2014

Employee Locus of Control and Engagement in Nonprofit Organizations

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Abstract

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M.B.A., Kaplan University, Davenport, Iowa 2008

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Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Public Policy & Administration

Walden University

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Abstract

Transformational leadership and employee engagement have been studied in the private sector, yet research in the nonprofit sector is scarce. Addressing this gap is important to improve nonprofit practices, as nonprofit organizations contribute to a myriad of social issues critical to positive social change. Using Burns's theory of transformational leadership, which places emphasis on motivating and inspiring performance through a shared vision and mission, the purpose of this quantitative study was to analyze the effects of transformational leadership on employee engagement in nonprofit organizations. The study also assessed whether locus of control acted as a mediating variable on employee engagement. Locus of control may explain differences in the effect of transformational leadership on engagement in those with an internal locus of control (self-motivating-lesser effect) versus an external locus of control (motivated by external forces-greater effect). Data were obtained from emailed surveys of employees of 30 nonprofit organizations (N = 155). The surveys consisted of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale, and the Work Locus of Control Scale. Multiple logistic regression revealed a significant positive relationship between transformational leadership and employee engagement. No significant evidence was found to indicate that locus of control acted as a mediating variable with regard to engagement. Understanding the effect of transformational leadership on employee engagement may enable nonprofit organizations to improve their effectiveness in programs and services, thereby contributing to positive social change.

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Dedication

I would like to dedicate this dissertation to Dr. Jane Henderson, my unofficial mentor at Kaplan. She was my cheerleader, and she showed me what it truly meant to teach. When I became lost as a graduate student, she never let me second guess myself and was unfailingly optimistic and supportive. She is the reason I chose to pursue my Ph.D. so that I may help others in their pursuit of an education.

Acknowledgments

I will forever be indebted to my dissertation committee chairs, Dr. John Gilbert and Dr. Mark Gordon. Dr. Gilbert somehow always managed to talk me off the ledge and make me smile. For anyone writing a dissertation, humor and not taking yourself too seriously are your best friends. Thank you Dr. Gilbert for providing me with those. Thank you Dr. Gordon for taking over where Dr. Gilbert left off and for your inspirational words upon reading my dissertation as well as your encouragement and insightful questions that helped me through the abstract. Thank you Dr. Goldman for being there for me since the beginning. It was a pleasure meeting you at the residency. Thank you to Dr. Stallo for your patience during the abstract process. I would also like to thank my friends near and far for their quiet and unconditional support that my family found impossible to provide. Without them and their patience and understanding, this dissertation would not have been possible. Thank you to my friends Scott Dinsmoor, Michael Stone, Jane Henderson, Annissa Pellicano, Kat Taylor, and Anita White who somehow never doubted that I would accomplish this dream.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Organizations and researchers have long studied management and leadership theories in the hope of finding ways to increase employees' productivity and efficiency. These theories have evolved from the days of strict, autocratic control to more recent enlightened approaches. Among those theories of leadership is transformational leadership, an approach where leaders use motivation, support, and feedback to inspire employees to not only meet their goals but to reach beyond them. Transformational leadership has gathered a great deal of attention and research. The opposite of leadership is the concept of followership, which considers leadership from the perspective of the follower. Although followership theories are not as prevalent as leadership theories, they represent a respected area of research. One such theory is employee engagement, in which organizations empower and encourage employees as well as provide them with the tools and training they need in order to perform their duties, providing a motivational environment that allows them to take ownership in their roles, thus increasing efficiency (Schaufeli, & Salanova, 2007b). Additionally, the concept of locus of control states that individuals generally possess an external locus of control or internal locus of control. Individuals with an external locus of control consider others (supervisors, fate, the organization) to be in control. On the other hand, individuals with an internal locus of control view themselves and their own behavior and decisions as the controlling factors in their successes or failures (Tillman, Smith, & Tillman, 2010). Together, this study will investigate transformational leadership's effect on employee engagement in a nonprofit organization, taking locus of control into account as a mediating variable, which will fill

a gap that exists in the literature with regard to the study of leadership's effect on followership taking into account an employee's locus of control.

Introduction to the Problem

Nonprofit organizations are defined by the United States' Internal Revenue Code, Section 501(c)(3). The name is a bit of a misnomer, as nonprofit organizations may actually earn a profit. However, unlike for profit organizations, those profits are not distributed to owners or executives. Nonprofit organizations are exempt from federal taxes. According to the United States Internal Revenue Service, "[t]he exempt purposes set forth in section 501(c)(3) are charitable, religious, educational, scientific, literary, public safety testing, fostering national or international amateur sports competition, and preventing cruelty to children or animals" (Internal Revenue Service, 2012, para. 1). Nonprofit organizations exist for a wide variety of purposes and causes and are a necessary part of promoting positive social change through increasing awareness of issues and active development of programs and services designed to aid and support those issues. Indeed, nonprofit organizations are considered the heroes of society (Smith & Richmond, 2007). Considering the enormity of the social responsibility and reform that they assume, it is reasonable to state that without them society would be greatly diminished.

Many individuals believe that the mission and vision of a nonprofit organization as well as the passion behind the cause are motivation enough for employees within such an organization (Lanfranchi, Narcy, & Larguem, 2010; Yanay & Yanay, 2008). However, when the philanthropic goals and altruistic intentions collide with oppressive

and/or abusive leadership tactics, the passion and cause that attracted employees to the organization could erode, diminishing their drive to perform and excel (Yanay & Yanay, 2008). Indeed, employees who feel they have no control in their job duties often take control through counterproductive activities (Dalal, Lam, Weiss, Welch, & Hulin, 2009). These tactics include avoiding and even sabotaging work responsibilities and doing the absolute minimum amount of work required (Detert, Treviño, Burris, & Andiappan, 2007). Other counterproductive activities include producing work of poor quality, theft, and conflict with coworkers (Hayden & Madsen, 2008; Probst, Stewart, Gruys, & Tierney, 2007). Turnover is very costly for organizations in terms of recruiting and training, and inefficiency due to unmotivated and unhappy employees may result in less than adequate outcomes.

Thus, organizations are recognizing that leadership, beyond mere management, is a critical component of organizational success. Successful leadership in the current market requires building commitment and trust (Caldwell, Hayes, & Long, 2010). Leaders must develop organizational relationships that build trust and inspire ethical behavior in order to be effective (Caldwell et al., 2010). In order for this to happen, leadership involves facilitating organizational change (Cotae, 2010). In an ever changing marketplace, and in an uncertain economic climate, change has become the status quo. Many leadership theories may be found in the body of literature, and some research suggests no one style is appropriate in every situation (Ekaterini, 2010). Yet, those leaders who motivate and inspire will produce consistently improved productivity and efficiency from employees (Jam, Akhtar, Ul Haq, Ahmad-U-Rehman, & Hijazi, 2010).

As unions disappear, as corporate trust erodes in the face of scandals, and as job security ceases to exist, the need for leadership grows more insistent.

A key factor, and one often overlooked, is that of followership. All too often, leadership research focuses solely on the leader and ignores the effect of leadership on followers, except through observed outcomes (i.e., increased bottom line, customer satisfaction, and decreased turnover). The decisions made by employees in nonprofit organizations determine the public's perception of the organization and its ability to fulfill its goals (Smith, McTier, & Pope, 2009). As with leaders, no one definition of followers exists. One study suggested that four typical types of followers exist: (a) alienated, (b) exemplary, (c) passive, and (d) conformist (Mushonga & Torrance, 2008, p. 186). Alienated followers typically exhibit critical thinking yet remain passive and cynical (Mushonga & Torrance, 2008). Exemplary followers are also critical thinkers but are active and question authority without being rebellious or disruptive (Mushonga & Torrance, 2008). Passive followers are passive and require oversight and supervision and do not display qualities of critical thinking (Mushonga & Torrance, 2008). Finally, conformist followers are generally active but compliant without strong critical thinking skills and preference for the status quo (Mushonga & Torrance, 2008). Clearly, followers differ as leaders differ.

Moreover, nonprofit organizations are not immune from scandals and corruption. Cases include the United Way and the American Red Cross, although small nonprofit organizations may be more susceptible to the temptation to commit fraud or look the other way in the face of malfeasance through lack of governance (Dede, 2009). Due to

their tax-exempt status, cases of nonprofit fraud are especially egregious—so much so that the United States created the Panel on the Nonprofit Sector that provides oversight of nonprofit activities (Smith et al., 2009). At the same time, nonprofit organizations rely on volunteers to maximize their limited resources, to fulfill various organizational functions, and to further their missions (Orwig, 2011). To attract and retain quality employees and volunteers, nonprofit organizations must provide transparency and accountability, ensure compliance with laws, and practice ethical organizational activities (Geer, Maher, & Cole, 2008). Ethical nonprofit organizations are also more attractive to donors, creating greater opportunities for ethical nonprofits to secure funding (Lichtenstein, Drumwright, & Braig, 2004). With the charitable nature of nonprofit organizations, society has an expectation of ethics and ideals (Smith & Richmond, 2007).

Together, it means that there is a desperate need for ethical and conscientious leadership in nonprofit organizations. These organizations need leaders who will conduct operations ethically and with their employees, volunteers, donors, and recipients in mind and who will work ethically toward their missions and in compliance with all laws and regulations. Nonprofits need leaders who will act ethically, legally, and responsibly with regard to donations, grants, and other funding and who will guide them through change and turmoil in an ethical and unshakable manner. They must have leaders who will attract and motivate employees and volunteers to fulfill their missions and who will inspire individuals and corporations to donate. Nonprofit organizations also need leaders who will ensure transparency and accountability and who will do more than manage and lead

the organization towards administrative health and ethical stability to exemplify the solid pillars that society expects.

Nature of Problem

Nonprofit organizations require funding to provide a social service, as their income is typically derived from charitable donations, and every cent counts towards completion of the organizations' programs and objectives. Funding is no less important in the context of employees' salaries. Organizations in any sector seek to hire qualified employees who are efficient and effective for the quality of work as well as productivity. Nonprofit organizations are no different. In fact, employee efficiency may be more important in the philanthropic sector in order to make the most of scarce resources. Thus, any factors contributing to employee counter-productivity should be avoided and/or eliminated for the success of the organization.

Many leaders of nonprofit organizations may have little to no leadership training or education, believing only their passion for the cause is necessary for the success of the organization, yet it is certainly almost never the case (Hayden & Madsen, 2008). To ensure that an organization stands a fighting chance at success, leaders of nonprofit organizations must employ supportive, nurturing leadership styles to prevent counterproductive measures giving employees control and decision-making abilities whenever possible (Rowold & Rohmann, 2009). While both transformational leadership and employee engagement have been heavily studied in the private sector, research in the nonprofit sector appears less frequently. After a thorough review of the literature, the effect of transformational leadership on employment engagement in nonprofit

organizations using both the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire and the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale measurement tools appears in two studies related to the nonprofit sector. Yet they both incorporate other theories as well, and neither examines the phenomenon using a mediating variable of locus of control. Transformational leadership, with its nature of motivation, inspiration, and empowerment, has been shown to positively affect employees' engagement in nonprofit organizations, increasing efficiency and productivity and decreasing negative workplace behaviors and turnover rates (Mancheno-Smoak, Endres, Polak, & Athanasaw, 2009). Employees are engaged when they experience empowerment, job control, support, and improved efficiency. Additionally, locus of control may act as a mediating variable affecting the degree that employees experience employee engagement. How transformational leadership affects employee engagement with the mediating effect of locus of control in nonprofit organizations represents the gap in the literature. While research states that transformational leadership creates positive outcomes in nonprofit organizations, and employee engagement may increase productivity in nonprofit organizations, transformational leadership's effect on employee engagement in nonprofit organizations is wholly missing from the body of literature with regard to locus of control. Nonprofit organizations are critical to society and positive social change. They, therefore, deserve all of the tools available to ensure success.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative study is to focus on leadership within the context of 30 varied and diverse nonprofit organizations across the country with the goal of

improving leadership and increasing employee productivity. Increased productivity will ultimately lead to improved organizational success within the nonprofit sector. When individuals have a better understanding of leadership and communication skills, applying more appropriate leadership skills and tactics, they may improve organizational success (Schyns, Kiefer, Kerschreiter, & Tymon, 2011). In a social sense, improved leadership is very relevant and much needed in society, business, and politics to overcome challenges and reach understanding. In a very real sense, nonprofit organizations are the root of positive social change by creating awareness for causes and injustices and lobbying for reform. Rarely does one individual contribute to wide-scale, positive social change. Rather, it is the collective action of nonprofit organizations unified for the purpose of creating social change, promoting a cause, lobbying for support, and changing society for the better. Helping nonprofit organizations to better manage their operations and provide leadership for their success is an important step in creating social change. Nonprofit organizations in their role of fostering change, raising awareness of social causes, and driving public policy are instrumental for society.

This research is intended to measure how the impact of transformational leadership (dependent variable) affects employee engagement (independent variable) in nonprofit organizations. It also seeks to determine whether locus of control (control variable) acts as a mediating variable with regard to the degree an employee experiences engagement. Although this research focuses on 30 nonprofits, it may generate interest in further study within the private and public sectors. Leadership is ultimately a relationship between one (or more) person(s) with perceived power, control, authority, respect,

knowledge, or some other perceived superiority with another person(s) (Burns, 1978). Thus, the concept of leadership and its ramifications extend beyond organizations into the realm of psychology, sociology, politics, business, family, and almost every area of personal interaction.

Techniques such as transformational leadership and employee engagement may provide managers with tools to more successfully manage both operations (shared goal and mission) and personnel. Nonprofit organizations must rely on donations, to a large extent, for their funding and therefore must maximize those funds and minimize expenditures. Turnover is very costly for organizations, resulting in the need for recruiting and training, as well as the time away from other tasks to conduct those activities. Managers who practice transformational leadership may help to reduce turnover and increase efficiency (Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, & Bakker, 2002). Likewise, engaged employees are less likely to leave their jobs and are more efficient than nonengaged employees (de Lange, De Witte, & Notelaers, 2008; Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008; Kowske, Lundby, & Rasch, 2009; Richman, Civian, Shannon, Jeffrey Hill, & Brennan, 2008; Swaminathan & Rajasekaran, 2010; van Schalkwyk, du Toit, Bothma, & Rothmann, 2010). However, no matter how innovative and progressive a leadership concept may be, no one size fits all. Some employees may prefer more rules, structure, and supervision than others, appreciating knowing what they can and cannot do and removing all expectation of control. These individuals have external locus of control and believe that others are in control of their lives. Other employees may prefer autonomy, job control, and flexibility. These individuals have internal locus of control

and believe that their actions predict their consequences. Leaders must recognize the differences in employees and implement an individualized approach with followers to ensure that all employees, regardless of locus of control, respond in a way that will lead to increased productivity and performance and reduced turnover.

Research Questions

Research Question 1

RQ1: Are transformational leadership scores predictors of employee engagement in nonprofit organizations?

$H1_0$: Transformational leadership scores do not predict employee engagement in nonprofit organizations.

$H1_a$: Transformational leadership scores do predict employee engagement in nonprofit organizations.

Research Question 2

RQ2: Does locus of control mediate the relationship between transformational leadership scores and employee engagement in nonprofit organizations?

$H2_0$: Locus of control does not mediate the relationship between transformational leadership scores and employee engagement in nonprofit organizations.

$H2_a$: Locus of control does mediate the relationship between transformational leadership scores and employee engagement in nonprofit organizations.

In this study, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, locus of control, and gender represent the independent variables. The dependent variable is

employee engagement. This study will determine whether the dependent variable is affected by the independent variables through multiple regression.

Rationale and Significance of the Study

The body of literature on leadership is extensive. Yet gaps in the research exist concerning employee engagement in response to transformational leadership, and how it could decrease negative workplace behavior such as bullying and demeaning behavior, disrespect (Hauge, Skogstad, & Einarsen, 2007), and lack of lines of communication (Illies & Reiter-Palmon, 2008), among others, as a component of a nonprofit organization's ability to succeed. Additionally, no other study looks at locus of control as a mediating variable with regard to employee engagement. Leadership research generally focuses on the styles and theories, and more limited research exists on the subject of followership. This study seeks to establish a relationship between transformational leadership (leadership) and employee engagement (followership) in a nonprofit organization with a mediating variable of locus of control.

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire measures transformational leadership's four dimensions of idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized concern and is a well-researched and supported survey tool. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire consists of 45 questions, using a 5-point Likert scale from 0 (*not at all*) to 4 (*frequently if not always*), related to a leader as seen from the follower's perspective.

The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale measures employee engagement's three factors of vigor, dedication, and absorption with a 17-question survey using a 7-point

Likert scale from 0 (*never*) to 6 (*always/every day*). The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale is also a well-researched and supported survey tool in the research on engagement. Employees self-report their responses to questions regarding vigor, dedication, and absorption.

While not quite so heavily supported as the other two survey tools, Spector's (1988) Work Locus of Control Scale is a 16-question survey using a 6-point Likert scale from 1 (*disagree very much*) to 6 (*agree very much*), which measures an individual's locus of control from a unidimensional variable. Although critics (Oliver, Jose, & Brough, 2006) have suggested that a two or three factor theory may better define locus of control, no survey instrument has been introduced to definitively replace the Work Locus of Control Scale. It is a self-reported questionnaire.

Nature of the Study

Transformational leadership (independent variable) is a leadership theory firmly entrenched in the literature and has been studied and accepted for decades since Burns (1978) first discussed the visionary concept in his seminal work. Burns contrasted transformational leadership with transactional leadership, in which a leader motivated a follower through a transaction (typically work for pay) and suggested that transformational leadership goes beyond paying an employee to work and inspires employees through a shared vision and organizational goal to achieve more. Since Burns, Bass (1985) more fully developed the theory of transformational leadership, noting its ability to improve efficiency and performance in organizations. In order to measure transformational leadership, Bass developed the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire,

which measures leadership qualities from the perspective of the follower. Over the years, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire has been used in hundreds of studies and is now considered a leading theory on organizational leadership, innovation, and change. Given transformational leadership's compelling and energetic nature in motivating and inspiring employees to achieve more and increase efficiency through a shared vision, transformational leadership is a positive leadership style centering on support and communication.

Followership is another aspect of leadership and seeks to study the effects of leadership from the perspective of the follower. It is also a popular topic in the literature. Kahn (1990) first coined the term *engagement* (dependent vaiable) to refer to a state in which engaged employees experienced a sense of significance, security, and support. Schaufeli et al. (2002) further researched the theory of employee engagement and developed the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale to measure levels of engagement. The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale measures engagement variables of vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli et al., 2002b). Those employees with high levels of engagement generally enjoyed positive feelings such as contentment, pleasure, and energy, enjoyed improved health, crafted new job resources as well as personal resources, and had an engaging effect on those around them (Shimazu & Schaufeli, 2009). The concept of engagement appears throughout the literature on organizational leadership. Together, transformational leadership and employee engagement have the ability to create a dynamic and innovative nonprofit organizational work environment where employees are motivated and efficient.

Additionally, locus of control may act as a mediating variable for employee engagement. Locus of control was first introduced by Julian Rotter in 1954 (as cited in Tillman et al., 2010). Locus of control is a theory that states that individuals have either an internal locus of control or an external locus of control (Srivastava, 2009). An internal locus of control is the perception that the individual controls his/her own actions and consequences, while external locus of control is the perception that others (supervisors, managers, the organization, the universe) have control over the individual, and outcomes are dependent upon those with control (Tillman et al., 2010). Spector (1988) developed the Work Locus of Control Scale to measure an individual's control perspective. In this study, analysis was conducted to determine whether locus of control mediates the degree to which employees experience engagement. This study may provide an interesting area for future research on both transformational leadership and employee engagement.

Thirty nonprofit organizations' employees were surveyed using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale, and the Work Locus of Control Scale to measure the existence and degree of transformational leadership, employee engagement, and employees' locus of control. Employees were asked to respond to the questions from each of the survey tools in order to rate their leader. Responses were then entered into SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) Statistics Student Version 19.0 in order to perform multiple regression analysis to predict management's effectiveness in the nonprofit organization. This analysis is also useful in predicting employee behavior as well as detecting the employees who will respond more favorably to a transformational leader and act more efficiently.

Definition of Terms

Although the terms *leader* and *manager* are often used separately, for purposes of this study and transformational leadership, *leader* and *manager* will have the same meaning.

Transformational leadership is a theory in which leaders inspire others to accomplish more than is expected of them and unite them with shared values and an organizational mission in an ethical manner (Fu, Tsui, Liu, & Li, 2010; Ismail, Mohamad, Mohamed, Rafiuddin, & Zhen, 2010; Li, Chen, Ying, & Barnes, 2010). Transformational leadership is measured on a continuum between transactional leadership and transformational leadership

Employee engagement exists when employees exhibit high levels of vigor (energetic, hard-working, mentally alert, going the extra mile), dedication (eagerness, drive, passion, and satisfaction), and absorption (fully immersed in one's job duties) (Schaufeli et al., 2002b). Employee engagement is measured on a continuum between burnout and engagement.

Locus of control is a theory that states that individuals have either an internal locus of control or an external locus of control (Srivastava, 2009). An internal locus of control is the perception that the individual controls his/her own actions and consequences, while external locus of control is the perception that others (supervisors, managers, the organization, the universe) have control over the individual, and outcomes are dependent upon those with control (Tillman et al., 2010). Locus of control is measured as either external or internal locus of control.

