areas in the workplace that can increase employee engagement levels would allow organizational leaders to invest in programs and initiatives that help sustain engagement. Such an investment could be a change in management to find the best fit for each department. The investment could also be a bottom-up communication approach by increasing opportunities for employees to share ideas. Employees' input could change the negative environment from passive leaders to a positive environment, which could include promoting a self-managed or virtual team.

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Effective leaders look for relationships within and beyond the organization (McCallum & O'Connell, 2009). Respondents from the survey included employees from the public and private sectors who provided perceptions of leaders. Both sectors had similar views for leadership behaviors. Another recommendation for leaders is to implement a leadership exchange program between different organizations and industries. Leaders with opportunities to manage outside the perspective of their organization or industry could highlight the importance of transferrable leadership skills.

Recommendations for Future Research

A limitation of the research was the small sample size. Further research should duplicate the study with a larger sample from employees in the Washington, DC Metropolitan Division area. The results of the study involved the perception of public and private sector employees from the Washington, DC Metropolitan Division area. Future research could include determining whether perceptions of leadership styles and employee engagement differ among employees in other major cities in the United States.

The results of the study addressed transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles. Future research could include determining other leadership behaviors that can promote or hinder employee engagement in different sectors. The inspirational motivation characteristic had the highest score and the individualized consideration characteristic had the lowest score in the public sector. The idealized influence (behavior) characteristic had the highest score and the inspirational motivation characteristic had the lowest score for private sector employees. Future research should include determining the cause and effect for the differences in scores for the leadership styles.

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The study involved a quantitative research method. Future research should include qualitative research methods for analysis. The qualitative method may prove useful in explaining the findings associated with the relations between leadership style and employee engagement. An exploratory approach may yield different results. A qualitative method could also provide an opportunity to develop new leadership and engagement tools.

Limitations

The research study had several limitations. The first limitation was the small sample size of 37. Communications from potential participants indicated a change in job status, family emergencies, and computer security settings contributed to the small sample size. Because of the low response rate, respondents were selected from personal networks. Participants represented the aerospace and defense, information technology services, government, financial services, health care, hospitality, and education industries within the Washington, DC Metropolitan Division area.

The second limitation was the reporting format. The self-reporting closed format did not allow respondents to choose more than one answer to describe a leadership behavior or engagement characteristics. The third limitation was the location of employees. The sample was specific to the Washington, DC Metropolitan Division area and industries specific to the region. The findings may not be generalized to employees or industries outside the area.

Summary and Conclusion

The research study adds to the body of knowledge about the relationship between leadership styles and employee engagement as perceived by public and private sector employees. The research study also provided an opportunity to add to the body of knowledge concerning the similarities of public and private sector leaders. Employees in the Washington, DC Metropolitan

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Division area had similar views concerning the relationship of leadership styles and employee engagement. The data indicated employee engagement for public and private sector employees increased as supervisors and managers displayed transformational leadership behaviors. In contrast, employee engagement decreased with the passive laissez-faire leadership behaviors. Public and private sector employees perceived transactional leadership beneficial in increasing engagement when leaders acknowledge employees.

Chapter 5 concludes this research study. The chapter included the purpose of the study, limitations, findings and interpretations, implications, and recommendations. Recommendations for leaders include reviewing the effectiveness of individuals in management and supervisory positions and implementing a leadership exchange program between different organizations and industries.

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APPENDIX A: INFORMED CONSENT

UNIVERSITY OF PHOENIX

Informed Consent: Participants 18 years of age and older

Dear Participants,

My name is Vernice Moody and I am a student at the University of Phoenix working on a doctorate degree. I am conducting a research study entitled Examining Leadership Styles and Employee Engagement in the Private and Public Sectors. The purpose of this research is to determine if a relationship exists before leadership styles and employee engagement. The intent of the study is to determine if a leader's style fosters an environment in which employees can engage in the workforce. Additionally, is there a difference in leadership styles within the public and private sectors that fosters this engagement?