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire is the survey instrument used to detect the existence of transformational leadership along a six factor leadership model between transformational leadership and transactional leadership (Avolio & Bass, 1999).

The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale is the survey instrument used to detect the existence of employee engagement measuring vigor, dedication, and absorption between burnout and engaged (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

The Work Locus of Control Scale is the survey instrument used to determine whether an employee has an internal or external locus of control (Spector, 1988).

Assumptions and Limitations of the Study

This study investigated the effects of transformational leadership on employee engagement in nonprofit organizations with locus of control acting as a mediating variable. This study assumed that employees accurately answered the survey questions. It also assumed that employees were able to accurately assess the leaders to whom the questions pertain in the context of the surveys. Finally, this study assumed that the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale, and the Work Locus of Control Scale are all valid and reliable survey instruments.

Limitations of this study include the applicability to other types of nonprofit organizations and across sectors. Likewise, this study did not examine other types of leadership and possible positive attributes and outcomes of them or causes of or obstacles to employee engagement, such as the passion or cause itself. Additionally, in surveying three types of nonprofit organization, this study was limited in its reliability with regard to other types of nonprofit organizations. This study used one sample from 30 nonprofit

organizations from three categories of broad services: 15 youth services organizations, 10 human service organizations, and five community services organizations from across the United States.

Moreover, this study used self-reported questionnaires, which may have limited validity. However, use of proven measurement tools helped to mitigate this limitation. Finally, other leadership styles in addition to transformational leadership may have contributed to employee engagement, and locus of control may not have proved to be a mediating variable with respect to transformational leadership and/or employee engagement.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this study assessed leadership in a nonprofit organization using transformational leadership theory (as measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire) to determine whether transformational leadership led to employee engagement (as measured by the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale) with a mediating variable of locus of control (as measured by the Work Locus of Control Scale). Leadership is a popular research topic in the literature, and transformational leadership is a well-documented theory. Transformational leadership is a dynamic leadership style wherein the leader motivates and inspires followers through coaching, mentoring, communication, feedback, and support uniting them with a shared vision and mission to improve efficiency and productivity (Bass, 1985). The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire measures a leader’s idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration using a 45-question

questionnaire. A sample of questions from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire may be found in Appendix A.

Followership is a relatively more recent addition to the literature. Yet it is a well-supported area of study. Employee engagement is a followership concept in which engaged employees demonstrate vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli et al., 2002b). Engaged employees are more likely to show improved efficiency and productivity and less likely to consider leaving their jobs (Schaufeli et al., 2002b). Improving efficiency in employees has long been a goal of organizations in their drive to succeed and streamline costs. The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale measures employee engagement using a 17-question questionnaire. The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale questionnaire may be found in Appendix B.

Locus of control means an individual's perception of control. This control may be internal or external (Spector, 1988). Individuals with an internal locus of control consider their actions and behaviors to be predictors of their failures or successes (Spector, 1988). Individuals with an external locus of control view others (supervisors, managers, the universe) as having control over their successes or failures (Spector, 1988). Internal locus of control is also linked to a decrease in turnover rates (Lewin & Sager, 2010; Ng & Butts, 2009; Tillman et al., 2010) and higher performance, because those with internal locus of control take responsibility for their own actions (McKnight & Wright, 2011; Paino, Ismail, & Smith, 2011). The Work Locus of Control Scale measures an individual's locus of control using a 16-question questionnaire. The Work Locus of Control Scale questionnaire may be found in Appendix C.

Leadership is “one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on Earth” (Burns, 1978, p. 19). Yet, transformational leadership provides a more specific definition and a means to measure its existence. It also presents styles that are clearly not transformational for clarification purposes (i.e., transactional leadership and laissez-faire leadership). As organizations seek to improve efficiency and performance, they should look to transformational leadership’s example as a guide in achieving those goals. Similarly, employee engagement improves efficiency and performance. Both concepts share similarities of empowerment, support, feedback, communication, and motivation as well as parallel outcomes of increased efficiency, productivity, and decreased turnover intention. Additionally, locus of control may act as a mediating variable with regard to the degree an employee experiences engagement.

Significance of the Study

The results from this study may provide nonprofit organizations with solutions to isolate efficient leadership tactics to improve employee behavior. This study may also help nonprofit organizations identify employees more likely to be engaged. Curbing employee burnout may allow nonprofits to enjoy increased efficiency and productivity, thus improving the likelihood of success and/or enable the nonprofit to better fulfill its programs and mission. Additionally, this study will aid in filling the literature gap on the effects of transformational leadership on employee engagement with locus of control acting as a mediating variable. The success of nonprofit organizations is critical to positive social change, especially on topics as crucial to survival and success as leadership and followership. Nonprofit organizations raise awareness in almost every

area of society, from disease prevention and cure, to children's issues, to animal rights, and to civil rights, just to name a few. Indeed, positive social change is dependent on nonprofit organizations. Their survival is too essential to neglect. Identifying and researching obstacles, challenges, and opportunities for organizational success such as leadership theories and followership models that help nonprofit organizations maximize their scarce resources should be a priority in the research arena.

Summary

This study examined whether transformational leadership affected employee engagement in 30 nonprofit organizations across the country, and, if so, how. Transformational leadership is a theory of leadership that utilizes communication, ethics, feedback, support, and coaching to motivate and inspire employees and unify them with a common vision and goal. Employee engagement is a theory that states that employees who enjoy job control are characterized as having vigor, dedication, and absorption leading to increased job satisfaction. Both theories are thought to increase organizational efficiency and productivity and to reduce turnover and negative workplace behavior. Additionally, locus of control is the theory that individuals perceive the world from either an internal or external locus of control. Those with an internal locus of control feel that they have the power to change their circumstances as a result of their own behavior. Those with an external locus of control feel powerless and assume that what happens to them is a result of the decisions others (i.e., supervisors) make.

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire was used to survey employees in a nonprofit organization to assess the existence of transformational leadership, the Utrecht

Work Engagement Scale was used to survey the same employees to assess the existence of employee engagement, and the Work Locus of Control Scale was used to survey the employees to determine if they have internal or external locus of control. The data from the surveys were then analyzed using descriptive statistics and inferential statistics (multiple regression) to determine whether a relationship between the two theories of transformational leadership and employee engagement existed and whether locus of control acted as a mediating variable of both. Ultimately, the results of this study are valuable from four perspectives. First, the study of followership in nonprofit organizations will contribute to the literature. Second, this study may provide an additional field of research for transformational leadership and employee engagement if its locus of control acts as a mediating variable. Third, nonprofit organizations are the very root of positive social change, raising awareness and lobbying for legal, social, and personal change in every arena of society. Fourth, no study exists that examines transformational leadership's effects on employee engagement in nonprofit organizations with the mediating variable of locus of control. Thus, this study may positively contribute to the body of literature.

The literature review follows this introduction section, in which the three concepts' (transformational leadership, employee engagement, and locus of control) original theorists' research and work is discussed. The current literature on the topics is then discussed. Chapter 3 introduces the research methodology and design, discussing the appropriateness of the population, variables, and tests used. Chapter 4 includes the analysis of the data from the three measurement tools to establish a relationship between

transformational leadership and employee engagement in nonprofit organizations. Chapter 5 then provides a conclusion of the research. Finally, references list the work on which this study is based.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This literature review was written based on research in the Business Source, Academic Source, and ABI/INFORM Global databases in the Walden University Library. Key words used for the literature review include *transformational leadership, employ* engag**, *work engagement*, and *locus of control*. For the original theories, the research was conducted as far back as was necessary to thoroughly describe and define the evolution and establishment of each theory. The current literature review was conducted on literature published within the previous 5 years.

Leadership

In approaching this topic, a thorough search of the literature revealed that no similar research project on the effects of transformational leadership on employee engagement with locus of control as a mediating variable in nonprofit organizations could be found. As nonprofit organizations are critical to effect positive social change through their ability to create awareness and unite individuals towards a common cause, as well as to conduct fundraising in order to carry out their mission and improve conditions, this research is appropriate and necessary.

Leadership, in general, is an appropriate topic for research. Many individuals do not understand leadership or how important and integral it really is. Likewise, they do not fully recognize what an effect leadership may have on organization and its followers. However, in the discussion and research of leadership, often the flip side of leadership—followership—is generally absent. The current study focuses on three organizational theories to determine whether a correlation exists between leadership styles and

employee (follower) behavior. The first theory is transformational leadership from Bass's (1985) perspective using his Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. The second theory is work engagement from Schaufeli et al.'s (2002) perspective of the theory using their Utrecht Work Engagement Scale. The third theory is locus of control from Spector's (1988) perspective of the theory using his Work Locus of Control Scale. The literature review below presents the history of the theory of transformational leadership, followed by a current literature review. Next, a history of the theory of employee engagement is discussed, followed by a review of the literature on the topic. Finally, a section on Locus of Control and a comparison of similar studies follow.

History of Transformational Leadership

Burns (1978) was the first to discuss the concept of transformational leadership. In his analysis of leadership, he noted that power is the basis for all leadership (Burns, 1978): "The two essentials of power are motive and resource. The two are interrelated. Lacking motive, resource diminishes; lacking resource, motive lies idle. Lacking either one, power collapses" (p. 12). Many times throughout history, those motives were not ethical or in line with what followers would choose (Burns, 1978). Power then, for Burns, was a relationship in which one person acquiesced control to another. Moreover, leadership is using this power for a defined purpose (Burns, 1978). Successful leaders use motivation and other inspirational tactics to create a sense of satisfaction with followers to induce them into complying with the leader (Burns, 1978). Transformational leadership is described as the use of power to achieve the goals of both the leader and the followers in a positive manner (Burns, 1978). Rather than focusing on the negative,

transformational leaders focus on positive means of improvement and motivation to transform the present situations and circumstances (Burns, 1978). Unlike bureaucracies, where formal authority in titles and positions marry institutionalized policies and procedures, transformational leaders support individuality, creativity, and open communication (Burns, 1978).

Although goals may differ from leader to follower and even from follower to follower, transformational leaders are known to discover a means of uniting everyone in a common goal for a higher purpose (Burns, 1978). In this sense, transformational leaders bring others together for a moral purpose (Burns, 1978). Transformational leadership is moral in the sense that it causes both leader and follower to act ethically and conduct themselves for a higher purpose (Burns, 1978). The moral quality of transformational leadership implies ethical and responsible leadership without corruption or greed and suggests trustworthiness.

Transactional leadership, on the other hand, is quite literally defined as a transaction between follower and leader, wherein the latter provides something of value to the former in exchange for his/her compliance (Burns, 1978). The objectives of the follower and leader did not necessarily need to correspond in order for the transaction to take place (Burns, 1978). Yet, both parties are able to realize their own goals: (a) the transactional leader met his/her established organizational goals (e.g., a project completed within the deadline), while (b) the follower achieved his/her personal goal (e.g., a desired salary or bonus; Burns, 1979). Individual goal achievement is in stark contrast from the common goals and vision of transformational leadership. Transactional leadership, unlike

transformational leadership, is based on end results rather than a moral purpose, and conformity rather than change (Burns, 1978). Transactional leadership rarely impacts transformational leadership (Burns, 1978). This seminal work set the stage for the further development of transformational leadership.

Transformational Leadership

Overview

In designing the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, Bass (1985) set forth the concepts of transformational leadership (a higher order leadership theory) and transactional leadership in which transactional leadership is defined as meeting defined expectations resulting in defined rewards. Transformational leadership, on the other hand, is a method of increasing employee ownership, commitment, loyalty, and performance in the organization (Bass, 1985). In assessing leadership styles, Bass, Avollo, and Goodheim (1987) acknowledged that the best method of analysis involves questioning followers about leaders' abilities. Conversely, organizations typically question leaders about followers' abilities never truly assessing the leadership of the individual or organization. While the basic tenets of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire and its underlying theories have evolved since 1985, a brief description of the concept is outlined below.

Transformational Leadership

As organizations in the 20th and 21st centuries moved from a model where employees diligently followed orders, and transactional leadership sufficed, to a model where employees demanded job control and input to feel satisfied, organizations

embraced transformational leadership (Bass, 1999). Happy and satisfied employees likely make better, more productive employees. While most leaders display a wide range of leadership traits including those characterized as both transformational and transactional (discussed more fully below), leaders exhibiting primarily transformational leadership attributes are considered transformational leaders (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). Likewise, those leaders who exhibit primarily transactional leadership attributes are considered transactional leaders (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). Most individuals fail to fall squarely into either category completely. Although transformational leadership is often considered a more positive leadership style, the best leaders may be those who practice both transformational and transactional leadership rather than merely substituting transformational techniques in place of transactional techniques (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). Different organizational circumstances call for different leadership styles. The theory of transformational leadership is set out to describe a set of leadership attributes and behaviors in which leaders are adaptive and positively lead employees through times of organizational change (Bass, Jung, Avolio, & Berson, 2003). Employees often view change with distrust and fear. By aligning employees with organizational goals and values, transformational leaders create employee loyalty, trust, commitment, and confidence, increasing productivity and performance (Bass et al., 2003). Studies show that the elevated employee confidence acquired through transformational leadership contributes to organizational success (Bass et al., 2003). This observation is a significant finding because organizations typically fail to see their success measured through their employees' satisfaction. Overall, transformational leadership is credited with improved

organizational performance, higher standards, and an increased acceptance of work-related challenges (Bass et al., 2003; Hater & Bass, 1988) as well as capitalization of opportunities and innovation (Bass, 1985). Transformational leadership qualities add to the success derived by transactional leadership qualities, yet the reverse does not hold true (Seltzer & Bass, 1990). In other words, transactional leadership traits do not increase a transformational leader's success.

All organizations experience change as part of their strategic advantage and as a means of competition. At the highest organizational levels, transformational leaders affect change by creating a new vision through communication and understanding and then aligning the organization and its culture around its amended mission and goals (Bass & Avolio, 1993). They do not just announce change. In fact, transformational leaders rally employees around the organization's vision to strengthen the organizational culture and foster growth within it (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Focus on the shared vision is in contrast to transactional leaders who focus on the status quo and business as usual (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Clearly, transactional leaders expect that employees act as they are instructed because they are paid to do so, not because they are inspired to achieve more.

Transformational leaders follow verbal motivation with actions (Bass, 1990). In other words, they talk the talk and walk the walk, proving to employees that the leaders and the organization are committed to the vision and goals and showing consistency between words and actions (1990). Thus, transformational leaders are able to inspire employees to reach greater heights and to focus their attention on organizational results (Bass, 1985). As everyone has experienced, trust comes more easily to those who do as

they say they will do. Transformational leadership means putting trust to work in organizations, as transformational leaders build trust in organizational relationships.

In later reincarnations of the model, Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) assumed a level of ethics and morality inherent in transformational leadership. Simply put, they believed that true transformational leaders are characterized by ethics in the leader's and the organization's vision, the leader's own morality, and the leader's ethical choices (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). Previous research omits the ethical aspect of transformational leadership, considering even unscrupulous leaders to be transformational as long as they meet the criteria discussed below—idealized attributes, idealized behaviors, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). Indeed, transformational leadership itself was at times considered unethical, as it could be viewed as painting an unrealistic or overly optimistic picture for followers and convinced employees to put organizational concerns above their own (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). Yet, this view overlooks how true transformational leaders bring individuals together for a common purpose and common vision in line with organizational goals, creating a more fulfilling and satisfying work environment for employees (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). Creating a satisfying workplace can only be considered virtuous given that individuals spend the better part of their waking hours at work.

To this point, little has been discussed about the individual nature of transformational leaders. For example, charisma is seen as a key component of transformational leadership (Bass, 1985). Likewise, those claiming to have served under

transformational leaders describe qualities of respect, equality, fairness, an inspirational character, enthusiasm, an ability to perceive the important from the mundane, and devotion to the organizational vision (Bass, 1985). As a result, employees are motivated to follow with pride and trust, without fear that they may fail (Bass, 1985). Such leaders stand out from ordinary managers and leaders and serve as models of what can be accomplished (Bass, 1985). Transformational leaders truly transform the workplace. While charismatic leaders often lead followers to success, they also cause intense feelings, either positively or negatively, amongst followers so that ordinary leaders often enjoy more stable relationships with followers (Bass, 1985). Additionally, when charismatic leaders fall victim to greed, corruption, and power, they can no longer be considered transformational leaders (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). Transformational leadership, then, is an ethical relationship of trust.

In a transformational organization, employee turnover rates are quite low, because employees show great commitment to the organization and pride in it (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Individuals are aligned with the organizational vision and goals rather than their own personal pursuits (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Leaders in transformational organizations lead by example and encourage trust and confidence in their abilities and in the company (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Trust and confidence are intrinsic rewards. Transformational leadership qualities in top level executives also assist organizations in recruiting highly qualified employees, as individuals often seek out such leaders for whom to work (Bass, 1990). Significantly, studies find that employees often take on leadership characteristics of their own immediate supervisor so that transformational leaders breed transformational

leaders, and transactional leaders breed transactional leaders (Bass, 1990). This mimicking effect might suggest that those employees who seek transformational workplaces were, themselves, potential transformational leaders. At the same time, research indicates that transformational leadership skills may be taught quite successfully (Bass, 1990). Organizations may benefit from providing leadership training in this area.

Idealized Influence

Transformational leadership is further defined by four characteristics: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Leaders who demonstrate qualities of transformational leadership earn employees' respect, esteem, and confidence by putting employees' needs before their own (Bass et al., 2003). By creating a positive model of leadership, employees follow the leader's example and adopt those same attributes (Bass et al., 2003). Transformational leaders demonstrate equal and fair treatment of all employees and practice ethical conduct consistent with the values and goals of the organization (Bass et al., 2003). Such leaders also communicate with employees in order to empower them and create ownership in their jobs (Bass et al., 2003). In other words, transformational leaders influence employees by their very qualities and actions. The concept of idealized influence evolved over time from charisma (Bass, 1985), to idealized influence and added a fourth category of traits—inspirational motivation (Bass & Avolio, 1993).

Inspirational motivation

Motivation has always been necessary to cause action. Transformational leaders inspire followers by challenging them, creating significance to their jobs, and supporting

each employee through positive visions and goals (Bass et al., 2003). These leaders motivate others to reach goals previously considered unattainable (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). In doing so, transformational leaders use straightforward communication and vision to create meaning and purpose as well as a positive outcome for followers (Bass, 1997). Transformational leaders provide the inspiration employees needed to reach higher and achieve more.

Intellectual stimulation

Any individual can dole out instructions. True leadership is a skill. Transformational leaders encourage individual participation and contributions, inspiring creativity in decision-making and problem solving (Bass et al., 2003). Through such involvement, followers are persuaded to speak their minds without fear of retribution (Bass et al., 2003). By promoting intellectual stimulation, transformational leaders are able to inspire deeper understanding and critical thinking at higher levels in their followers (Bass, 1985). In discussing all perspectives of the issue at hand, rather than just what is immediately necessary, transformational leaders are able to elicit more creative and well-rounded ideas and solutions from followers (Bass, 1985). That is, transformational leadership stimulates employees to be creative and innovative.

Individualized consideration

Life is not static. Without growth and change, it becomes stagnant. Transformational leaders participate in leadership development by fostering followers' career growth by leading by example and actively teaching individuals and providing such opportunities for growth and learning while acknowledging each employee's

different wants and needs (Bass et al., 2003). Leaders do so by delegating increasingly demanding assignments to subordinates, encouraging them to take on more responsibility, grow as employees, and develop their own leadership qualities (Bass, 1985). Moreover, while transformational leaders treat individuals equally and fairly, they do not treat them all alike; rather, they value the individuality of each and respond in kind (Bass, 1985). Transformational leaders also use communication to increase involvement and ownership (Bass, 1985). Individuals value fair treatment and the potential for career growth that transformational leadership provided.

Transactional Leadership

Another leadership style sometimes practiced along with transformational leadership is transactional leadership. The theory of transactional leadership, in which leaders reward employees for their accomplishments, positively impacts employee performance (Bass et al., 2003). Transactional leadership increases productivity through acknowledging achievements and clearly stating standards for rewards (Bass et al., 2003). Yet, transactional leadership generally adopts methods shown to have worked in the past without taking risk and without pushing employees farther than previously established expectations (Bass, 1985). Thus, transactional leadership differs fundamentally from transformational leadership.

Other differences between the two leadership styles exist. In a transactional organization, employees focus on individual pursuits and gains rather than organizational goals (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Work becomes a quid pro quo exchange—performance of a specified task for a specified reward (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Such organizations enjoy

very little creativity, as employees are not motivated or empowered (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Transactional leaders adhere to the cliché that if it is not broken, do not fix it, blindly following business-as-usual protocols (Bass, 1990). Such practices often lead to organizational inefficiency and poor performance (Bass, 1990). Most individuals have experienced these types of transactional organizations.

Contingent rewards. Transactional leaders use more extrinsic rewards than their transformational leadership counterparts. Within the concept of transactional leadership, contingent rewards are used when leaders set goals and communicate them to followers along with the rewards they would receive if they met those goals (Bass, 1997). Those who meet the established goals are awarded and acknowledged (Bass, 1997). Rewards are positive reinforcement tools, yet such rewards are dependent upon the leader's access and control over such rewards (Bass, 1990). Managers without authority or resources to provide rewards are left with empty and unfulfilled promises (Bass, 1990). Yet, managers with authority, resources, and control to rewards with which employees identify and find valuable have higher levels of success (Bass, 1990). Clearly, the motivation to reach these goals is personal in nature, rather than stemming from a commitment to the organization or inspiration from the leader.

Management-by-exception (active). Another type of transactional leadership is management-by-exception. In the case of active management-by-exception, leaders set forth goals and standards as well as what constitutes unacceptable performance (Bass et al., 2003). Those who fail to meet the established goals are punished (Bass et al., 2003). Leaders who practice active management-by-exception closely supervise employees in

order to quickly remediate inappropriate behavior (Bass et al., 2003). Lack of autonomy and control are forms of negative reinforcement. Interestingly, employees report doing very little for such leaders (Bass, 1990). This type of leadership is profoundly different than the positive transformational leadership approach.

Management-by-exception (passive)

Management-by-exception also has a passive form. In contrast to the active management-by-exception style, in the passive state, leaders fail to set clear goals and standards for employees and respond only when they are notified of a problem, or choose not to respond at all (Bass et al., 2003). In this form of transactional leadership, leaders act only in the presence of deviation in performance (Bass, 1997). This leadership style is not likely to increase performance or productivity (Waldman, Bass, & Einstein, 1987.) Obviously, management-by-exception is not a leadership style that motivates or inspires employees.

Laissez-faire

The final type of transactional leader style is the laissez-faire leadership style. Laisses-faire leadership is a term given to no leadership practices at all, even when the situation demands it (Bass, 1999). This type of leadership contributes to poor job satisfaction and low levels of efficiency (Bass, 1999). This leadership style appears inappropriate in almost any setting.

All styles compared, transformational leadership appears to be the best style for both followers and leaders. In assessing outcomes of leadership such as extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction, as would be expected, transformational leadership is more

successful than the other leadership styles, while contingent reward leadership is somewhat successful (Bass, 1999). Active management-by-exception leadership comes in third in terms of performance followed by passive management-by-exception leadership (Bass, 1999). Laisses-faire leadership is the least successful form of management and leads to the most negative results (Bass, 1999). This outcome is predictable. More importantly, transactional leadership provides a practical method of accomplishing organizational goals, while transformational leadership achieves much more than simply the organization's short-term goals (Bass, 1999). While accomplishing specified tasks satisfied the expectations of transactional leadership, transformational leadership leads to increased ownership in job tasks, inspiration to achieve more, an ability to rise to a challenge, and increased individual self-esteem (Bass, 1999). Whenever possible and practicable, transformational leadership seems to be the best choice for leaders to accomplish goals and increase performance.

Current Literature on Transformational Leadership

Current literature on transformational leadership supported and concurred with the original theorists' heavily researched and studied concepts. Transformational leadership has been a popular leadership theory since its introduction by Burns (1978) and expansion by Bass (1985; as cited in Fu et al., 2010). This theory states that transformational leaders are those that inspire others to accomplish more than expected of them and unite them with shared values and organizational mission in an ethical manner (Fu et al., 2010; Ismail et al., 2010; Li et al., 2010). Transformational leadership therefore

is aligned with the tradition of nonprofit organizations to carry out their mission ethically. Zagoršek, Dimovski, and Škerlavaj (2009) stated that

> Rather than analyzing and controlling specific transactions with the followers by using rules, directions and incentives, transformational leadership focuses on intangible qualities such as vision, shared values, and ideas in order to build relationships, give larger meaning to separate activities, and provide common grounds in order to enlist followers in the change process. (p. 148)

Quite literally, transformational leadership, at its core, involves transformation and meaningful change and is the impetus for such (Poutiatine, 2009). Like nonprofit organizations trying to change the world in a positive manner, transformational leadership positively transforms organizations and their cultures and working conditions. Transformational leadership is a visionary theory of exceptional leadership and accomplishment (Fu et al., 2010) comprised of four components: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (discussed more fully above; Giri & Santra, 2010; Ismail et al., 2010; Li et al., 2010; Valdiserri & Wilson, 2010; Williams, Parker, & Turner, 2010). Transactional leaders care about doing the work correctly, while transformational leaders care about acting ethically (Bennett, 2009). The current literature agrees that transformational leadership is ethical and is built upon the principles of idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Clearly, transformational leadership is an appropriate leadership theory for nonprofit organizations to assist them in reaching their goals and accomplishing their missions.

Transformational Leadership in Organizations

Most literature on transformational leadership examines the concept as it relates to business organizations with less research on public agencies and universities. Rowold and Rohmann (2009) looked at the emotional expressions of the leader. As predicted, transactional leaders are not emotionally as in tune with their followers as transformational leaders (Rowold & Rohmann, 2009). In nonprofit organizations, individuals are often drawn to a cause through relevant life experiences and resulting passion, creating a need for leaders to be emotionally in tune with followers to direct that passion towards the mission. Positive emotions produce more consistent outcomes than negative emotions (Rowold & Rohmann, 2009). In fact, negative emotions have an adverse impact on performance and organizational outcomes (Rowold & Rohmann, 2009). Positive emotions often prove critical in nonprofit organizations because employees of nonprofit organizations traditionally earn less than their private sector counterparts. While the basic recognition and rewards associated with transactional leadership are effective and produce positive emotions in followers in nonprofit organizations, transformational leaders who portray positive emotions elicit more positive emotional responses from their followers and are generally more effective leaders (Rowold & Rohmann, 2009). Overall, transformational leadership proves to be very effective in nonprofit organizations (Rowold & Rohmann, 2009). Although transformational leader's positive contribution to nonprofit organizations may be a predictable outcome of the study, it is nevertheless useful for purposes of this dissertation and in contributing to the literature on transformational leadership in the nonprofit sector.

Organizational training/learning is no exception for the positive results of transformational leadership. In another study, the results indicate that students in training scenarios where instructors practice transformational leadership are significantly more likely to perform better, and the dropout rates decrease (Patrick, Scrase, Ahmed, & Tombs, 2009). Often, nonprofit organizations have limited resources to devote to training, and leadership efforts that improve training results should be implemented in nonprofit organizations to reduce waste. Further, administrators who practice transformational leadership also lead to reduced turnover rates in staff (Patrick et al., 2009). Turnover is very costly to organizations in terms of recruitment and training, which is particularly significant for nonprofits with scarce resources. Specifically, those instructors acknowledged to be examples of transformational leaders demonstrate role model behaviors and actively model tasks to be performed, as well as and coach, mentor, and provide feedback to students (Athalye, 2009; Patrick et al., 2009). Transformational instructors act as role models and motivate students (Athalye, 2009). This approach is more interactive and hands-on than other leadership styles and more appropriate for nonprofit organizations to motivate and inspire employees.

Literature on transformational leadership in the private sector is more abundant than the philanthropic sector. Although not specifically designed in a nonprofit setting, one study indicates that transformational leadership increases product branding through brand-based personal perception (Morhart, Herzog, & Tomczak, 2009). Many nonprofit organizations are financially limited in what they can accomplish in terms of marketing and advertising, and transformational leadership may provide them with a viable option

to solidly brand themselves. Transformational leadership increases employee commitment and aligns employee goals with organizational goals while decreasing turnover rates (Morhart et al., 2009). The extra work committed employees accept significantly contributes to organizational branding and success (Morhart et al., 2009). Savings in terms of efficiency, productivity, and decreased turnover rates may make or break a nonprofit organization, suggesting transformational leadership may greatly improve a nonprofit organization's chance of success. Conversely, transactional leadership negatively impacts brand building in organizations (Morhart et al., 2009). Significantly, the study indicates that transformational leadership may be learned, to some degree, through training (Morhart et al., 2009). This finding is compelling for any organization, nonprofit or otherwise.

Finally, with regard to the transformational leader him/herself, Mancheno-Smoak et al. (2009) asserted that transformational leaders question everything, create a shared vision, inspire action, lead by example, and support the individual. Challenging the process involves challenging the status quo and taking risks, while inspiring a shared vision is the process of organizing others under an umbrella of shared goals and objectives for the organization's future and is accomplished through completion of goals and, ultimately, the shared vision (Mancheno-Smoak et al., 2009). Enabling others to act involves empowering others, building them up, and encouraging teamwork (Mancheno-Smoak et al., 2009). Modeling the way is, literally, leading by example and inspiring support, while encouraging the heart means recognizing accomplishments and individual successes and generally celebrating achievements (Mancheno-Smoak et al., 2009).

Collectively and individually, these characteristics of transformational leaders suggest that transformational leadership is not only appropriate but necessary in nonprofit organizations. Importantly, transformational leaders, themselves, enjoy high levels of job satisfaction (Mancheno-Smoak et al., 2009). These qualities are very similar to idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration, supporting the nurturing nature of transformational leadership.

Another characteristic of transformational leaders is humor. Notably, leaders who use high levels of humor increase team goal completion, individual performance outcomes and creativity significantly also resulting in increased innovation (Arendt, 2009). Humor may be used to relieve stress and negativity (Arendt, 2009). In order to keep individuals focused on tasks at hand and highly motivated, it is often necessary to reduce negativity and stress, especially in nonprofit organizations where reductions in waste is necessary for success.

Interestingly, Mancheno-Smoak et al.'s (2009) study found that those leaders who avoid uncertainty are actually likely to be effective transformational leaders. This finding may be because such leaders often embrace change in order to reestablish certainty within the organization (Mancheno-Smoak et al., 2009). In other words, when leaders are confident and at ease with change, that sentiment transfers to followers, and ease in times of change may be critical to a nonprofit organization in the event of altered mission or goals. Finally, one study suggests that gender differences affect perceptions of transformational leadership. Specifically, Ayman, Korabik, and Morris, (2009) found that female subordinates perceive female transformational leaders more positively than male

subordinates (Ayman et al., 2009). Yet, no inconsistencies in perception are noted in the case of male transformational leaders (Ayman et al., 2009). The authors suggested that this discrepancy may be the result of a conflict of gender roles versus leader roles for many men (Ayman et al., 2009). Although more women have entered leadership positions in recent decades, it is clear that gender roles are still obstacles for women in the workplace, and this topic appears to be an area appropriate for future research. This topic is also important to note in nonprofit organizations led by women so that they can take steps to ensure male subordinates are motivated and inspired to the same degree as female employees.

Ethics

The current literature supports the notion that transformational leadership is an ethical form of leadership, not intending to coerce, bribe, or force employees into action. Transformational leadership has long been associated with ethical behavior through its emphasis on shared values and goals (Paarlberg & Lavigna, 2010; Schwepker & Good, 2010). Shared values and goals are the cornerstone of nonprofit organizations. Transformational leaders also promote ethical behavior through modeling of appropriate behavior and leading by example (Brown & Reilly, 2009; Schwepker & Good, 2010) and positively influence followers' perceptions of organizational fairness (Kirkman, Chen, Farh, Chen, & Lowe, 2009). Followers expect nonprofit organizations to be ethical in nature again suggesting that transformational is appropriate for nonprofit organizations. Transformational leaders inspire followers to achieve more by creating a shared vision, leading by example, building a group mission, offering support, feedback, and a creative

environment, and voicing high expectations from followers (Schwepker & Good, 2010). Improved productivity and efficiency may mean the difference between success and failure for a struggling nonprofit organization. While some argue that transformational leaders may use their leadership skills for unethical purposes, such behavior does not constitute legitimate transformational leadership (Schwepker & Good, 2010; Toor & Ofori, 2009). As a result of the ethical atmosphere created by transformational leadership, these organizations also enjoy high levels of trust from employees (Brown & Reilly, 2009; Schwepker & Good, 2010). It may be that ethics is an increasingly important point of concern with employees after recent corporate scandals and the events leading to the Wall Street and housing market collapses, and it is no less true for nonprofit organizations, which are expected to ethically use donations.

Self-Awareness and Emotional Intelligence

Transformational leadership is an appropriate leadership style for all levels of an organization. Recent studies criticize Bass's (1985) and others' early theories on transformational leadership for focusing only on top management and excluding middle and lower management (Sur & Prasad, 2011). It is obvious that poor lower and mid-level managers may undermine the effect of a transformational leader at the top. Additionally, some evidence suggests that the more self-aware the leader is, the better their transformational leadership skills are (Sur & Prasad, 2011). Self-awareness is the ability of an individual to effectively and honestly evaluate his/her strengths and weaknesses (Sur & Prasad, 2011). As a result, Sur and Prasad's (2011) study found that, as an individual progressed up the managerial ranks, his/her self-awareness increased. This

finding is, perhaps, a result of increased experience and the challenges and learning opportunities that come with it, thus implying that proper training and support at the middle management level lead to improved transformational leadership at the top levels (Sur & Prasad, 2011). In other words, transformational leadership should be practiced and taught throughout an organization. As nonprofit organizations are engaged in transforming the world for the better, the entire organization should utilize transformational leadership.

Additionally, the theory of emotional intelligence appears in the literature review of transformational leadership. Goleman (1998) described emotional intelligence as the relationship and results of emotions and rational thoughts working together. Emotional intelligence consists of self-awareness, the ability to manage our emotions, the ability to motivate others, the ability to empathize, and the ability to connect with others (Goleman, 1998). While self-awareness concerns one's ability to honestly evaluate his/her own attributes and see him/herself in a similar fashion as others perceive him/her, emotional intelligence is defined as an individual's ability to act with empathy and social awareness (Corona, 2010), as well as their own emotions (Reilly & Karounos, 2009; Sayeed & Shanker, 2009). Emotional intelligence is composed of four elements: self-awareness (acknowledgment of one's abilities, limitations, and values), self-regulation (one's ability to monitor his/her emotions and keep them in check, even under stress), motivation (one's ability to lead by example), and empathy (one's ability to understand and relate to another's emotions (Reilly & Karounos, 2009; Sayeed & Shanker, 2009). Reilly and Karounos (2009) added a fifth element to emotional intelligence—that of social skills in

which individuals are adept at establishing and maintaining relationships and networks. Self-awareness, self-regulation, and motivation often strongly indicate how successful an individual manages him/herself, while empathy indicates how successful an individual manages others (Sayeed & Shanker, 2009). Thus, high levels of each of the four elements of emotional intelligence strongly suggest the presence of transformational leadership (Sayeed & Shanker, 2009). Nonprofit organizations often emerge as a result of tragedy (as in the case of Mothers Against Drunk Drivers) or disease (as in the case of the American Heart Association), and emotions often play a large part in them. Transformational leaders may be more effective in bringing employees together, as well as donors to support the cause.

Emotional intelligence is further broken down into two parts—intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligence. Interpersonal intelligence is the talent for empathizing with others, while intrapersonal intelligence (like self-awareness) is the accurate recognition of one's own characteristics (Corona, 2010). Those with high levels of emotional intelligence are able to more productively motivate and manage others, are more capable decision-makers, are able to adapt more easily to organizational change, and are generally more successful (Corona, 2010). Transformational leaders are expected to possess high emotional intelligence, again suggesting that transformational leadership is appropriate in a nonprofit setting for bringing employees together towards the organization's goals and donors together towards the cause.

Emotional intelligence, as it relates to transformational leadership, fits within the concepts of idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and

individualized consideration. Transformational leaders are typically found to possess high levels of emotional intelligence, acting as role models for followers, earning their respect, contributing to an ethical workplace, and uniting followers with shared vision (idealized influence) and a common mission (inspirational motivation; Corona, 2010; Ismail et al., 2010). Transformational leadership is therefore consistent with a nonprofit organization's focus on mission and values. Transformational leaders also inspire creativity (Gong, Huang, & Farh, 2009) and innovation (intellectual stimulation) and establish an atmosphere of open communication, providing feedback and support (individualized consideration), and form strong follower/leader bonds (Corona, 2010; Ismail et al., 2010). Creativity and innovation are often vital tools that nonprofit organizations use to fulfill their missions and accomplish their goals with limited resources. Those with high levels of emotional intelligence possess the key to being extraordinary transformational leaders (Corona, 2010). Emotional intelligence is a quality inherent in the original theory of transformational leadership without formal definition or recognition.

Empowerment

Employee empowerment is a critical result of transformational leadership. Previous research recognizes empowerment as an outcome of transformational leadership (Bass et al., 2003). Gill, Flaschner, Shah, and Bhutani (2010) described empowerment as an employee's ability to make decisions and possess control over his/her job. Current research suggests that empowerment has a mediating effect on organizational commitment (Gill, Mathur, Sharma, & Bhutani, 2011; Ismail, Mohamed, Sulaiman, Mohamad, & Yusuf, 2011). The concepts of idealized influence, inspirational motivation,

intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration, as first described by Bass (1985), do not on their own lead to empowerment (Ismail et al., 2011). Rather, empowerment requires a supervisor's behavior in actively empowering employees, and an employee's ability to be empowered, through job control, the ability to make job decisions, and the availability of choices (Ismail et al., 2011; Paarlberg & Lavigna, 2010). Transformational leadership (and thus empowerment) is predicated on idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration and increased organizational commitment (Ismail et al., 2011). Moreover, Gumusluoglu and Ilsev (2009) found that individualized consideration, above the other three elements of transformational leadership, enhance the confidence of followers and inspires individual achievement, thus empowering employees, and leaders who challenge followers and give them meaning in their jobs instill higher levels of empowerment. Indeed, transformational leadership and empowerment also decrease work-related stress, as employees feel more in control over their jobs and increased flexibility (Gill, Flaschner, & Bhutani, 2010). Finally, empowerment through transformational leadership increases job satisfaction and commitment to the organization in employees (Castro, Perinan, & Bueno, 2008). The outcomes of empowerment—job satisfaction, self-confidence, meaningful work, and commitment to the organization—are essential to nonprofit organizations where employees may expect to find meaning, fulfillment, and job satisfaction. Therefore, transformational leadership appears to be necessary for the success of a nonprofit organization.

Organizational Commitment

Turnover is very costly to organizations. Thus, improving employee commitment to the organization should be a goal of any leader. Low levels of employee empowerment with high levels of turnover lead to reduced efficiency, productivity, and quality and increased operational costs (Gill et al., 2011). More specifically, newer employees are less productive than seasoned and experienced employees, further contributing to higher labor costs (Gill et al., 2011). Nonprofit organizations with scarce resources cannot afford high turnover and low productivity. Leaders who practice transformational leadership define objectives and goals, thereby reducing stress in employees and the intention to quit (Biswas, 2009; Gill et al., 2011). Three factors determine strong organizational commitment. They are trust in the organization's vision, a strong work ethic, and lack of plans to leave the organization (Ismail et al., 2011). These characteristics are all critical for employees in nonprofit organizations. Transformational leadership also improves organizational commitment through idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Castro et al., 2008; Ismail et al., 2011). Strong organizational commitment as a result of transformational leadership may potentially lower turnover and training costs and improve performance in nonprofit organizations.

Moreover, transformational leadership is an effective communication tool that may be used to increase organizational commitment. When leaders fail to properly explain decisions out of fear that employees will be upset, it actually causes employees to become dissatisfied and disengaged, even leading some employees to respond with

negative behavior (Holtz & Harold, 2008). Using transformational leadership, leaders foster trust and open communication through which they offer explanations to organizational decisions in a manner that leads to employee acceptance of and agreement with the information (Holtz & Harold, 2008). However, the same is not true of transactional leaders (Holtz & Harold, 2008). Commitment to the organization and its mission is essential to the survival of nonprofit organizations.

Job Satisfaction

Transformational leadership also positively affects job satisfaction. Gill et al. (2010) defined job satisfaction as the positive feelings employees enjoy when they are recognized for having achieved goals in line with their own values. Transformational leadership leads to increased job satisfaction through the provision of a clear understanding of objectives, goals, and roles, thereby reducing stress (Biswas, 2009; Gill et al., 2010; Paarlberg & Lavigna, 2010). In fact, transformational leadership leads to improved moods in employees overall, and employees who experience job satisfaction and good moods are more productive (Tsai, Chen, & Cheng, 2009). Nonprofit organizations rely on efficient and productive employees to accomplish their goals. Likewise, empowerment derived from transformational leadership in which employees have control over their jobs and decision-making abilities increases job satisfaction (Gill et al., 2010). Similarly, increased creativity and self-efficacy derived through transformational leadership leads to higher levels of job satisfaction (Biswas, 2009; Gong et al., 2009) and increased productivity (Tsai et al., 2009). However, goal ambiguity results in increased job-related stress (Paarlberg & Lavigna, 2010). Again,

transformational leadership is consistent with the needs of nonprofit organizations in improving employee productivity, efficiency, and even job satisfaction.

Certain characteristics of transformational leadership are more important for job satisfaction than others. Although studies have confirmed that job satisfaction is not solely dependent on transformational leadership, and that a combination of transactional and transformational leadership styles is often more realistic, appropriate, and effective, the inspirational motivation and individual consideration aspects of transformational leadership significantly increase job satisfaction (Bennett, 2009; Ho, Fi, Poon Wai, & Keng Boon, 2009). Specifically, inspirational motivation positively influences the spirit of teamwork increasing performance, and individual consideration, acting as mentor and coach, and taking interest in employees on a personal level creates feelings of appreciation and decreased turnover (Biswas, 2009; Ho et al., 2009). Additionally, while rewards and recognition (transactional leadership) positively influences job satisfaction, management by exception (both active and passive) and, especially, laissez-faire leadership negatively influence job satisfaction and increase turnover rates (Bennett, 2009; Ho et al., 2009). Transformational leadership, where leaders demonstrate concern, support, and consideration for employees, leads to higher levels of job satisfaction (Castro et al., 2008). On all fronts, transformational leadership is a more suitable approach than transactional leadership for positive organizational consequences in nonprofit organizations.