Participants from the Washington, DC Metropolitan Division area, which includes Virginia, Maryland, and the District of Columbia, also include fulltime employees with one or more years in their current position. Participants are also nonmanagers within his or her respective organization. For the purpose of this study, nonmanagers include employees who do not write, rate, review, or evaluate other employees' performance appraisal. Your participation will involve answering demographic, leadership styles, and employee engagement questions via an online survey. The demographic questions relate to sector, work location, position tenure, age, gender, and education level. The leadership styles questions are from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-5X Short form). The employee engagement questions are from the E3® Employee Engagement Survey. The survey should take 15 to 20 minutes to complete. Participants are expected to answer all the questions completely and truthfully.

Your participation in this study is voluntary. If you choose not to participate or to withdraw from the study at any time, you can do so without penalty or loss of benefit to yourself. The results of the research study may be published but your identity will remain confidential and your name will not be disclosed to any outside party. In this research, there are no consequences or foreseeable risks to you.

Although there may be no direct benefit to you, a possible benefit of your participation is the results could help provide a better understanding the types of leadership styles in the organization and a better understanding of how employees engage in the workforce according to these styles. The results could also help leaders from the public and private sector in developing the type of leadership style that fosters employee engagement in the workforce.
If you have any questions concerning the research study, please call me at

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As a participant in this study, you should understand the following:

1. You may decline to participate or withdraw from participation at any time without consequences.
2. Your identity will be kept confidential.
3. Vernice Moody, the researcher, has thoroughly explained the parameters of the research study and all of your questions and concerns have been addressed.
4. If the interviews are recorded, you must grant permission for the researcher, Vernice Moody, to digitally record the interview. You understand that the information from the recorded interviews may be transcribed. The researcher will structure a coding process to assure that anonymity of your name is protected.
5. Data will be stored in a secure and locked area. The data will be held for a period of three years, and then destroyed.
6. The research results will be used for publication.

"By signing this form you acknowledge that you understand the nature of the study, the potential risks to you as a participant, and the means by which your identity will be kept confidential. Your signature on this form also indicates that you are 18 years old or older and that you give your permission to voluntarily serve as a participant in the study described."

Signature of the interviewee _____ Date _____

Signature of the researcher _____ Date _____

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APPENDIX B: PERMISSION TO USE MLQ-FORM 5X SHORT FOR RATERS

For use by Vernice Moody only. Received from Mind Garden, Inc. on November 6, 2010

mind garden

www.mindgarden.com

To whom it may concern,

This letter is to grant permission for the above named person to use the following copyright material;

Instrument: ***Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire***

Authors: ***Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass***

Copyright: ***1995 by Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass***

for his/her thesis research.

Five sample items from this instrument may be reproduced for inclusion in a proposal, thesis, or dissertation.

The entire instrument may not be included or reproduced at any time in any other published material.

Sincerely,

Robert Most
Mind Garden, Inc.
www.mindgarden.com

© 1995 Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass. All Rights Reserved.
Published by Mind Garden, Inc., www.mindgarden.com

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APPENDIX C: PERMISSION TO USE E3® EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT SURVEY

Jun. 21. 2010 8:08AM No. 0509 P. 2

UNIVERSITY OF PHOENIX
Permission to Use E3® employee engagement survey

Date: 06/14/2010

Ms Vernice J. Moody

Thank you for your request for permission to use the E3® Employee Engagement survey instrument in you research study. We are willing to allow you to reproduce the instrument as outlined in your [redacted]* at no charge with the following understanding:

- You will use this survey only for your research study and will not sell or use it with any compensated management/curriculum development activities.
- You will include the copyright statement on all copies of the instrument.
- You will send your research study and one copy of any publication (report or article) that makes use of survey data promptly to our attention.

If these are acceptable terms and conditions, please indicate so by signing one copy of this letter and returning it to us.

Best wishes with your study.

* exchange of emails with MARK PHELPS (see Attachment A)

Sincerely,

Pete Weaver

Signature

I understand these conditions and agree to abide by these terms and conditions.