Innovation

Dynamic organizations must cultivate innovation and creativity to remain competitive. Innovation and creativity are thought to be more prevalent in organizations where transformational leadership is practiced (Jaskyte, 2011; Rank, Nelson, Allen, & Xian, 2009). Specifically, transformational leadership produces an environment conducive to creativity, ethics, and motivation because transformational leadership is the process where leaders and followers lift one another to new levels of inspiration (Jaskyte, 2011; Paarlberg & Lavigna, 2010). Such organizations are more innovative than organizations that do not employ transformational leadership (Jaskyte, 2011; Rank et al., 2009). Creativity, innovation, and ethics are critical to nonprofit organizations as they attempt to make positive social change with limited resources. Leaders in these organizations share similar characteristics: a *bigger picture* outlook that includes long-term goals, consideration for others, taking chances, working diligently, flexible and creative, recognize employees, and delegate authority (Jaskyte, 2011). Transformational leadership improves training in a positive manner by questioning old conventions and creatively inventing new avenues of innovation and efficiency (García-Morales, Lloréns-Montes, & Verdú-Jover, 2008). Moreover, in teams, transformational leaders provide an arena of open communication in which members may share ideas, thus enhancing innovation and creativity through support of a shared vision (Eisenbeiss, van Knippenberg, & Boerner, 2008). Without innovation and creativity, many nonprofit organizations may not succeed in this ever changing world and difficult economy.

In fact, innovation and creativity have long been associated with improving organizational financial success (Haq, Ali, Azeem, Hijazi, Qurashi, & Quyyum, 2010). Followers of transformational leaders feel supported and encouraged to participate in discussions, make suggestions, and offer honest communication (Eisenbeiss et al., 2008; Haq et al., 2010). In such a context, employees feel safe to offer ideas and criticism (Jaskyte, 2011). Nonprofit organizations cannot afford to block any roads by which ideas for improvement, reduction in waste, and goal completion may be delivered. Employees in such environments also experience increased levels of self-efficacy (Gong et al., 2009) and enjoyed higher levels of intrinsic rewards leading to more engaged, empowered, and motivated employees who are willing to take risks and accept challenges (Haq et al., 2010). As a result, transformational leadership sets the stage for innovation and creativity (Eisenbeiss et al., 2008; Gong et al., 2009; Haq et al., 2010) as well as increasing the effectiveness of individual task performance (Rank et al., 2009). Similarly, transformational leadership is critical to organizational learning, which is the cornerstone of innovation, through open communication, teamwork, creativity, and effective dissemination of information (Zagoršek et al., 2009). Transformational leadership may prove to be an important tool for nonprofit organizations to compete for donations, to meet organizational goals, to fulfill their missions, and to weather a difficult economy.

Furthermore, the four components of transformational leadership are responsible for innovation and creativity. Indeed, it is the nature of transformational leadership (idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration) that is a central component to innovation, through inspiring employees,

bringing them together for a common goal with shared values, and setting a safe environment for creativity (Gumusluoğlu & Ilsev, 2009). Specifically, these four dynamics of transformational leadership lead to intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy necessary for supporting and nurturing creativity (García-Morales et al., 2008; Gumusluoglu & Ilsev, 2009b). The transformational leader strongly influences followers' performance, self-worth, and confidence levels (Gumusluoğlu & Ilsev, 2009). With regard to Gumusluoğlu and Ilsev's (2009) study, transformational leadership improves market success of innovation, a surprising outcome of the study. Specifically, transformational leadership inspires employees to ensure the success of their innovations through a shared vision and commitment to the success of the new product or concept (Gumusluoğlu & Ilsev, 2009). Thus, nonprofit organizations that do not embrace transformational leadership may jeopardize their success, causing donors to make contributions to other nonprofit organizations that demonstrated more creativity and innovation.

Individuals Versus Groups

Transformational leadership positively affects both individuals and groups. Earlier research typically looked at either individual or group outcomes of transformational leadership rather than comparing the two (Wang & Howell, 2010). In researching the effects of transformational leadership at the both individual and group levels, Wang and Howell (2010) added two components to Bass's (1985) model—clarifying ambitious goals and objectives and practicing team-building exercises. The authors differentiated between individual and group outcomes of transformational

leadership by stating that transformational leaders influence individuals through empowerment and encouragement to reach their potential, develop their skills, and increase their self-esteem by treating them individually and with respect as well as furnishing opportunities for learning and development (Wang & Howell, 2010). Differing goals of any nonprofit organization may demand that employees work individually or in groups, and transformational leadership improves the efficacy, productivity, and performance of both, adding to the successful completion of goals. Additionally, transformational leadership fosters employees' identification with their jobs and the organization through a shared vision and common goals (Walumbwa, Avolio, & Zhu, 2008). As a result, employees find value in their jobs and strongly associate with their work, taking pride in their performance and efficacy (Walumbwa et al., 2008). Research on groups, on the other hand, emphasizes clarifying objectives and goals of the group, developing shared values, and focusing on how the group will reach its goals together (Eisenbeiss et al., 2008; Paarlberg & Lavigna, 2010; Wang & Howell, 2010). Transformational leadership helps to create an environment of creativity and sharing of ideas and information, allowing employees to better do their jobs in groups and reducing issues related to diversity through open communication, shared values and through the use of the shared ideas and information (Kearney & Gebert, 2009). The key difference is that leaders should treat individuals individually and treat groups collectively (Wang & Howell, 2010). By acting as a mentor and emphasizing ambitious goals, transformational leaders are able to improve individual outcomes (Wang & Howell, 2010; Williams et al., 2010). Also, by creating group values and beliefs, transformational leaders are able to

improve group outcomes (Wang & Howell, 2010; Wolfram & Mohr, 2009). However, some evidence suggests that individual leaders have a more significant impact on individual outcomes, as opposed to groups (Ayman et al., 2009). Perhaps groups require more than one leader practicing transformational leadership to bring them together more effectively. Yet, transformational leadership is appropriate for nonprofit organizations in improving outcomes for both individuals and groups and contributing to organizational success.

In more recent years, virtual teams/groups have attracted much research attention. Virtual teams are inherently more complex than other groups due to lack of visual cues and conversational characteristics (Purvanova & Bono, 2009). Additionally, e-communication is considerably more time-consuming, as typing requires four times the time that speaking requires, increasing the difficulties facing virtual teams (Purvanova & Bono, 2009). Due to these obstacles, many times, leaders use a top-down, hierarchical approach to communication and information dissemination, causing a negative reaction in followers (Purvanova & Bono, 2009). Yet, while transformational leadership is not as common in virtual teams as face-to-face teams, it has a more profound and positive effect on productivity in virtual teams than face-to-face teams (Purvanova & Bono, 2009). This finding may be due to the nature of transformational leadership to enhance communication, thereby reducing the vague and ambiguous quality of virtual teams and enhancing the quality of two-way open communication to create a shared vision (Purvanova & Bono, 2009). Many larger nonprofit organizations may utilize virtual teams comprised of employees in different offices and different regions more than

smaller nonprofit organizations with one location, yet virtual teams are becoming more common. Therefore, methods for improving their success, such as transformational leadership, are necessary. Moreover, some research indicates that transformational leadership is more effective in groups where the leader is older than other group members as opposed to the same age or younger (Kearney, 2008). When teams are comprised of similarly qualified individuals, age becomes a factor, even though the leader practices transformational leadership (Kearney, 2008). Nonprofit organizations should heed this warning and compensate accordingly to improve their chances for team success and goal completion.

Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership is a common leadership style used in organizations everywhere. In contrast to transformational leadership, transactional leadership is the exchange of desired behavior for desired reward (Ismail et al., 2011; Valdiserri & Wilson, 2010). Transactional leadership is thought to be an appropriate leadership style for static, stable organizations as opposed to dynamic organizations going through change or crisis (Ismail et al., 2011). In the case of the latter, transformational leadership proves to be a more effective leadership style (Ismail et al., 2011) and contributes to higher standards of ethics and integrity (Trapero & De Lozada, 2010). Larger, established nonprofit organizations may enjoy a more stable environment and operations, yet newly formed nonprofit organizations may go through organizational change as they go through trial and error, before recognizing the effective measures and tools they will need to further their missions. Transformational leadership may be vital as nonprofit

organizations engage in change. Transactional leadership, through pressure to reach goals and achieve rewards, often leads to unethical behavior while transformational leadership appeals to employees' values and contributes to ethical conduct (Schwepker & Good, 2010; Toor & Ofori, 2009). However, transactional leadership is consistently more ethical than Laissez Faire leadership style (Trapero & De Lozada, 2010), categorized as ineffective in which a lack of leadership exists with no one taking responsibility for meeting goals and the designated leader remaining uninvolved and unwilling to make decisions or deal with employees (Valdiserri & Wilson, 2010). While it may be necessary to practice transactional leadership at times, transformational leadership is the most effective leadership method for nonprofit organizations, especially those going through organizational change.

To compare, transformational leaders practice hands-on, motivating, and inspiring leadership. Transactional leaders generally use contingent rewards where the follower and leader agree upon the objective and reward (Giri & Santra, 2010) and intervene either when problems or errors occur or to reward those who meet defined goals (management by exception, active; Ismail et al., 2010; Valdiserri & Wilson, 2010) or in the end to take corrective action (management by exception, passive; Trapero & De Lozada, 2010). While transformational leadership is more effective, especially in organizations going through change, transactional leadership is an important organizational concept (Ismail et al., 2010). Transactional leadership and transformational leadership are not mutually exclusive; instead, transformational leadership builds upon transactional leadership, increasing its effectiveness (Ismail et al., 2010). Going to work, performing one's job,

and receiving compensation for work done is a basic example of transactional leadership. All organizations practice transactional leadership to varying degrees. Transformational leadership, however, augments performance, success, and quality of the work done, which is critically important to nonprofit organizations.

Public, Private, and Nonprofit Sectors

Scholars have traditionally considered transformational leadership to be more prevalent in private sector companies. However, recent research states that it is equally effective and pervasive in public sector agencies, suggesting that public organizations are not the red-tape-filled bureaucracies once perceived (Wright & Pandey, 2010). Likewise, as transformational leadership brings together shared vision and a collective mission, along with inspiring employees to reach beyond expectations, it is highly effective in nonprofit organizations (Giri & Santra, 2010; Jaskyte, 2011). In fact, placing importance on the organizational mission and vision means that transformational leadership is even more relevant in the public and nonprofit sectors (Wright & Pandey, 2010). Commitment to the mission and vision is vital to the success of a nonprofit organization. Additionally, bureaucracies rely on uniformity and predictability through formal polices and processes to ensure stability and equity, leaving little room for individual judgment (Wright & Pandey, 2010). This type of organizational structure actually leads to employee turnover and alienation (Wright & Pandey, 2010). Instead, transformational leadership focuses on flexibility and adaptability of both follower and leader (Wright & Pandey, 2010). In times of change and uncertainty, nonprofit organizations need employees who adopt flexibility

and adaptability to meet goals and fulfill missions. Flexibility allows nonprofit organizations to effect positive social change.

Conclusion

Transformational leadership theory has existed for decades, and extensive research has been conducted on the theory so that current literature supports and agrees on its viability, value, and appropriateness in most organizational contexts. The only inconsistencies noted in the literature involve new instances where transformational leadership are proven effective and the study of those areas. The research is more advanced and expansive in nature rather than questioning, exploratory, or critical (i.e., innovation and the differences between groups and individuals). From all appearances, transformational leadership is a proven theory.

Evolution of the Work Engagement Theory

Personal Engagement/Personal Disengagement Theory

In 1990, Kahn conducted a grounded theory on personal engagement and personal disengagement in the workplace setting. He defined personal engagement as "the harnessing of organization members' selves to their work roles" and personal disengagement "as the uncoupling of selves from work roles" (Kahn, 1990, p. 694). Specifically, Kahn (1990) studied individuals' conduct and outlook from the perspective of their work experiences and how group and individual experiences further affect their work experiences (Kahn, 1990). Workers personally engage when they find the work to be meaningful, safe, and had the ability to do it (Kahn, 1990). Low levels of these factors lead to personal disengagement (Kahn, 1990). Similarly, those who are personally

engaged are more likely to be present (or highly aware; Kahn, 1992). Anxiety is a barrier to being present (Kahn, 1992). These characteristics create the framework of employee engagement.

Before the theory of employee engagement was proposed, scholars looked at the negative end of that scale—burnout. In an effort to redirect workplace psychological research from negative aspects to positive aspects, and in noting specific deficiencies in the Maslach-Burnout-Inventory and the Burnout Measure (two widely used measurement tools of employee burnout; Enzmann, Schaufeli, Janssen, & Rozeman, 1998), Schaufeli et al. (2002) further developed Kahn's (1990) theory of personal engagement and personal disengagement, arriving at the concept of work engagement, in which they identified causes and barriers to employee engagement and designed the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale to measure engagement. Specifically, Enzmann et al. (1998) found that the Maslach-Burnout Inventory focused too narrowly on the concept that burnout occurred only in those occupations where employees worked directly with other individuals, such as human service fields (i.e., nursing and teaching; Enzmann et al., 1998). Additionally, the Maslach-Burnout Inventory assumes that burnout and engagement are different degrees of the same variables, whereas the current model uses an analysis of different variables for burnout from those for engagement for a two-factor model, which better explains causes of burnout and engagement than the single factor model (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). They also determined that the Burnout Measure is too one-dimensional, contains deficient operationalization to the point that it is difficult to adequately assess the validity of the results, and fails to properly explain their

assumptions through a theoretical framework (Enzmann et al., 1998). In constructing the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale, the researchers noted that engagement is not merely the opposite of burnout (Schaufeli et al., 2002b). Rather, each concept requires measurements of separate variables (Schaufeli et al., 2002b). As such, the scale measures burnout using the criteria of exhaustion, cynicism, and inefficacy (Maslach-Burnout-Inventory and the Burnout Measure) and measures engagement using the criteria of vigor, dedication, and absorption (Utrecht Work Engagement Scale; Schaufeli et al., 2002b). It should be noted that individuals may be neither burned out nor engaged—engagement and burnout are not the only states of workplace behavior.

Job Demands-Job Resources Model of Burnout

Researching burnout provided the authors with a full perspective on the two extremes of burnout and engagement. In contrast to the theory that burnout only occurs in the human services field, Demerouti, Nachreiner, Baker, and Schaufeli (2001) developed the job demands/job resources theory, suggesting that all occupations are vulnerable to burnout. The authors defined job demands as those physical and/or mental requirements of one's position that require both physical and mental exertion, potentially leading to stress and exhaustion (Demerouti et al., 2001). Job resources, on the other hand, are defined as physical, emotional, and/or mental factors of one's position that contribute to an individual's success, decrease the effects of negative job demands, and lead to learning and growth (Demerouti et al., 2001). Although studies have indicated that job resources are often both internal and external, Demerouti et al. (2001) focused only on external resources for purposes of their Job Demands-Resources Model of Burnout.

External job resources include “job control, potential for qualification, participation in decision making, and task variety” (Demerouti et al., 2001, p. 501). Essentially, higher rates of job demands with lower instances of job resources lead to burnout.

When job demands are high and job resources are low, employees often withdraw from their jobs, and motivation levels drop (Demerouti et al., 2001). More specifically, when job demands are high, employees generally succumb to exhaustion; whereas, when job resources are low, employees generally disengage from work; and when both job demands are high, and job resources are low, employees suffer from both exhaustion and disengagement, or burnout syndrome (Demerouti et al., 2001). Significantly, job demands are more sensitive, and employees develop exhaustion from high levels of job demands more quickly than they become disengaged from low levels of job resources (Demerouti et al., 2001). These findings may provide an interesting lesson for organizations.

Burnout Theory

Burnout is a potentially hazardous condition to employees’ health and mental well-being. Initially thought to only occur in the human service professions, burnout was first measured using the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) scale developed by Maslach and Jackson (1981). The model considered burnout from three different perspectives. First, exhaustion is described as low levels of energy without regard for the source (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Second, cynicism refers to a disassociation or apathy for one’s job (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Finally, professional efficacy focuses on both an individual’s job skills and proficiencies as well as his/her interpersonal skills (Schaufeli

& Bakker, 2004). Notably, professional efficacy is also found to positively affect engagement (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006). Individuals who score high on the exhaustion and cynicism categories and low on the professional efficacy category are considered to be suffering from burnout (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). It is difficult for employees to adequately perform their jobs when they are exhausted, cynical, and feel they do not have sufficient skills for the position.

The MBI went through several incarnations before arriving at its final stage. The first version of the MBI measured three contributing factors for burnout: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Higher scores in the areas of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization along with low scores in personal accomplishment are considered strong indicators of burnout, yet no correlation between personal accomplishment and the other two factors exists (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Stressful personal contact contributes to both emotional exhaustion and, less directly, depersonalization, leading to burnout, yet is not shown to affect personal accomplishment (Leiter & Maslach, 1988). Significantly, emotional exhaustion does not, itself, lead to low levels of personal accomplishment except in cases in which emotional exhaustion first led to depersonalization (Leiter & Maslach, 1988). Burnout is also found to be a strong indicator of low levels of work commitment (Heuven, Bakker, Schaufeli, & Huisman, 2006; Leiter & Maslach, 1988). As discussed in the transformational leadership section, organizational commitment may save organizations from the costs associated with turnover.

More specifically, organizational relationships have a significant impact on employees' well-being. Negative workplace interpersonal interaction with an employee's supervisor and role conflict directly lead to emotional exhaustion, while high levels of emotional exhaustion and negative relationships with supervisors and coworkers lead to depersonalization (Leiter & Maslach, 1988). This depersonalization causes workers to feel less committed to the organization, to pull away from the job, and to thus experience less personal accomplishments (Leiter & Maslach, 1988). As a result, negative relationships with workers' supervisors lead to burnout and decreased commitment (Leiter & Maslach, 1988). Other factors contributing to the elements of burnout are heavy workloads, deadlines, role conflict, job ambiguity, lack of control, coworker relationships, and supervisor relationships (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). Thus, transformational leadership may considerably improve these relationships, especially the worker/supervisor relationship, thereby alleviating burnout.

The MBI continued to evolve. In the more recent versions of Maslach Burnout Inventory, from the MBI-Human Services Survey, to the MBI-Educators Survey, finally to the current MBI-General Survey, depersonalization is replaced with cynicism, and personal accomplishment is replaced with professional efficacy (Maslach et al., 2001). The creation of the general survey acknowledges that all organizations and professions are vulnerable to burnout (Maslach et al., 2001). It also defines a spectrum of workplace responses, with burnout at one end and engagement at the other (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). Indeed, burnout is considered to be the opposite reaction of engagement, leading to absenteeism, turnover, and physical and emotional health issues (Maslach et al., 2001).

Maslach and Leiter (2008) provided the three aspects of engagement of energy, involvement, and efficacy. Moreover, burnout impacts employee performance leading to decreased efficiency and even problems in employees' personal lives (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). Finally, in the latest version of the burnout scale, indicators of burnout are expanded and include workload/demands, role conflict, role ambiguity, potential rewards and recognition, quality of workplace relationships, fairness, values, and job-person fit (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). While workload and lack of control are significant elements of burnout, values are strongly related to rewards, relationships, and equitable treatment, which have a strong negative correlation to burnout (Leiter & Maslach, 2009). Such organizations seem to lack any type of transformational leadership.

As a result of the burnout theory, it became easier to detect individuals susceptible to burnout. Early warnings of burnout are evident when either exhaustion or cynicism (but not both) are experienced (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). In other words, these two factors appear to be closely related, generally occurring together, so that the presence of one and the absence of the other suggest an unstable state, eventually leading to either burnout or a return to engagement (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). Likewise, those employees suffering from a poor job-person fit are likely to become burned out over time (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). Dissatisfaction with one's job also may lead to lack of engagement and eventually turnover (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). Again, burnout potentially causes negative health consequences, and turnover is very costly to organizations.

Work Engagement Theory

Engagement

Engagement is thought to be the opposite of burnout. Researchers looked at work engagement and found that it is not just the opposite reaction of burnout or lack of the burnout factors (Schaufeli et al., 2002b). Rather, engagement is predicted by three separate factors from those of burnout (Schaufeli et al., 2002b). In developing a model of engagement, engagement is defined as a generalized, prolonged state of positive outlook as opposed to intermittent or momentary positive feelings or as caused by any single factor (Schaufeli et al., 2002b). With regard to the three hallmark characterizations of engagement, vigor is defined as having "high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to invest effort in one's work, and persistence even in the face of difficulties" (Schaufeli et al., 2002b, p. 74). Dedication is described as having "a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge" (Schaufeli et al., 2002b, p. 74). Finally, absorption is described as being "fully concentrated and deeply engrossed in one's work, whereby time passes quickly and one has difficulties with detaching oneself from work" with awareness and clearness (Schaufeli et al., 2002b, p. 75). Absorption, thus, is similar to Kahn's (1992) concept of being present. Later, however, it was determined that vigor and dedication are the core elements of engagement and the polar opposite of the two burnout elements of exhaustion and cynicism, respectively (Llorens, Salanova, Schaufeli, & Bakker, 2007). These factors are in contrast to the MBI, which suggests that engagement is merely the absence of indicators for burnout (Schaufeli et al., 2002b). Generally speaking, engagement and burnout are defined by the two

characteristics of connecting with others and stimulation, either positively (in the case of engagement) or negatively (in the case of burnout; Shimazu et al., 2008). Yet, the two concepts remain at opposite ends of the same scale, just using different variables.

As predicted, burnout and engagement are moderately to highly negatively correlated (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Burnout contributes to turnover rates (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Initially, the three-factor model of burnout was found to successfully fit the data (Schaufeli, Martínez, Marques Pinto, Salanova, & Bakker, 2002). While burnout and engagement were previously thought to be opposite ends of a continuum, engagement and burnout are predicted by different factors (Schaufeli et al., 2002b). However, vigor and exhaustion have an opposite relationship along the element of energy (González-Romá, Schaufeli, Bakker, & Lloret, 2006; Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007a). In other words, high levels of energy indicate the presence of vigor, and low levels of energy indicate the presence of exhaustion (González-Romá et al., 2006). Importantly, engaged workers are more likely to be proactive, perform at a higher level, and contribute to the overall success of an organization (Schaufeli et al., 2008). Additionally, engaged employees enjoy higher levels of workplace well-being (Seppälä et al., 2009). Clearly, engaged employees perform better and are more productive than an employee suffering burnout.

Moreover, engaged employees are more likely to be successful in the future, gaining more skills in overcoming demands and obstacles than their unengaged counterparts (Salanova, Schaufeli, Martinez, & Breso, 2009). Interestingly, burnout does not indicate future failure (Salanova et al., 2009), yet studies of engagement prove that

engagement is a stable and pervasive state rather than a fleeting or momentary feeling (Seppälä et al., 2009). Engaged employees are generally happier and more positive, enjoy good health, help build their own job resources, and infect others with their engagement (Shimazu & Schaufeli, 2009). Additionally, engaged workers enjoy better health than their unengaged coworkers (especially burned out coworkers), perform better and above expectations, provide superior customer service, are more committed to the organization, have less desire to leave the company than unengaged or burned out employees, and even improve organizations' financial success (Shimazu & Schaufeli, 2009b). Like transformational leadership, engagement affects organizations' overall success, leading to increased productivity and improved performance.

Similarly, dedication and cynicism have an opposite relationship along the element of identification (González-Romá et al., 2006; Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007a). Therefore, high levels of identification indicate the presence of dedication, and low levels of identification indicate the presence of cynicism (González-Romá et al., 2006). As a result, high levels of energy and identification predict engagement, and low levels of energy and identification predict burnout (Bakker, Schaufeli, Demerouti, & Euwema, 2006; Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007a). Interestingly, an outcome of burnout results when self-efficacy levels decrease, while improved absorption levels appear to be an outcome of engagement (Bakker et al., 2006). In fact, efficacy ultimately is associated with all three elements of engagement, resulting in a fourth engagement dimension rather than a third dimension of burnout, and is related to job resources, whereas exhaustion and cynicism are related to job demands (Schaufeli et al., 2006a; Bresó, Salanova, &

Schaufeli, 2007). Possible explanations for these effects are that engaged workers feel more competent in their job duties (Schaufeli et al., 2006a). Indeed, in later studies, absorption appears to be a result of engagement rather than a factor of engagement (Lorente, Salanova, Martinez, & Schaufeli, 2008). In all, job demands influence exhaustion levels more than other factors (Heuven et al., 2006). Job resources mediate engagement more than the other factors, and low levels of job resources actually lower employees' senses of competency (Heuven et al., 2006). Job demands appear to be the real culprit in tipping the scales from engagement to burnout. As organizations continue to downsize in the recent recession, and remaining employees take on the tasks of those laid off, it may potentially result in an epidemic of burned out employees.

Researchers further distinguish and compare burnout and engagement. Delving deeper, studies show that engagement (and burnout) is further determined by affective characteristics along the spectrums of activation (vigor and exhaustion) and pleasure (dedication and cynicism; Langelaan, Bakker, Van Doornen, & Schaufeli, 2006). Employees' personalities are generally affected by their work positively (feelings of stimulation and joy) or negatively (feelings of irritation, agitation and stress; Langelaan et al., 2006). The research suggests that engaged employees report higher levels of positive effects from work, while burned out employees report higher levels of negative effects from work (Langelaan et al., 2006). These observations are interesting, as being engaged or burned out may actually affect employees' perceptions in the workplace.

With regard to personality, neuroticism (feelings of dread, anxiety, and irritability) and extraversion (feelings of friendliness, energy, and happiness) are

associated with burnout and engagement, respectively (Langelaan et al., 2006). Similarly, three categories of personality temperament are effective in determining burnout and engagement (Langelaan et al., 2006). These categories include strength of excitation (one's ability to sustain control in the face of increased stimulation), strength of inhibition (using the appropriate behavior for the situation), and mobility (adapting to change and remaining flexible; Langelaan et al., 2006, p. 524). High levels of these three categories of temperament indicate engagement, while low levels of the three categories indicate burnout (Langelaan et al., 2006). Interestingly, neuroticism is highly predictive of burnout, perhaps increasing levels of stress, while extraversion levels are predictive of the levels of engagement (high to low; Langelaan et al., 2006). Perhaps outgoing individuals establish better workplace relationships (job resources) to better adapt to changing environments and stress.

Many may consider engaged individuals to be workaholics. It should be noted that engagement differs from workaholism (Schaufeli, Taris, & Bakker, 2006). Indeed, workaholics:

> . . . are high in involvement, high in drive, and low in enjoyment, whereas 'work enthusiasts' are high in involvement and enjoyment, and low in drive (thus resembling engaged workers), and 'disenchanted workers' are low in involvement and enjoyment, and high in drive (thus resembling burned-out workers). (Schaufeli, Taris, & Van Rhenen, 2008, p. 174)

Although engaged workers are similar to workaholics because they are both absorbed and engrossed in their work, the compulsive component of workaholism is absent in engaged

employees (Schaufeli et al., 2006b; Taris, Schaufeli, & Shimazu, 2010). Rather, the enjoyment workers derive from their jobs is the driving force behind the absorption found in engaged employees (Schaufeli et al., 2006b). Workaholics, on the other hand, work excessively and compulsively, without regard to monetary incentives, and after meeting organizational demands (Schaufeli et al., 2006b). Although engaged employees report feeling tired at times, this feeling differs significantly from exhaustion and is actually identified as a positive feeling, one associated with a job well done and a sense of accomplishment (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007b). Engaged workers are clearly not workaholics.

Other differences between workaholics and engaged workers exist. One noted difference is that workaholics express stress, strain, and health issues as a result of their work, but engaged employees do not (Schaufeli et al., 2006b). In fact, despite what one would expect, research suggests that workaholics perform poorly, yet engaged workers are quite productive (Schaufeli et al., 2006b). Overall, workaholism shares characteristics of both burnout and engagement, yet the three workplace categories remain distinctive, maintaining their own elements and dimensions (Schaufeli et al., 2008). Indeed, engaged workers find satisfaction in work and family compared to workaholics (Shimazu & Schaufeli, 2009). Interestingly, self-employed individuals are likely to be either engaged or a workaholic because of their ambition and dedication (Gorgievski, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2009). Likewise, the job resources in an entrepreneurial environment are those very job resources (autonomy, job control, management, etc.) that lead to engagement

(Gorgievski et al., 2009). Engagement may explain why many entrepreneurs achieve great success and why entrepreneurship is so appealing to some.

Researchers again looked at burnout, engagement, and workaholism together. Simply stated, burnout negatively affects both job resources and job demands, while engagement positively affects only job resources (Schaufeli et al., 2008). Therefore, job demands contribute to burnout and workaholism but not engagement, while job resources relate positively to engagement and negatively to burnout and workaholism (Schaufeli et al., 2008). Meanwhile, workaholism and engagement positively relate to job satisfaction and commitment with burnout negatively contributing to these factors (Schaufeli et al., 2008). Finally, studies suggest that engaged employees enjoy better mental and physical health than their burned out counterparts (Schaufeli et al., 2008).

Job demands and job resources are such a critical determinant of engagement and burnout that a model was created to more clearly show their relationship. The Job Demands-Resources is based upon the observations that job demands (the actual physical and emotional demands of the job) increase fatigue, while lack of job resources (lack of work control, lack of support, lack of decision-making) lead to disengagement (Salanova & Schaufeli, 2008). Conversely, job resources (i.e., control, feedback, and variety; Salanova & Schaufeli, 2008) contribute to engagement and offset the effects of job demands, leading to improved performance, motivation, commitment, and proactivity (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2007) and lowering absenteeism and turnover intention (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Specifically, job resources contribute to engagement, and engaged employees perform proactively (Salanova & Schaufeli, 2008).

In other words, job resources have an indirect effect on proactivity through increased engagement (Salanova & Schaufeli, 2008). Work, at its best, satisfies individuals' needs for independence, proficiency, and interpersonal connection (Salanova & Schaufeli, 2008). Interestingly, monetary rewards are not commonly referenced as a job resource.

Job demands. The first part of the jobs demand-resources model is job demands. Job demands are defined as those specific job duties assigned to an individual (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Job demands differ from occupation to occupation, yet similarities in their effect is evident and universal (Bakker et al., 2006). Job demands negatively contribute to burnout when those duties become too burdensome (Bakker, Demerouti, Taris, Schaufeli, & Schreurs, 2003; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). At this point, job demands become a source of stress, influencing the other categories of burnout, such as exhaustion (Bakker et al., 2003b; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004), and decreased job performance (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). Job demands, however, are not found to be an absolute contributor to burnout but do significantly negatively affect engagement (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Yet, the best determining factor in burnout are job demands rather than lack of resources (Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2005). Moreover, in contrast with job resources, no reciprocal relationship exists between job demands and burnout (Schaufeli, Bakker, & van Rhenen, 2009). Again, job demands are significant indicators of a potential surge in cases of burnout as a result of the current recession.

High levels of job demands lead to exhaustion, thus contributing to burnout (Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2003). Negative levels of job demands in the presence of burnout contribute to employee health issues and, consequently, absenteeism (Bakker

et al., 2003a; Demerouti, Le Blanc, Bakker, Schaufeli, & Hox, 2009; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Taris, Stoffelsen, Bakker, Schaufeli, & Van Dierendonck, 2005;). Significantly, high levels of emotional work demands are equally, if not more responsible for burnout as psychological or quantitative demands, and directly contribute to feelings of depersonalization, whereas quantitative demands do not (Vegchel, De Jonge, Söderfeldt, Dormann, & Schaufeli, 2004). Interestingly, low levels of quantitative demands negatively impact individuals' senses of professional efficacy (Vegchel et al., 2004). Reasonable explanations include the possibility that individuals consider themselves more proficient when they are able to successfully perform a large number of tasks, at least until they reach the point where they lead to exhaustion and, eventually, burnout (Vegchel et al., 2004). Meanwhile, job control has a high correlation with the other burnout factors and decreases exhaustion (Vegchel et al., 2004). Clearly, lack of control in the workplace negatively impacts employees even going so far as to ease the effects of exhaustion.

Job resources. The second component of the job demands-resources model is job resources. Job resources refers to those skills or resources available to an individual that allows him/her to better cope with the job demands (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004), providing a buffer to those job demands (Korunka, Kubicek, & Schaufeli, 2009). In other words, job resources may be those task-related, socially-related, or organizationally-related skills that allow an individual to process job demands in such a way as to reduce the associated stress (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Job resources also differ from occupation to occupation, yet similarities in their effect is evident and universal (Bakker

et al., 2006). Job resources motivate employees when they provide autonomy, growth, and aptitude, positively affecting engagement (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Motivation derived from job resources is both intrinsic and extrinsic (Llorens, Bakker, Schaufeli, & Salanova, 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). For example, in the case of intrinsic motivation, support and feedback from supervisors contribute to an individual's feelings of belonging and worth, providing job motivation (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Similarly, when employees are able to meet organizational goals, they are extrinsically motivated by this success (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). High levels of engagement lead to lower occurrences of the intention to quit or a reduction in turnover (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). High levels of job resources also prevent burnout and contribute to engagement while mitigating job demands (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Vegchel et al., 2004). It should be noted that job resources are more important than just their effect on job demands due to the profound effect of job resources on work engagement (Schaufeli et al., 2009). Additionally, high levels of job resources reduce health risks associated with burnout (Heuven et al., 2006). Overall, job control and support are the primary job resources responsible for increased levels of engagement and decreased levels of burnout (Vegchel et al., 2004; Taris et al., 2005). Employees who have absolutely no support or control often have difficulty replacing those job resources with others that may raise them to the level of engagement.

Additionally, job resources are directly connected to involvement in both affective commitment and dedication. Affective commitment is associated with pleasant feelings for the organization, and dedication is associated with pleasant feelings for the

job itself (Bakker et al., 2003a). Specifically, certain job resources such as autonomy and input in workplace decisions lead to increased levels of involvement, and job resources such as encouragement from leaders lead to increased levels of affective commitment (Bakker et al., 2003a; Taris et al., 2005). Interestingly, engagement is more highly related to work commitment than job involvement (Hallberg & Schaufeli, 2006). With regard to dedication, job resources, such as control over one's duties and decision-making abilities lead to increased dedication (Bakker et al., 2003a). Further, the job resources of feedback and coaching lead to increased levels of engagement (Bakker et al., 2003a). In terms of engagement, job resources are singularly responsible and mitigate turnover (Bakker et al., 2003a). Indeed, job resources increase the belief in one's self-efficacy leading to engagement (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007a). Yet, lack of job resources lead to cynicism, a component of burnout (Bakker et al., 2005). Significantly, pessimism decreased job resources leading to decreased performance and decreased organization success (Bakker et al., 2006). Finally, job resources improve levels of engagement, which in turn improve levels of performance (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009a). In fact, higher levels of performance indicate a possible relationship to increased organizational financial success (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009a). The increased productivity derived from engaged employees clearly has a positive effect on an organization's financial success.

Moreover, employees' personal resources enable them to overcome stress and improve their emotional state, actually altering their perceptions of the workplace and protecting them from exhaustion (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007a). In fact, individuals' personal resources impact their personality attributes (i.e., building confidence levels)

and improve motivation and performance (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007a). Additionally, job resources increase individuals' personal resources (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007a). Employees who enjoy high levels of job resources and personal resources are engaged employees (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007a). Resources are so effective in improving employees' resiliency to job demands that they increase an organization's likelihood of success (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007a). Notably, job resources reduce cynicism more than exhaustion, while autonomy fails to significantly reduce the effects of workload toward either cynicism or exhaustion (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007b). Moreover, engaged employees improve the overall organizational environment and lead to improved customer service, retention, and approval (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007b). As noted above, extroverted employees are more likely to be engaged, which may explain the improvement in those organizational environments in which many engaged employees work.

Interestingly, personal resources are classified in three ways. With regard to the three categories of personal resources (efficacy, esteem, and optimism), personal resources are not effective in mitigating the effects of job demands on exhaustion (Bakker et al., 2006). Yet, self-efficacy, while contributing to engagement, does not contribute to burnout in cases where employees report low levels of self-efficacy (Bresó, Schaufeli, & Salanova, 2011). Conversely, personal resources are somewhat effective in fostering job resources and engagement, implying that job resources build personal resources (Bakker et al., 2006). Finally, self-efficacy is effective in increasing employees' well-being, possibly creating a cycle where increased job resources mitigate

the effects of job demands, leading to increased levels of engagement, and in turn leading to increased sense of self-efficacy (Bakker et al., 2006; Llorens et al., 2007). Overall, job resources contribute significantly to employees' engagement and motivation, as well as job commitment, and mediate job demands (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, & Taris, 2008). Indeed, according to research, job resources and personal resources are reciprocal over time with regard to engagement (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009b). Job resources and job demands have a profound effect on employees and organizations, such that organizations that do not actively try to improve both areas may be setting themselves up for failure.

Work/home interference. When individuals are not able to meet the needs of both work and their personal lives, they may suffer more stress. A work/life balance is a concern for most men and women (Montgomery, Peeters, Schaufeli, & Den Ouden, 2003). Work-home interference refers to the imbalance of demands associated with these two conflicting roles (Montgomery et al., 2003; Peeters, Montgomery, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2005). Individuals' demands at home result in an overall increase in work demand, thus increasing an individual's stress (Montgomery et al., 2003; Peeters et al., 2005). Like work demands, home demands fall into three categories of emotional, quantitative, and psychological (Peeters et al., 2005). At the same time, high levels of home resources contribute to overall work resources increasing an individual's level of engagement (Montgomery et al., 2003; Peeters et al., 2005). Conversely, high levels of work demands lead to decreased resiliency and increased burnout at work (Montgomery et al., 2003; Peeters et al., 2005). In fact, workplace programs designed to facilitate a

work/life balance do not significantly reduce the work-home interference (Montgomery et al., 2003). This finding is an unexpected result of work/life balance programs.

While research shows that work and home demands fight over the same limited resources of an individual, it has also shown that involvement in both roles of work and home increases an individual's repertoire of resources, allowing the individual to better adapt and grow in both realms (Montgomery et al., 2003). In other words, each separate demand either positively or negatively contributes to the other (Montgomery et al., 2003; Peeters et al., 2005). High levels of work and home demands lead to burnout, and high levels of work and life resources lead to engagement (Montgomery et al., 2003). Even in one's personal life, job resources are invaluable to his/her emotional and physical well-being.

Interestingly, men and women handle work-home interference differently (Peeters et al., 2005). For women, work demands that interfere with home demands cause a higher rate of burnout (Peeters et al., 2005). For men, however, home demands that interfere with work demands cause a higher rate of burnout (Peeters et al., 2005). At the same time, spousal crossover is noted wherein burnout in one spouse increases the other spouse's level of burnout, while one spouse's engagement increases the other spouse's level of engagement (Bakker et al., 2005). These differences are consistent with more traditional gender roles wherein women take care of the home, and men work.

With regard to home demands, they cause similar results as work demands. Specifically, significant amounts of home demands (mental home demands and emotional home demands) lead to the exhaustion and cynicism components of burnout,

while mental home demands are responsible for cynicism, alone (Bakker et al., 2005). Yet, surprisingly, home resources (like personal resources) are not associated with either burnout or engagement (Bakker et al., 2005). It appears that personal and home resources do not prevent burnout alone but rather add to work resources positively.

Ways of improving engagement. Understanding how job demands and job resources affect engagement and burnout is crucial for developing ways to improve both areas. Research shows that certain actions taken by organizations may help to improve employees' levels of engagement (Shimazu & Schaufeli, 2009b). First, feedback in the form of employee evaluations from supervisors and human resources proves to be a valuable tool in improving engagement (Shimazu & Schaufeli, 2009b). Employees feel more connection with their jobs when they receive support and feedback about their performance, including opportunities for training and delineation of goals, thus leading to higher levels of engagement (Shimazu & Schaufeli, 2009b). Second, providing career development opportunities and redefining the job itself also increase engagement (Shimazu & Schaufeli, 2009b). Career development and redefining an employees' job challenge the employee, increasing the employee's skill set, thus increasing the employee's job resources (Shimazu & Schaufeli, 2009b). Third, leadership skills are effective in increasing the levels of engagement in employees (Shimazu & Schaufeli, 2009b). Engagement proves to be contagious (engaged employees increased the engagement level of otherwise unengaged employees), and leadership skills provide motivation, support, feedback, and mentoring for employees (Shimazu & Schaufeli, 2009b). Fourth, training programs designed to increase employees' skills and confidence

increase their self-efficacy, thus making it likely to improve engagement (Shimazu & Schaufeli, 2009b). Self-efficacy initiates the cycle of improved engagement where self-efficacy increases engagement, which in turn increases performance, which in turn increases self-efficacy (Shimazu & Schaufeli, 2009b). Fifth and finally, opportunities for upward mobility within the organization increase levels of engagement (Shimazu & Schaufeli, 2009b). The ability to ascend the corporate ladder enhances employees' job resources, a key component to engagement (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Although not entirely specific about concrete actions employers may take to increase engagement, the guidelines above should be a solid starting point for any organization interested in making improvements.

The survey instrument. The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale is the measurement tool for assessing engagement and identifying job resources and job demands. Overall, the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale is effective across races and countries and is a better model than a three-factor approach (as attempted by Sonnentag (2003). In an attempt to further reduce the number of questions on the survey tool, Schaufeli, Bakker, and Salanova (2006) used the two burnout dimensions of exhaustion and cynicism against four engagement dimensions of vigor, dedication, absorption, and professional efficacy to create a revised engagement scale better fitting the data. The authors then tested the new scale in order to address variances in age, gender, and profession (Schaufeli et al., 2006a). Results show that no significant differences are related to age or gender, but that rates of burnout are higher (and rates of engagement are lower) in blue collar workers than in white collar workers (Schaufeli et al., 2006a). This

difference may be a result of lowered job resources (as an indicator of engagement) in such positions (Schaufeli et al., 2006a). As with the longer version, the shorter version produces a negative correlation between burnout and engagement (Schaufeli et al., 2006a). The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale has been tested repeatedly and is consistently reliable and valid.