Signed: Vernice J Moody Date: 6-21-2010

Expected date of completion:

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From: [redacted]
Sent: Wednesday, June 02, 2010 8:29 PM
To: Phelps, Mark; Meyers, Janice
Subject: Re: Interest in using the E3 in Research

Hello,

This is a follow-up. I am getting close to creating a survey tool for my research. I hope to start working on creating the Internet based survey [redacted]

Here are answers to your questions.

1. A summary as to how you plan to use the E3 survey items.

The two variables for my dissertation are leadership styles and employee engagement. For the employee engagement portion, I plan to use the questions from the E3 tool for participants to answer questions as it pertains to engagement involving: (a) assign effort with strategy, (b) empowerment, (c) teamwork and collaboration, (d) growth and development, and (e) support and recognition.[redacted]

2. Please include names of any organizations you wish to involve in your study.

DDI works with many global organizations. If you happen to choose to work with an organization that is a DDI client, that doesn't necessarily preclude us from giving our permission. Instead, we simply may need to check with our account manager for that organization to be sure there isn't a conflict.

[redacted]*The research is voluntary and anonymous. I will not have the participant choose his or her organization. I will have participants choose sector (private or public)* [redacted].

[redacted]

3. We do ask that you reference DDI in your study, as I'm sure you are planning to do (e.g., footnotes with DDI attribution and copyright notice).

Yes, I will reference. Example: E3© Employee Engagement Survey. If there is a specific copyright notice I should use, please let me know.

I will also need a signature approval to use the tool. I will fax a form once I receive your approval for a signature.

Thank you in advance for the use of the tool.

Vernice

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-----Original Message-----
From: Phelps, Mark[redacted]
To: [redacted]
Cc: Meyers, Janice [redacted]
Sent: Tue, Sep 29, 2009 7:37 am
Subject: Interest in using the E3 in Research

Hello Vernice,

Thank you for inquiring about using the E3 in your research. We normally do give permission for students to use the E3 in research studies, and yes, you can use it in a survey engine such as SurveyMonkey. A copy of the survey items and rating scale is attached. Prior to giving permission, we will need the following from you:

1. A summary as to how you plan to use the E3 survey items.

2. Please include names of any organizations you wish to involve in your study.

DDI works with many global organizations. If you happen to choose to work with an organization that is a DDI client, that doesn't necessarily preclude us from giving our permission. Instead, we simply may need to check with our account manager for that organization to be sure there isn't a conflict.

3. We do ask that you reference DDI in your study, as I'm sure you are planning to do (e.g., footnotes with DDI attribution and copyright notice).

It is not our intent to make it difficult for students to use the E3. We simply need to track who is using it, and how.

Best wishes,

Mark

Mark Phelps

Practice Leader & Manager, Employee Engagement

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APPENDIX D: DEMOGRAPHICS DATA

Which sector do you work?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Public Sector	19	51.4	51.4	51.4
Private Sector	18	48.6	48.6	100.0
Total	37	100.0	100.0	

What is your work location?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Washington, DC	9	24.3	24.3	24.3
Maryland	5	13.5	13.5	37.8
Virginia	23	62.2	62.2	100.0
Total	37	100.0	100.0	

Length of Time in Current Position?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1 to 5 years	22	59.5	59.5	59.5
6 to 10 years	8	21.6	21.6	81.1
11 to 15 years	4	10.8	10.8	91.9
21+ years	3	8.1	8.1	100.0
Total	37	100.0	100.0	

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Age

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
18 to 27	2	5.4	5.4	5.4
28 to 37	5	13.5	13.5	18.9
38 to 47	20	54.1	54.1	73.0
48 to 57	9	24.3	24.3	97.3
58+	1	2.7	2.7	100.0
Total	37	100.0	100.0	

Gender

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	15	40.5	40.5	40.5
Female	22	59.5	59.5	100.0
Total	37	100.0	100.0	

Highest Educational Level

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
High School Diploma/GED	9	24.3	24.3	24.3
Associate Degree	9	24.3	24.3	48.6
Bachelor Degree	12	32.4	32.4	81.1
Master Degree	6	16.2	16.2	97.3
Doctorate Degree	1	2.7	2.7	100.0
Total	37	100.0	100.0	

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