The addition of self-efficacy happened in later versions of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale. Interestingly, professional efficacy was originally considered to be a dimension of burnout (Schaufeli et al., 2006a). However, Schaufeli et al. (2006a) found that high levels of professional efficacy actually contribute to engagement in a more reliable manner. Thus, the authors, in later versions of their engagement scale, included professional efficacy in the engagement dimensions (Schaufeli et al., 2006a). A shorter survey may increase the likelihood that individuals will complete it, thereby proving more valuable to researchers attempting to reach a large sample size.

Work Engagement

Engagement

Like transformational leadership, the current literature on employee engagement supports and validates the original theorists' findings with only minimal modifications and updates. Also like transformational leadership, employee engagement is relevant in the nonprofit sector, as nonprofit organizations struggle with funding, and lowering turnover rates and improving productivity are critical to their success. To create a successful organizational culture, organizations must include employees in decision-making at every level to create engagement and promote involvement in bettering

systems and processes (Raines, 2011). More specifically, high levels of employee control and involvement in their jobs lead to high levels of engagement (Raines, 2011). Organizations can increase employee engagement when they create an environment where employees feel involved and that include employees in decisions while providing an atmosphere of communication with support and feedback (Raines, 2011). These trademarks of engagement are very similar to those of transformational leadership. Thus, transformational leadership is expected to strongly mediate employee engagement and improve working conditions in nonprofit organizations as well as their chances for success. Babcock-Roberson and Strickland (2010) looked at charismatic leadership, among other things, as it relates to employee engagement and found that it is positively related to employee engagement. This statement suggests that transformational leadership and employee engagement will also be positively related, as some researchers consider charismatic leadership to be similar to transformational leadership in terms of employee inspiration and motivation. Moreover, organizational trust is essential to employee engagement and may be the most influencing factor in engagement, and the two factors are so reciprocal that they create an upward spiral outcome (Ali Chughtai & Finian, 2008). Employees, as well as donors, the general public, and recipients, expect nonprofit organizations to act ethically. Building and proving that trust must be a central concern for nonprofit organizations. Trust and communication are especially important during organizational change to maintain engagement and thwart cynicism (Watt & Piotrowski, 2008). Trust, too, is essential to nonprofit organizations to effect change in a positive

manner. Additionally, these findings are all consistent with the original theorists' assertions.

However, as transformational leadership is a more established and accepted theory, engagement theory is still somewhat evolving, especially with regard to the definition of engagement. Most researchers agree upon certain conceptual components of engagement. Christian, Garza, and Slaughter (2011) stated that high levels of engagement lead to higher levels of performance, suggesting a psychological involvement in the task being performed. Employee engagement varies from other organizational theories, as it is narrowly related to performance and workplace self-efficacy (Christian et al., 2011). For nonprofit organizations struggling with decreased donations in a difficult economy, increased performance may be a single deciding factor in their success. Additionally, researchers generally conclude that engagement consists of energy, job satisfaction, and commitment, among other things. However, Gruman and Saks (2011) stated that employee engagement is both a state and a behavior. Specifically, the state of engagement leads to behaviors of engagement, which then leads to increased levels of performance (Gruman & Saks, 2011). Yet, it must be noted that engagement is not the same as workaholism. Workaholism is defined as excessive and compulsive work practices (Sonnentag, Mojza, Binnewies, & Scholl, 2008). Engaged employees are not subject to the same health risks, absenteeism, and turnover intentions as burned out employees or workaholics. Thus, nonprofit organizations must ensure that they do everything in their power to create an atmosphere where employees are engaged to improve performance, decrease turnover, and make the most of scarce resources.

Another study helped further describe engagement. Thiagarajan and Renugadevi (2011) defined engagement as an employee's feelings of attachment to his/her work physically, emotionally, and intellectually. The authors elaborated that engagement exists when management cares about the well-being of the employee; when the employee is challenged in his/her job; when employees have control to make decisions; when the satisfaction of the customers is important to the organization; when advancement opportunities exist for the employee; when the organization's reputation is strong as a fair employer; when team members work well together; when employees have adequate job resources; when management listens to employees; and when management provides open communication and suggests that leaders implement such an environment through clear communication, leading by example, individual connections, and a collaborative approach to employees (Thiagarajan & Renugadevi, 2011). While it may appear to be a tall order to fill, nonprofit organizations must provide these types of employment opportunities and characteristics if they are to attract and retain quality talent. It is especially true for nonprofit organizations that cannot compete monetarily with private sector salaries. Indeed, to promote engagement, managers who act fairly and communicate honestly, as well as provide support to employees, are more successful at improving engagement than managers who do not (Kowske et al., 2009). Leaders in nonprofit organizations must be vigilant in practicing fair treatment and providing honest communication as well as support, even when they, themselves, are very busy. Additionally, virtuous employees are more engaged, are more satisfied in their jobs, and suffer less stress than nonvirtuous employees (Burke & Koyuncu, 2010). Virtue leading

to job satisfaction is particularly true with regard to women (Burke & Koyuncu, 2010). Finally, those employees who work in organizations that are considered ethical, legal, and socially responsible are more likely to have higher levels of engagement than employees who work in unethical organizations (Lin, 2010). Nonprofit organizations are expected to act ethically and virtuously. Employees attracted to nonprofit organizations are thus likely to act ethically and virtuously themselves, potentially creating an environment congruent with engagement.

Engagement may be enhanced in several ways. First, individuals are more engaged when the organization and the employee enter into a performance agreement in which the employee's functions are clearly outlined and open to negotiation (Gruman & Saks, 2011). Next, engagement facilitation is defined wherein coaches, mentors, training, and other supporting elements are specified (Gruman & Saks, 2011). The final step involves feedback and appraisal (Gruman & Saks, 2011). When these elements are implemented, employees become more engaged, and performance improves (Gruman & Saks, 2011). Struggling nonprofit organizations may find it difficult to make the time and free the manpower to implement such strategies, yet the increased productivity demands that they find a means of providing the support and feedback employees need. Additionally, flexibility in one's job is an important factor in contributing to employee engagement (Pitt-Catsouphes & Matz-Costa, 2008; Richman et al., 2008). Flexibility is more important with workers aged 45 and over, as employees anticipate remaining in the workforce longer than previous generations (Pitt-Catsouphes & Matz-Costa, 2008). While nonprofit organizations may require employees to perform certain duties on a

regular basis to meet demands, they may still provide employees with the flexibility in how these duties are conducted.

Other similarities in the current literature to the original model exist. Specifically, engaged employees are more likely to be passionate about their work (Sharma & Anupama, 2010), to be dedicated to the organization (Demerouti, Mostert, & Bakker, 2010), to remain at the organization (decreased turnover; de Lange et al., 2008; Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008; Kowske et al., 2009; Richman et al., 2008; van Schalkwyk et al., 2010), and to perform better, all of which have a positive impact on an organization's financial success (Swaminathan & Rajasekaran, 2010). Indeed, passion may be what draws employees to nonprofit organizations. Dedication, decreased turnover, and improved performance that positively impacts financial success is simply too essential for nonprofit organizations to dismiss. Moreover, employee engagement can literally mean the difference between organizational success or failure (Bhatnagar & Biswas, 2010). However, when conditions occur to derail an individual's success in his/her job performance, engagement suffers (Wefald & Downey, 2009), suggesting it may be more fragile and needs time to recover from disturbances or ebbs and flows. Indeed, disengaged employees sabotage organizations' financial success (Endres & Mancheno-Smoak, 2008). Nonprofit organizations cannot afford to ignore the positive effects of employee engagement on both working conditions and financial success.

A review of the current literature also found that the elements of vigor, dedication, and absorption are important in studying engagement. Vigor and dedication are considered to be the core dimensions of engagement, leading to absorption (Mostert

& Rathbone, 2007). While briefly mentioned in the original theory of work engagement, absorption is considered to be akin to *flow* yet separate from it. However, more recent research suggests that flow, a heightened psychological state wherein individuals are completely engrossed in their work, may be considered a measure of absorption, intrinsic motivation, and job satisfaction (Burke, 2010; Mostert & Rathbone, 2007). More fully, flow is described as possessing the balance of skills necessary to accomplish the task without suffering from too much stress or becoming too bored, being completely absorbed in the task, and inspired by the actual task (Steele & Fullagar, 2009). Indeed, employees who are considered to have more flow also experience increased self-efficacy, considered themselves to have done a better job, and experience the three factors of engagement of vigor, dedication, and absorption (Burke, 2010). With increased efficacy, performance, and dedication, nonprofit organizations cannot ignore the benefits of flow and engagement to their financial success. Additionally, like engagement, flow is associated with decreased physical and psychological work-related health risks (Burke, 2010). In order to increase workplace flow, organizations are advised to provide feedback, clearly communicate the organizational mission, goals, and job duties, offer training, extend employees job control and decision-making abilities, and remove distractions so that employees can accomplish their tasks (Burke, 2010). Although clarifying goals, providing feedback, and supporting employees are important concepts for any organization, these guidelines are essential for nonprofit organizations who want to make the most of scarce resources.

While seemingly similar, engagement also differs from job satisfaction. Job satisfaction results from an individual's perception that his/her job is fulfilling in some way (Wefald & Downey, 2009). Job satisfaction exists when one perceives his/her job to fit with his/her expectations and values (Hermsen & Rosser, 2008). Engagement goes beyond job satisfaction and exists when employees feel motivated, absorbed, and dedicated to their jobs (Wefald & Downey, 2009). Engaged employees put more of themselves into their position and duties (Hermsen & Rosser, 2008), again similar to the experience of transformational leadership. These distinctions are important for both researchers and managers alike when measuring outcomes. Satisfied employees may not exhibit the same heightened performance as engaged employees. Nonprofit organizations cannot afford to confuse the two concepts and must focus on creating engaged employees.

One notable addition throughout the review of the current literature on the topic of engagement is occupational citizen behaviors. Occupational citizen behaviors, or those behaviors of going above and beyond what is required in the workplace, are consistently seen throughout the literature on engagement (Halbesleben, Harvey, & Bolino, 2009). In fact, occupational citizen behaviors exists as a subject all its own in the literature of occupational psychology. Similarly, organizational justice is defined as distributive (fairness of rewards), procedural (fairness of policies and procedures), and interactional (fairness in individual treatment) justice in the workplace (Moliner, Martínez-Tur, Ramos, Peiró, & Cropanzano, 2008). The absence of occupational justice contributes to a decline in occupational citizen behaviors (Moliner et al., 2008). Although separate and

distinct theories on their own, both occupational citizen behaviors and organizational justice contribute to engagement through a feeling a well-being (Moliner et al., 2008). Further, as discussed above, ethical organizations are more likely to enjoy engaged employees than unethical organizations (Lin, 2010). Moreover, both occupational citizenship behaviors (going above and beyond the call of duty) and organizational justice (fair treatment) contribute to an ethical workplace. As discussed above, nonprofit organizations are expected to be ethical. As such, nonprofit organizations appear to be natural environments for occupational citizen behaviors and occupational justice.

Training/education. Engagement is also important with regard to training and education. Due to high demands for creativity and innovation, job training has created a multi-billion dollar industry (Noe, Tews, & McConnell Dachner, 2010). To make the most of dollars spent on training, research acknowledges that students are as important as the trainers for true learning to take place (Noe et al., 2010). The student/teacher relationship is similar to the fact that followers are as integral a component of leadership as the leaders. As with work engagement, learners who have more control over their lesson content and pace are more engaged and perform better than those students who do not have such control (Noe et al., 2010). Likewise, as with work engagement, learning engagement is based on a supportive environment that encourages open communication and questions (Noe et al., 2010). Finally, engaged individuals, especially those who enjoy both autonomy (Richman et al., 2008) and role clarity, perform better in training and learning environments than their non-engaged counterparts (Steele & Fullagar, 2009). Interestingly, researchers found that engagement factors and constructs are the same in

the classroom and in the workplace (Wefald & Downey, 2009). Training requires effort and time—time away from work duties and time needed to master the new skills learned in training—both of which are valuable resources in nonprofit organizations. To make the most of training, nonprofit organizations must ensure the students are engaged.

Job Demands-Resources

Engagement is further reliant upon the job demands-resources model. Job demands are literally the physical and emotional demands required of the job functions, while job resources are those elements that employees have at their disposal to ease the ill effects of the job demands (de Lange et al., 2008; Gruman & Saks, 2011; Klusmann, Kunter, Trautwein, Lüdtke, & Baumert, 2008; Mostert & Rathbone, 2007). Job demands are often inherently stressful, or they may become stressful over time as more and more effort is required to meet them (Klusmann et al., 2008; Nahrgang, Morgeson, & Hofmann, 2011). However, when employees feel that their job demands are challenging and a good fit for their skills and expectations, they are more likely to be engaged (Hermsen & Rosser, 2008). Nonprofit organizations should attempt to match employee skills with job duties to ensure a good fit to minimize the effects of job demands to the extent possible. Job demands without adequate job resources often lead to stress, burnout, and health-related problems (Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti, & Xanthopoulou, 2007; Nahrgang et al., 2011). Moreover, high levels of job demands without sufficient *detachment* (the ability to stop thinking about work while away from work) lead to lower levels of engagement and health issues over time (Sonnentag, Binnewies, & Mojza, 2010; Sonnentag et al., 2008). Indeed, time away from work is important to relieving the effects

of job demands, but only when employees are able to fully disengage and detach from their jobs and recover (Kühnel, Sonnentag, & Westman, 2009). In fact, the ability to recover during time away from work leads to increased job resources (Kühnel et al., 2009; Mostert & Rathbone, 2007; Sonnentag et al., 2008). Conversely, when individuals are not able to detach and recover during non-work hours, they are more likely to exhibit health issues related to stress (Kowske et al., 2009; Mostert & Rathbone, 2007). Nonprofit organizations must ensure that employees have adequate resources to prevent job demands from negatively impacting them and their performance as well as encourage employees to spend time away from work pursuing their own interests. Failure to do so may cause employees' productivity to decline. Additionally, workplace stress is related to bullying. Rodríguez-Muñoz, Baillien, De Witte, Moreno-Jiménez, and Pastor (2009) found that employees suffering from stress and burnout are more likely to be subjects of bullying behavior in the workplace, which compounds the effects of stress and burnout. Engaged employees who display satisfaction with their jobs are less likely to be targets for workplace bullies and instead are considered *one of us* and part of the organizational team (Rodríguez-Muñoz et al., 2009). It is those employees that appear to set themselves apart from the *herd* through their job dissatisfaction and stress that are more attractive to bullies (Rodríguez-Muñoz et al., 2009). The issue of bullying has made headlines in recent years and is being taken very seriously by the media, schools, politicians, and parents. Yet this subject must not be overlooked in the workplace and particularly not in nonprofit organizations. Nonprofit organizations are expected to conduct operations ethically, which does not include bullying. Likewise, bullying may signal that the victim

is not engaged and that the organization is missing the opportunity to encourage engagement among employees, all of which may be detrimental to success of the nonprofit organization.

The other arm of the job demands-resources model is job resources. Job resources are those

> . . . physical, psychological, social, or organizational features of a job that are functional in that they help achieve work goals, reduce job demands, and stimulate personal growth, learning, and development. Job resources, which initiate a motivational process, can come from the organization (e.g., pay, career opportunities, and job security), interpersonal and social relations (supervisor and co-worker support, and team climate), the organization of work (e.g., role clarity and participation in decision making), and from the task itself (e.g., skill variety, task identity, task significance, automonmy (sic), and performance feedback). (Gruman & Saks, 2011, p. 126)

Specifically, when autonomy, two-way communication with a manager, and potential for training and advancement (job resources) exist, work engagement levels are higher during week-long periods (Bakker & Bal, 2010). The more job resources an employee has, the better he/she may handle job demands (Klusmann et al., 2008). Although nonprofit organizations may be stretched in terms of time and manpower, they must ensure that employees have adequate job resources to balance demands to prevent burnout and to maintain high levels of engagement. Job resources are particularly important both intrinsically and extrinsically motivating. Intrinsically, job resources serve

as the catalyst for workplace development (Bakker & Bal, 2010). For example, feedback allows individuals to focus on their deficiencies in order to overcome them as well as acknowledging their positive performances (Bakker & Bal, 2010). They also serve as extrinsically motivating through rewards for employees reaching their goals (Bakker & Bal, 2010). Struggling nonprofit organizations may not be financially able to provide extrinsic rewards, in which case they should focus more heavily on intrinsic rewards. Finally, Bakker and Bal's (2010) study supported the notion of an upward spiral of workplace engagement in which the more one becomes engaged, the more work resources the employee has, and the more resources the employee has, the more engaged he/she becomes. Lack of job resources is a primary cause of turnover (de Lange et al., 2008; Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008). Again, nonprofit organizations cannot afford high turnover rates and must provide job resources to compensate for job demands.

One researcher suggested a possible omission in the job demands-resources model. Van den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, De Witte, and Lens (2008) suggested that a missing component in the jobs demands-resources model is that of self-determination theory in which an individual's psychological needs of autonomy, belongingness, and competence, along with job resources, are necessary for employee engagement. In this context, autonomy means an individual's acceptance of the motivations and consequences of his/her behavior/conduct (Van den Broeck et al., 2008). Belongingness is defined as being part of a team and the building of workplace relationships (Van den Broeck et al., 2008). Finally, competence is an individual's ability to successfully and skillfully complete his/her tasks, which is similar, but not the same, as self-efficacy (Van

den Broeck et al., 2008). Notably, it is not the strength of the need that is a determining factor, but the personal perceptions of satisfaction of needs that is of critical importance in an individual's performance and motivation (Van den Broeck et al., 2008). During the literature review on employee engagement, no other studies on self-determination theory were found in the current literature. Nonetheless, nonprofit organizations should recognize employees' psychological needs. Employees often take salary cuts when choosing to work in nonprofit organizations versus the private sector. Therefore, intrinsic rewards are necessary to balance the loss.

Further, job demands/job resources are instrumental in occupational safety. When job demands are high without correspondingly high job rewards, organizations experience more on-the-job safety violations due to strain and stress (Hansez & Chmiel, 2010). Meanwhile, when high levels of job resources are available, the perception of management's commitment to occupational safety increases (Hansez & Chmiel, 2010). Safety perception is a useful, but unexpected, outcome of employee engagement. Nonprofit organizations must take great care to avoid occupational accidents and injuries in order to reduce costs in insurance premiums, absenteeism, and lawsuits. They should ensure job resources balance job demands to the extent possible.

Home-work interference. Home-work interference is part of the job demands-resources theory. Simply stated, job demands without proper job resources lead to depletion of energy and stress, in which case, employees take that stress home causing it to interfere with their home lives, possibly leading to health issues (Mostert & Rathbone, 2007; Sonnentag et al., 2008; Van Ruysseveldt, Proost, & Verboon, 2011). Yet, studies

show that job control and job variety as well as learning opportunities reduce these ill effects and increase engagement (Van Ruysseveldt et al., 2011). In fact, both formal and informal learning opportunities are critical to reducing stress related to work demands and increasing performance and self-efficacy (Van Ruysseveldt et al., 2011). Additionally, work-life benefitting organizational policies increase employee engagement (Richman et al., 2008). This last statement is in contrast to what the original theorists' found. They stated that work-life benefitting organizational policies do not significantly affect employee engagement either positively or negatively. However, nonprofit organizations must be mindful of the tendency of employees to carry their stress outside the workplace and ensure that they are making every effort to reduce stress by providing job resources to offset job demands.

Further, home-work balance is a strong indicator of engagement. While workplace stress increases stress at home, stressors at home have a negative impact on an individual's work life, both of which complicate the other (Kanwar, Singh, & Kodwani, 2009; Mostert & Rathbone, 2007; Shankar & Bhatnagar, 2010). An emphasis on family and home (rather than work) life leads to higher levels of happiness and satisfaction and lower levels of stress (Kanwar et al., 2009; Singh, 2010). Conflict between the two very different but equally important life compartments leads to unhappiness in both, and harmony between the two compartments enriches both (Kanwar et al., 2009; Shankar & Bhatnagar, 2010). Each compartment enriches or conflicts with the other equally (Kanwar et al., 2009; Shankar & Bhatnagar, 2010). However, some disagreement in the literature exists as to whose responsibility a home-work balance falls—the organization

or the individual—with research to support both contentions (Shankar & Bhatnagar, 2010). Yet, recent literature indicates that the answer is becoming clear that it is the employer's duty to provide the programs and incentives that would encourage employee engagement and is the only option in this increasingly complex world and market (Richman et al., 2008; Shankar & Bhatnagar, 2010). Nonprofit organizations should encourage employees to value their home lives. It will pay off through employee engagement. Interestingly, however, one study pointed to a possible negative outcome of engagement with regard to home life. This study suggests that individuals who enjoy high levels of work engagement expend more personal resources that lead to less involvement at home (Halbesleben et al., 2009). Indeed, individuals are more likely to neglect their home life for work than the reverse (Halbesleben et al., 2009). Reasons for this disparity may be that individuals rationalize putting work above home/family because doing so may lead to increased monetary rewards that may benefit the family (Halbesleben et al., 2009). One possible exception is that of highly conscientious employees who prioritize and strategize to find ways to meet the demands of both work and home lives and prevent interference (Halbesleben et al., 2009). Although nonprofit organizations may struggle to secure funding, they must recognize that employees also have commitments outside of the workplace, and they should support those commitments to enhance employee engagement and because it is the ethical thing to do.

Engagement, or lack thereof, also has an effect on home relationships. Interestingly, engagement is transferred from the man to the woman when women are highly empathic, yet the reverse is only true when both parties are highly empathic—even

highly empathic men do not benefit from a woman's engagement if the woman is not also highly empathic (Bakker, Demerouti, Shimazu, Shimada, & Kawakami, 2011). Engagement is also said to be contagious. Crossover occurs when an individual's feelings are transferred from one spouse to another (Bakker & Xanthopoulou, 2009). In a close relationship like marriage, transference of feelings is not a surprising finding. Overall, engaged employees appear to be happier in all aspects of their lives, in which case nonprofit organizations, in their mission to effect positive social change, must support engagement and take advantage of every means they have of doing so.

Burnout. Many studies confirmed that burnout is not the opposite of engagement, as originally posited, but is considered to be the conceptual opposite with a negative relationship. Both burnout and engagement are best approached from different points of view (Andreassen, Ursin, & Eriksen, 2007; Gan, Yang, Zhou, Zhang, 2007; Klusmann et al., 2008). Burnout is characterized by exhaustion, cynicism, and decreased self-efficacy, with exhaustion and cynicism leading to decreased self-efficacy, while engagement is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption (Andreassen et al., 2007; Gan et al., 2007; Howard, 2008; Klusmann et al., 2008). Some factors leading to burnout include hours worked, negative behavior in the workplace, job insecurity, lack of control, insufficient staffing, role ambiguity, and lack of support (Howard, 2008). These factors are in line with job demands. Additionally, engagement is further dependent on job demands and job resources, with high job demands decreasing engagement and high job resources increasing engagement (Bakker et al., 2007; Howard, 2008; Klusmann et al., 2008). In fact, high levels of job demands with low levels of job resources lead to burnout

(Bakker et al., 2007; Mostert & Rathbone, 2007; Rothmann & Joubert, 2007). Key job demands include job duties, workplace stress, and ambiguity of job duties. Key job resources include job control, decision-making ability, and job independence (Rothmann & Joubert, 2007). Nonprofit organizations must protect themselves from burned out employees, who suffer from health issues and exhibit higher absenteeism and turnover rates, all of which is very costly to organizations. Interestingly, burnout is observed in areas of life outside work, such as relationships (Zhang, Gan, & Cham, 2007). Moreover, engagement affects an individual's personal life in terms of health benefits (Bakker et al., 2007). Again, the findings in the current literature are consistent with the original model of burnout.

Although the theory of workplace engagement has been a hot topic in the recent literature, engagement is actually scarcely found in practice (Attridge, 2009). In fact, this lack of engagement has a profound negative effect on productivity (Attridge, 2009). While Attridge (2009) found that upper management and executives are more engaged than rank and file employees, they are also found to be engaged with their profession rather than the organization in which they work. These statistics are alarming and present a clear need for action in the workplace, especially with regard to nonprofit organizations with scarce resources that depend on employee performance. Engaged employees increase a company's bottom line (Attridge, 2009). As such, nonprofit organizations must realize that their very survival depends on eliminating burnout and encouraging employee engagement by any means at their disposal.

Locus of Control

Both transformational leadership and employee engagement theories indicate that an employee's level of control is critical for both to be realized. This study attempts to further highlight the importance of job control through the application of a third variable—locus of control. Locus of control was first introduced by Julian Rotter in 1954 (Tillman et al., 2010). Locus of control is a theory that states that individuals have either an internal locus of control or an external locus of control (Srivastava, 2009). An internal locus of control is the perception that the individual controls his/her own actions and consequences, while external locus of control is the perception that others (supervisors, managers, the organization, the universe) have control over the individual, and outcomes are dependent upon those with control (Tillman et al., 2010). Internal job control positively influences job demands and allows individuals to better handle stressful workplace scenarios without negative health consequences (Karimi & Alipour, 2011). Employees with internal job control are likely to be proactive in finding practical solutions to conflict, while employees with external job control tend to avoid conflict (Qiang, Bowling, & Eschleman, 2010; Taylor, 2010; Treven, 2010). Interestingly, some research suggests that individuals are more comfortable in job situations where the locus of control to which they most identify is similar to that of the actual work environment (Byrne, 2011). However, other research suggests that the environment is irrelevant for those with an external locus of control. It indicates that individuals with external locus of control are generally prone to stress and depression (Mohapatra & Gupta, 2010; Srivastava, 2009) and may exhibit dysfunctional behaviors (Paino et al., 2011).

Additionally, managers with internal locus of control are more supportive and involved than managers with external locus of control (Byrne, 2011). In fact, managers with internal locus of control share many characteristics of transformational leaders including collaboration, support, participatory involvement, and communication (Mohapatra & Gupta, 2010). Internal locus of control is also linked to a decrease in turnover rates (Lewin & Sager, 2010; Ng & Butts, 2009; Tillman et al., 2010) and higher performance, because those with internal locus of control take responsibility for their own actions (McKnight & Wright, 2011; Paino et al., 2011). These findings are similar to the increased performance resulting from employee engagement and transformational leadership, suggesting that leaders with internal locus of control may be likely to be transformational leadership, and employees with internal locus of control may be more engaged. Moreover, employees with an internal locus of control generally enjoy more job satisfaction than those with external locus of control, as those with an internal locus of control have less role conflict, ambiguity, and overload, all of which contribute to stress (Singh & Ashish, 2011; Tillman et al., 2010). Further, employees with an internal locus of control are largely social and considerate as well as skilled at influencing others more than those with an external locus of control, as one's locus of control may act as a determining factor in successful personal and workplace relationships (Qiang et al., 2010). Employees with an internal locus of control may even be considered empowered with the increased job resources of control that mitigate the harmful effects of job demands (Jha & Nair, 2008; Meier, Semmer, Elfering, & Jacobshagen, 2008; Wilson, 2011), and those with an external locus of control are more likely to develop burnout

(Alarcon, Eschleman, & Bowling, 2009; De Hoogh & Hartog, 2009; Meier et al., 2008). This strong association between internal locus of control and employee empowerment suggests that locus of control is, indeed, a necessary component of transformational leadership and employee engagement, both of which focus on the positive outcomes of empowerment.

Similar Studies

Two previous studies examined both transformational leadership and employee engagement. First, Tims, Bakker, and Xanthopoulou (2010) measured transformational leadership's effect on employee engagement on a day-to-day basis in two Netherlands' organizations, where most employees worked as consultants. In doing so, they hypothesized that transformational leadership would have a positive effect on employee engagement through improved job resources due to motivation and stimulation, that transformational leadership would improve self-efficacy, and that a leader's optimism would have a contagious effect on followers (Tims et al., 2010). In doing so, the authors used a shortened version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (12 items), a shortened version of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (9 items) in order to measure the traits of both leader and follower, a shortened version of Schwartzer and Jerusalem's (1995) scale to measure trait self-efficacy, and a shortened version of the Life Orientation Test—Revised to measure trait optimism (Tims et al., 2010). The authors also added a definition of job resources so that employees could identify the presence or absence of job resources (Tims et al., 2010). Additionally, each employee was told to consider his/her individual supervisor when completing the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

rather than one or two specific leaders (Tims et al., 2010). The authors then collected data through daily dairy survey responses by the participants (Tims et al., 2010). In this way, the authors were able to measure transformational leadership, employee engagement, self-efficacy, and optimism on a day-to-day basis over the course of a week (five business days; Tims et al., 2010). Transformational leadership's positive effect on employee engagement on a day-to-day basis and optimism's mediating effect on transformational leadership and employee engagement on a day-to-day basis were supported, but self-efficacy's mediating effect on transformational leadership and employee engagement on a day-to-day basis was not supported (Tims et al., 2010).

Second, Babcock-Roberson and Strickland (2010) measured the mediating effect of transformational leadership on organizational citizenship behaviors through employee engagement on undergraduate psychology students from a large university. They hypothesized that transformational leadership would positively affect employee engagement; that employee engagement and organizational citizenship behaviors would be positively related; that transformational leadership and organizational citizenship behaviors would be positively related; and that employee engagement would mediate the effect between transformational leadership and organizational citizenship behaviors (Babcock-Roberson & Strickland, 2010). The authors used a shortened version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire to measure only the charismatic qualities of transformational leadership, the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale to measure employee engagement, and the Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale to measure

organizational citizenship behaviors (Babcock-Roberson & Strickland, 2010). All of the authors' hypotheses were supported (Babcock-Roberson & Strickland, 2010).

Current Study

This study focused on transformational leadership's effect on employee engagement and looked at locus of control as a mediator of employee engagement. Hypotheses are (a) transformational leadership positively effects employee engagement; and (b) locus of control has a mediating effect on employee engagement. This study used the full version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire to measure transformational leadership, the full version of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale to measure employee engagement, and the full version of the Work Locus of Control Scale to measure locus of control.

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, developed by Bass (1985), is a 45-question survey using a 5-point Likert scale from 0 (*not at all*) to 4 (*frequently if not always*) that measures transformational leadership and transactional leadership (active, passive, and laisses-faire). For transformational leadership, the survey also measured the qualities of idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. High scores for these characteristics indicated transformational leadership. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire has been used in over 300 studies and is widely held to be valid and reliable (Corona, 2010; Haq et al., 2010; Ismail et al., 2011; Li et al., 2010; Trapero & De Lozada, 2010; Wang & Howell, 2010).

The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale, developed by Schaufeli and Bakker, (2004), is a 17-question survey using a 7-point Likert scale from 0 (*never*) to 6 (*always/every day*). Questions pertain to employees' levels of vigor, dedication, and absorption. All questions are positive in nature. High scores on all questions indicated engagement. The creators of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale conducted cross-cultural, longitudinal, and multisample studies in approximately 100 articles to validate the theory and scale (Bresó et al., 2011; Schaufeli et al., 2009; Shimazu & Schaufeli, 2009; Taris et al., 2010). Likewise, the current literature on the topic of employee engagement acknowledges the instrument's validity and reliability.

Spector (1988) developed the Work Locus of Control Scale, which is a measurement survey used to assess locus of control. He developed this scale as an alternative to Rotter's (1966) Internal-External General Locus of Control Scale. The Work Locus of Control Scale is a 16-question survey using a 6-point Likert scale from 1 (*disagree very much*) to 6 (*agree very much*). Questions pertain to employees' perceptions of their control in various circumstances. All questions are both positive and negative in nature. Reversed scoring was used to measure internal versus external locus of control. Much less research on the Work Locus of Control Scale exists in the literature than the other two survey tools discussed in this study. One study suggested that a three dimensional approach would produce a better fit (Oliver et al., 2006), yet no scale has been proposed to replace the Work Locus of Control Scale, and it has been widely used (Oliver et al., 2006).

The three survey-instruments are self-reported questionnaires. Participants were asked to provide answers, based on their own experiences and perceptions, to the questions on all three questionnaires. Together, the three instruments contained 78 questions. Participants answered the questions through an online survey tool (Survey Monkey).

Conclusion

For the most part, current literature supported the original model of employee engagement. It was also the case of transformational leadership, in which the current literature supported the original model. Both theories appear to be aligned in terms of a positive work environment and attitude towards employees. It is anticipated that using the two models together to study employees in nonprofit organizations and applying the theory of locus of control on employee engagement will help to bridge the gap in the literature in these areas. The theories appeared to complement one another, with transformational leadership accounting for the leader's ownership in the workplace conditions, employee engagement acknowledging that followers require certain intrinsic rewards for enhanced performance and job satisfaction, and locus of control explaining differences between individual levels of engagement. Employees should not merely be ordered to work harder and better, as it may lead to exhaustion, stress, and/or burnout. The dual focus on leaders and followers in this study is a significant contribution to the research in the area of nonprofit organizations and will help bridge the gap in the literature on the study of leadership and followership.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

While some research exists on the topic of both leadership and followership in nonprofit organizations, after an extensive search, only two studies were found that focused on a relationship between transformational leadership and employee engagement in any sector, and neither looked at the relationship with an employee's locus of control as a mediating variable. Given the critical role nonprofit organizations play in contributing to positive social change, this gap is significant. Additionally, this study could lead to a better understanding of the nature of followership and improve performance and efficiency. Therefore, this study examined how transformational leadership affects employee engagement in 30 nonprofit organizations (15 youth services organizations; 10 human service organizations; and five community service organizations) located across the United States using employees' locus of control as a mediating variable. Employees were surveyed using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale, and Work Locus of Control Scale, three self-reporting survey tools measuring transformational leadership, employee engagement, and locus of control, respectively. All responses were completely anonymous. Only general demographic information was collected from the employees. Demographic data included age, gender, ethnicity, length of time employed at the organization, pay scale, and employment category. Data from the surveys were analyzed using multiple regression to detect whether a relationship between transformational leadership and employee engagement exists in this particular organization and whether

locus of control acts as a mediating variable on employee engagement. This study added to the research with regard to leadership and followership in nonprofit organizations. Additionally, if locus of control proves to be a mediating variable for employee engagement, testing for locus of control will serve as another tool employers may use to test and choose employees for a particular position. To that end, this study may contribute to improving leadership and workplace conditions for employees in nonprofit organizations.

This chapter describes the research design used in this study as well as the population and sample. Next, the instrumentation and variables are explained, and an argument for the appropriateness of the methodology is provided. The feasibility and appropriateness of the study is then discussed. The validity and reliability of the three survey tools follow. Finally, an explanation of the informed consent and ethical considerations and a summary section conclude this chapter.

Population and Sample

The population used in this study is more than 1.8 million nonprofit organizations in the United States. The sample consisted of 30 nonprofit organizations from three broad categories of services. The sample specificially consisted of 15 youth services organizations, 10 human service organizations, and five community service organizations located across the United States. The organizations were of varying sizes and are organized for various missions and visions. All organizations made their staff email addresses public record.

The sample size was limited to 300 employee responses. All employees were adults over the age of 18. This sample was chosen for its 501(c)(3) status. The nonprofit organizations participating in this study and serving as the sample may or may not have other locations and branches not participating in the sample.

Employees of 30 nonprofit organizations (15 youth services organizations, 10 foodbanks, and five community service organizations) located across the United States that have made employees' email addresses public record on their websites were used in this study. These organizations were identified using www.Guidestar.org's database. The categories of nonprofit organizations were chosen due to the general cooperative nature of such organizations (and the cooperative nature of the employees in such organizations) to participate in the survey, as well as the size of the nonprofit organizations in terms of number of employees. According to www.Guidestar.org, "GuideStar is the most complete source of information about U.S. charities and other nonprofit organizations there is. Search our database of more than 1.8 million IRS-recognized organizations to find a charity to support, benchmark your own nonprofit's performance, research the sector, and more" (Guidestar, 2013).

This study used a multiple regression to analyze the data. To determine the proper sample size for each, G*Power 3.1.2 (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2008) was used to conduct a power analysis. For multiple regression, the desired sample size was 68 participants (but no more than 300 usable surveys). A power analysis was conducted for a multiple regression with two predictors, a medium effect size (f = .15), an alpha level of

.05, and power established at .80, and the desired sample size was 68 participants (but no more than 300 usable surveys).

For this study, the leaders used for purposes of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire were based on the employees' immediate manager or supervisor. In the case of senior management/executives, it was based on the organization's leadership, in general. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire is a survey tool used to measure leaders from the perspective of the follower rather than assessing leadership style from the perspective of the leader him/herself. Therefore, leaders were chosen based on observed characteristics of others within the organization.

Participants were informed of the intent to conduct research for academic purposes through internal email. Assurances of anonymity were provided to all participants, and the participants were informed that participation is voluntary. They were assured that no one at the organization will see the answers to the questionnaires. Participants were told only the general nature of the study to prevent any biased answers. Participants were given the option of receiving a copy of the results of this study once completed. Participants were shown a consent form upon opening the survey in Survey Monkey. The full content of the email distributed to the participants is attached in Appendix D. Consent was considered given when participants clicked the box to begin the survey. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, consisting of 45 questions, was used to measure transformational leadership (and transactional leadership; dependent variable). The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale was used to measure employee engagement (independent variable), and the Work Locus of Control Scale was used to

measure locus of control (mediating variable). Additionally, basic demographic information was gathered including age, gender, ethnicity, length of time employed at the organization, pay scale, and employment category.

The questionnaires were delivered to the participants via Survey Monkey, an online survey tool. Participants were given 2 months in which to complete the questionnaires. Reminders were sent out via email after 1 week. The survey remained open until the minimum number of surveys were received and remained open until the licensed number of surveys (300) were received. However, after 2 months, surveys were no longer being submitted, the survey was closed, and the data were collected.

Feasibility and Appropriateness

This study was entirely feasible for a number of reasons. First, the organizations and their employees were all readily available by phone and email. Therefore, contact and data collection presented no obstacles. Second, the nonprofit organizations were varied, diverse, and were located throughout the country. The results of this study on the topics of leadership and employee engagement are very relevant to the nonprofit sector. Additionally, locus of control may provide an offshoot for research in both areas of transformational leadership and employee engagement. This study helped bridge that gap and encourage future studies in this area.

With regard to appropriateness, according to Creswell (2009), “if the problem calls for (a) the identification of factors that influence an outcome, (b) the utility of an intervention, or (c) understanding the best predictors of outcomes, then a quantitative approach is best” (p. 18). As a result, a quantitative approach was a more appropriate

strategy than other research methodologies. Additionally, “if a concept or phenomenon needs to be understood because little research has been done on it, then it merits a qualitative approach” (Creswell, 2009, p. 18). This study utilized the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale, and the Work Locus of Control Scale, three survey tools, to quantitatively gather and measure data relating to transformational leadership, employee engagement, and locus of control, respectively, all of which are widely-used measurement tools and appear throughout social science literature. Therefore, it was appropriate for this study to utilize a quantitative approach. Indeed, according to Creswell (2009):

> Characteristics of a qualitative research problem are: (a) the concept is “immature” due to a conspicuous lack of theory and previous research; (b) a notion that the available theory may be inaccurate, inappropriate, incorrect, or biased; (c) a need exists to explore and describe the phenomena and to develop theory; or (d) the nature of the phenomenon may not be suited to quantitative measures. (p. 99)

As previously mentioned, the body of literature on the subjects of transformational leadership, employee engagement, and locus of control are extensive and thorough, and each theory is well-established and accepted. Additionally, this study used three quantitative survey tools to collect the data. Therefore a quantitative approach was appropriate for this study.

Instrumentation

This study used three survey instruments to measure transformational leadership and employee engagement. The first instrument was the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, which measures transformational leadership, the second was the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale, which measures employee engagement, and the third was the Work Locus of Control Scale, which measures locus of control. These three instruments have been thoroughly tested for validation and reliability over the years, and are widely found in the literature.

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire is a 45-question survey using a 5-point Likert scale from 0 (*not at all*) to 4 (*frequently if not always*) that measures transformational leadership and transactional leadership (active, passive, and laisses-faire). For transformational leadership, the survey also measured the qualities of idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. High scores for these characteristics indicated transformational leadership. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire has a recommended Cronbach's Alpha of .85 (Tims et al., 2011). The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire has been used in over 300 studies and is widely held to be valid and reliable (Corona, 2010; Haq et al., 2010; Ismail et al., 2011; Li et al., 2010; Trapero & De Lozada, 2010; Wang & Howell, 2010). Permission to use the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire was granted by Mind Garden, Inc. (www.mindgarden.com) and is attached as Appendix E.

The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale is a 17-question survey using a 7-point Likert scale from 0 (*never*) to 6 (*always/every day*). Questions pertain to employees'

levels of vigor, dedication, and absorption. All questions are positive in nature. High scores on all questions indicated engagement. The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale has a recommended Cronbach's Alpha of .89 (Tims et al., 2011). The creators of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale conducted approximately 100 cross-cultural, longitudinal, and multisample studies to validate the theory and scale (Bresó et al., 2011; Schaufeli et al., 2009; Shimazu & Schaufeli, 2009; Taris et al., 2010). Likewise, the current literature on the topic of employee engagement acknowledged the instrument's validity and reliability. Permission to use the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale was granted by Wilmar B. Schaufeli, PhD (www.schaufeli.com) and is attached as Appendix F.

The Work Locus of Control Scale is a 16-question survey using a 6-point Likert scale from 1 (*disagree very much*) to 6 (*agree very much*). Questions pertain to employees' perceptions of their control in various circumstances. All questions are both positive and negative in nature. Reversed scoring was used to measure internal versus external locus of control. One author suggested "scores of the single-factor structure of the Work Locus of Control Scale was .64; the internal reliabilities of the two-factor structure were .76 for the Internal subscale and .83 for the External subscale" (Oliver et al., 2006, p. 844). Much less research on the Work Locus of Control Scale existed in the literature than the other two survey tools discussed in this study. One study suggested that a three dimensional approach would produce a better fit (Oliver et al., 2006), yet no scale was proposed to replace the Work Locus of Control Scale, and it has been widely used (Oliver et al., 2006). Permission to use the Work Locus of Control Scale was granted by Paul E. Spector, PhD (shell.cas.usf.edu) and is attached as Appendix G.

Reliability and Validity

Cronbach's alpha tests of internal consistency was conducted on the transformational scale of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. Also known as the coefficient alpha, the Cronbach's alpha provides the mean correlation between each pair of items and the number of items in a scale (Brace, Kemp & Snelgar, 2006). Cronbach's alpha coefficients was evaluated using the guidelines suggested by George and Mallery (2003) where > .9 Excellent, > .8 Good, > .7 Acceptable, > .6 Questionable, > .5 Poor, < .5 Unacceptable.

The Survey Tools

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire and the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale were both chosen for their reliability. Both survey tools have been widely used throughout the literature on transformational leadership and employee engagement. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire measures transactional and transformational leadership along six factors: (a) charisma/inspirational; (b) intellectual stimulation; (c) individualized consideration; (d) contingent reward; (e) active management-by-exception; and (f) passive-avoidant leadership (Avolio & Bass, 1999, p. 445). Internal reliability of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire may be determined with Cronbach's alpha. Avolio and Bass (1999) produced reliability ranging from .63 to .92 across all six factors. Aviolio and Bass said that "the intercorrelations among each of the higher order factors also provided further evidence for discriminant validity" (p. 455). Likewise, internal reliability of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale may be determined with Cronbach's alpha. According to Shimazu et al. (2008), "[i]nternal consistency of the

scale was sufficiently high (α=.92) and the test–retest reliability with an interval of two months was .66" (p. 511). However, although widely used, some considered the Work Locus of Control Scale to be insufficient, suggesting locus of control could be more accurately measured with a two or three factor test, rather than a single factor, as proposed by Spector (1988; as cited in Oliver et al., 2006). Oliver et al. (2006) stated that "[t]he Cronbach's alpha for scores of the single-factor structure was .73; the internal reliabilities of the two-factor structure were .71 for the Internal subscale scores and .87 for the External subscale scores" (p. 838). For this study, Cronbach's alpha was used to determine internal reliability of the data, as other tests, such as test-retest, inter-rater or inter-observer, and parallel-forms or alternate-forms, were either not relevant or not feasible.

This study sought to assess whether transformational leadership had an effect on employee engagement and whether locus of control served as a mediating variable on employee engagement in a nonprofit organization. To complete this research, three well-established survey tools to measure transformational leadership, employee engagement, and locus of control were distributed to employees within a nonprofit organization. With regard to criterion-related validity, the three survey tools have been adequately and sufficiently tested and have proven criterion-related validity, demonstrating that they accurately measure transformational leadership, employee engagement, and locus of control. Additionally, given the results of similar studies, this study had construct validity. With regard to external/internal validity, as with construct validity, due to the enormity of the body of work on the subject of transformational leadership and employee

engagement and the similarity of the two from both the leader and follower perspective, this study likely had strong external validity. However, without further testing, internal validity was difficult to sufficiently establish, yet this study provided a useful base from which to start. Finally, with regard to consequential validity, this study looked at only the effects of transformational leadership on employee engagement with a mediating variable of locus of control on employees in a nonprofit organization and did not purport to measure or establish any other claims.

Computer Software

SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) Statistics Student Version 19.0 was the software that was used to analyze data in this study. This program was chosen because of ease of use and functionality. Percentage rates and frequencies were provided for nominal data, and standard deviations and means were provided for interval or ratio data. Descriptive statistics were used to attempt to describe transformational leadership (dependent variable), employee engagement (independent variable), and locus of control (potential mediating variable).

Research Design

The research on the topics of both transformational leadership and employee engagement is extensive and thorough, with more limited research available on locus of control. According to Creswell (2009), “if the problem calls for (a) the identification of factors that influence an outcome, (b) the utility of an intervention, or (c) understanding the best predictors of outcomes, then a quantitative approach is best” (p. 18). A quantitative approach “is also the best approach to use to test a theory or explanation”

(Creswell, 2009, p. 18). Additionally, “if a concept or phenomenon needs to be understood because little research has been done on it, then it merits a qualitative approach” (Creswell, 2009, p. 18). Thus, a quantitative approach was more appropriate strategy than other research methodologies, as much research has been conducted on transformational leadership, employee engagement, and locus of control. In addition, given the theories used in this study and their quantitative survey instruments, a quantitative approach was appropriate in this case. Finally, in order to determine outcomes of transformational leadership on employee engagement and mediation effects of locus of control on employee engagement, a quantitative approach was appropriate. This study utilized the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale, and the Work Locus of Control Scale, three survey tools, to quantitatively gather and measure data relating to transformational leadership, employee engagement, and locus of control, respectively, from employees from 30 nonprofit organizations (15 youth services organizations; 10 human service organizations; and five community service organizations) located across the United States. The three scales were quantitative in nature, consisting of questions using Likert scales. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire asked employees for information about an organizational leader. The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale and the Work Locus of Control Scale sought information about the individual employees’ characteristics and perceptions. These three survey instruments have been proven over time and study to be valid, reliable, and appropriate measurements of the three phenomena of transformational leadership, employee engagement, and locus of control, respectively. The Multifactor

Leadership Questionnaire has been used in over 300 studies and is widely held to be valid and reliable (Corona, 2010; Haq et al., 2010; Ismail et al., 2011; Li et al., 2010; Trapero & De Lozada, 2010; Wang & Howell, 2010). It is the "benchmark measure of Transformational Leadership" (Mind Garden, Inc., 2010). The creators of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale conducted approximately 100 cross-cultural, longitudinal, and multisample studies to validate the theory and scale (Bresó et al., 2011; Schaufeli et al., 2009; Shimazu & Schaufeli, 2009; Taris et al., 2010). Much less research existed on the Work Locus of Control Scale than the other two survey tools discussed in this study. One study suggested that a three dimensional approach would produce a better fit (Oliver et al., 2006), yet no scale has been proposed to replace the Work Locus of Control Scale, and it has been widely used (Oliver et al., 2006).

Also, in conducting the literature review, approximately 95% of the current literature on both transformational leadership and employee engagement, as well as locus of control, utilized quantitative methodology. Indeed, the only studies found to use a qualitative approach did not use the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale, or the Work Locus of Control Scale to test for the existence of the phenomena. In fact, by using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale, and the Work Locus of Control Scale—quantitative measurement tools—this dissertation must necessarily be based on quantitative analysis.

The survey tools were delivered to employees through an electronic survey tool. Survey Monkey is an online survey distribution and collection service that uses "SSL encryption and multi-machine backup to keep your data secure" with "over 10 years of

experience in survey methodology and web technology so you can be confident in the quality of the data" (Survey Monkey, 2011). Survey Monkey's privacy and security policies are attached hereto as Appendix H.

Surveys were sent out to approximately 1,300 total nonprofit employees from 30 nonprofit organizations. The survey remained open until such time as a minimum number of 68 usable survey responses were collected and ended at such time as participants stopped responding (approximately two months).

Research Question 1

RQ1: Are transformational leadership scores predictors of employee engagement in nonprofit organizations?

$H1_0$: Transformational leadership scores do not predict employee engagement in nonprofit organizations.

$H1_a$: Transformational leadership scores do predict employee engagement in nonprofit organizations.

Research Question 2

RQ2: Does locus of control mediate the relationship between transformational leadership scores and employee engagement in nonprofit organizations?

$H2_0$: Locus of control does not mediate the relationship between transformational leadership scores and employee engagement in nonprofit organizations.

$H2_a$: Locus of control does mediate the relationship between transformational leadership scores and employee engagement in nonprofit organizations.

To examine research questions one and two, a multiple regression was conducted to assess whether transformational leadership scores predict employee engagement in nonprofit organizations. A multiple regression is the appropriate analysis when the goal of research is to assess the strength of a relationship between multiple independent and dependent variables. For this analysis, the independent variables were transformational leadership scores (continuous), transactional leadership scores (continuous), locus of control (dichotomous), and gender (dichotomous). The dependent variable was employee engagement (continuous). Data from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire were scored according to the instructions from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire and come from questions 2, 6, 8, 9, 10, 13, 14, 15, 18, 19, 21, 23, 25, 26, 29, 30, 31, 32, 34, 36, as these questions measured transformational leadership, while the other subscales of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire measured transactional and passive avoidant leadership traits. Each participant's responses to these 20 questions were averaged to create a participant's score. The scores for each participant were entered into the model as an independent variable. Locus of control (independent variable) was measured with Spector's (1988) Work Locus of Control Scale. The Work Locus of Control Scale is comprised of 16 questions using a Likert scale format where response options range from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 6 (*strongly agree*). Items 1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 11, 14, and 15 were reverse scored, as these items are negatively worded. Participants' responses to the locus of control scale were summed to create a total score. Gender was self-reported in the demographics section of the questionnaire. The dependent variable in the analysis was employee engagement in nonprofit organizations. The dependent variable was measured

with the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale. The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale is comprised of 17 questions using a Likert scale format where response options range from 0 (*never*) to 6 (*always*). Participants' responses were summed to create a total employee engagement score; data was treated as continuous.

The null hypothesis for Research Question 1 would have been rejected if a statistically significant correlation existed between transformational leadership and employee engagement. An alpha of value of .05, a standard for statistical significance, was used to create a 95% confidence level.

The null hypothesis for Research Question 2 would have been rejected if a locus of control mediated the relationship between transformational leadership scores and employee engagement in nonprofit organizations. An alpha of value of .05, a standard for statistical significance, was chosen to ensure a 95% confidence level, however, because four analyses could be conducted, a Bonferroni correction was employed.

This study assessed whether transformational leadership affected employee engagement and examined whether locus of control had a mediating effect on employee engagement in nonprofit organizations.

While much research suggests certain conditions that lead to employee engagement, no study recommends a leadership style congruent with those conditions. Yet, transformational leadership, with its focus on leading by example and motivating and inspiring employees, may be the very leadership style most likely to encourage and foster employee engagement. This study looked at transformational leadership's effect on employee engagement to determine whether a positive relationship between the two

phenomena existed in nonprofit organizations with a mediating variable of locus of control. Necessarily through analysis of the data, this study was a step in establishing whether transformational leadership and/or employee engagement may exist independently in a nonprofit organization and whether locus of control, either internal or external, mediates the effects of transformational leadership or degree of employee engagement or both. This research suggested that both theories contribute to a nonprofit organization's success.

Analysis

Variables

In this case, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, locus of control, and gender represented the independent variables. The dependent variable was employee engagement. This study determined whether the dependent variable was affected by the independent variables. The variables were measured as ordinal variables, as the values of each variable was a determining factor in the relationship between the dependent and independent variable.

Multiple Regression

Multiple regressions are generally used to determine the strength of a relationship between more than one independent variable and a dependent variable. $y = b0 + b1*x1 + b2*x2 + e$; where y = the response variable, b0 = constant (which includes the error term), b1 = first regression coefficient, b2 = second regression coefficient, x = predictor variables, and e = the residual error (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2006) is the regression equation that will be used.

This study used multiple regression, as is appropriate when attempting to identify the factors involved in assessing *y* (Rumsey, 2009). Multiple regression involves entering all independent variables into the model simultaneously to determine each variable's effect on the dependent variable and the difference between them (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2006). Other tests used in this study included the *F* test, R-squared adjusted, and a *t* test. The *F* test tested the hypothesis (Rumsey, 2009). It evaluated whether the dependent variable was predicted by the independent variables. The *F* test was used to test the hypotheses that transformational leadership affects employee engagement. The *F* test actually tested the null hypotheses—in this case that transformational leadership does not affect employee engagement and that locus of control has no effect on employee engagement. It allowed testing of transformational leadership (the independent variable coefficient of which is the betas) to determine which model best described the *y* variable (employee engagement). R-squared adjusted was the the *y* values that were explained by the model (Rumsey, 2009) and was represented by a percentage. In multiple regressions, for each additional variable, R-squared always increases or remains constant; it never decreases (Rumsey, 2009). Thus, R-squared adjusted was the appropriate option, as it took into account this increase in R-squared in the case of multiple independent variables and "adjusts it downward according to the number of variables in the model" (Rumsey, 2009, p. 110). In other words, R-squared adjusted explained the model's suitability with more than one variable. R-squared adjusted was also provided and determined the amount of variance transformational leadership/transactional leadership, and locus of control explained employee engagement. It is the square of the coefficient of

determination and ranges from Positive 1 to Negative 1. Positive 1 indicates a strong correlation, while Negative 1 indicates a negative correlation between the variables. If the value is approximately 0, the independent variables and dependent variable have no relationship. Standard significance is less than .05. The *t* test compares the means of two statistical groups to measure any differences that may be present. The *t* test showed the relevance of each independent variable on the dependent variable, and the beta coefficients provided an assessment of the prediction strength for the independent variable. Beta coefficients explained the strength of the association and the extent to which transformational leadership predicted employee engagement. Where every one standard deviation from the mean, the beta coefficient will change by one standard unit, a strong relationship exists.

Linearity, homoscedasticity, and the absence of multicollinearity was evaluated before analysis was conducted. Linearity occurs when a straight line relationship can be seen between the independent and dependent variables and can be used to estimate *y* based on *x* values. Homoscedasticity "ensures that the best-fitting line works well for all relevant values of *x*, not just in certain areas" (Rumsey, 2009, p. 73). Homoscedasticity assumes normal distribution around the line of regression. Linearity and homoscedasticity were assessed through the use of scatter plots (Stevens, 2009). Multicollinearity occurs when two *x* variables are strongly correlated, in which case SPSS will not be able to determine which *x* variable is affecting *y*. Variance Inflation Factors was used to determine the presence or absence of multicollinearity. Variance Inflation Factors values over 10 suggest that multicollinearity is present (Stevens, 2009).

Informed Consent and Ethical Considerations

An informed consent consistent with the requirements of the IRB was distributed to all employees in the sample through Survey Monkey. Consent was considered given when participants click the box to begin the survey. Each email survey contained a header reading *INFORMED CONSENT* along with the title of this dissertation. A copy of the consent is attached as Appendix D. The consent then listed the title and information about the researcher (name, address, phone number, email address). Next, the consent stated that the participants were asked to complete a survey and offered more information to those who request it. The purpose of the study and an approximation of the time necessary to complete the survey was provided. Risks were outlined, including an option for individuals to withdraw from participation. The consent also contained a discussion of the benefits of the study to the participants (none) and potential benefits to other nonprofit organizations and assured anonymity of the surveys and survey results. Contact information was again provided as well as IRB contact information. Participants were reassured that participation in the research was voluntary and not mandatory, and an acknowledgement of unforeseen risks was provided. The consent also contained assurance that no costs were incurred or payment received as a result of participation in the study. The consent additionally contained my IRB approval number (08-29-13-0137367) and expiration date (August 28, 2014). Finally, the consent requested the participants' consent by clicking the box to begin the survey.

For purposes of this study, to ensure the highest ethical standards, no employee under the age of 18 was surveyed. Additionally, only employees participated in this

study. Those voluntary workers (individuals who donated their time to the nonprofit organization and were not paid a salary) were not asked to participate, as they were not actual employees and were not subject to the same demands and resources as employees. Likewise, volunteers may work in very limited capacities, on specific projects, or under controlled conditions, preventing exposure to the same work and leadership characteristics as employees. No names were requested on the electronic survey. Certain demographic information, such as age, gender, ethnicity, length of time employed at the organization, pay scale, and employment category were collected in addition to the survey responses. The organization itself was never mentioned in the dissertation. In this way, all employees and the organization itself are protected both internally and externally. All steps to ensure anonymity and confidentiality were taken. Each employee received an email with a link to the electronic survey. Only I had access to the completed electronic surveys. Data from the electronic surveys will be stored on an external hard drive for 15 years, at which time the data will be erased from the hard drive. Raw data obtained by the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale was provided to Wilmar B. Schaufeli, PhD at the Department of Social and Organizational Psychology Research Institute Psychology & Health at the Utrecht University via email, as a term of use for the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale. Data obtained from the Work Locus of Control Scale was provided to Paul Spector, Department of Psychology, PCD 4118, University of South Florida, Tampa, FL 33620 USA.

Summary

While literature on the topics of transformational leadership and employee engagement in nonprofit organizations exists, no study has been conducted that measures the effect of transformational leadership on employee engagement with a mediating variable of locus of control in nonprofit organizations, resulting in a gap in the literature. Given the critical role nonprofit organizations play in contributing to positive social change, this gap is significant. Therefore, this study examined how transformational leadership affected employee engagement with a mediating variable of locus of control in 30 nonprofit organizations (15 youth services organizations; 10 human service organizations; and five community service organizations) located across the United States. Employees were surveyed using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale, and the Work Locus of Control Scale, three survey tools measuring transformational leadership, employee engagement, and locus of control, respectively. All responses were completely anonymous in every way. Additionally, general demographic information was collected from the employees. Data from the surveys were analyzed both descriptively to achieve an overview of the data and inferentially using multiple regression to detect any relationship between transformational leadership and employee engagement and possible mediating effect of locus of control on employee engagement in this particular organization. As a relationship between transformational leadership and employee engagement existed, this study should help bridge the gap in the literature with regard to leadership and followership in nonprofit organizations. However, no clear correlation between locus of

control and employee engagement was noted, as more fully explained in Chapter 4. To that end, this study may contribute to improving leadership and workplace conditions for employees in nonprofit organizations. Not only does transformational leadership and engaged employees create better organizational conditions, but they improve efficiency and performance, thereby increasing organizational success, and decrease turnover, which can be very costly to organizations in terms of recruiting and training.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

This chapter outlines the data and the analysis of the data used in this study. Data were collected from employees in 30 nonprofit organizations located using www.GuideStar.org who listed employee email addresses publicly on their websites. Surveys were distributed through Survey Monkey. Of the approximately 1,300 surveys delivered, 164 responses were collected. Seven participants were removed because they were not full time employees, as they fell outside the scope of this study (i.e., they were outside of the age group or were not full-time employees). Two outliers were removed from the dataset (discussed below).

The surveys asked for basic demographic data including age, ethnicity, years of service, gender, and marriage status. Following the demographic data, the survey contained the Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire, the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale, and the Work Locus of Control Scale survey instruments. No other data were collected.

Research Questions

This study addresses two research questions. The first research question is as follows: “Are transformational leadership scores predictors of employee engagement in nonprofit organizations?” The second research question is as follows: “Does locus of control mediate the relationship between transformational leadership scores and employee engagement in nonprofit organizations?”

Once the data were collected, descriptive statistics were analyzed to quantitatively depict the sample. The data were then analyzed using multiple regression to determine whether a correlation existed between the variables. The analysis is more fully described below and will show that a correlation between transformational leadership and employee engagement exists. However, this study was unable to determine successfully that locus of control influences employee engagement.

Data Screening

Data were collected for 164 participants from November 4, 2013 using SurveyMonkey through December 2, 2013, at which time surveys were no longer being received. All participants were employees of nonprofit organizations. Data were assessed for inclusion criteria, univariate outliers, and missing cases. To participate in the research, individuals had to give consent, be full time employees at nonprofit organizations, and between the ages of 18 and 65. All individuals gave consent to participate in the study. Five participants were removed because they were not full time employees. Two participants were removed because they did not meet the age requirement. Outliers were assessed by transforming continuous data into *z* scores. *Z* scores were calculated by standardizing data to a mean of 0.00 and a standard deviation of 1.00. Cases greater than 3.29 standard deviations from the mean were considered outliers. Two outliers were removed from the dataset. One case had data missing in patterns and was removed from the dataset. Final data analysis was conducted on 155 participants.

Research Questions

Research Question 1

Are transformational leadership scores predictors of employee engagement in nonprofit organizations?

To assess Research Question 1, and to determine if transformational leadership scores, transactional leadership scores, locus of control, and gender predict employee engagement in nonprofit organizations, a multiple linear regression was conducted using SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) Statistics Student Version 19.0. Prior to conducting the regression, the assumptions of normality, homoscedasticity, and absence of multicollinearity were assessed. Normality was assessed by examining values of skew and kurtosis. To meet the assumption, skew must be $-2 < x < 2$ and kurtosis must be $-7 < x < 7$. Skew (-0.77) and kurtosis (0.18) were examined, and both values were within the recommended parameters, indicating the assumption was met. Homoscedasticity was assessed with a residuals scatterplot. The points were rectangularly distributed about the regression line, indicating the assumption was met (Figure 1). Absence of multicollinearity was assessed with variance inflation factors (VIF). None of the values were greater than 10, indicating the assumption was met (Table 1).

Data Collection and Analysis

Data Screening

Data were collected for 164 participants from November 4, 2014 using SurveyMonkey through December 2, 2014, at which time surveys were no longer being

received. All participants were employees of nonprofit organizations. Data were assessed for inclusion criteria, univariate outliers, and missing cases. To participate in the research, individuals had to give consent, be full time employees at nonprofit organizations, and between the ages of 18 - 65. All individuals gave consent to participate in the study. Five participants were removed because they were not full time employees. Two participants were removed because they did not meet the age requirement. Outliers were assessed with the creation of z scoresby transforming continuous data into z scores. D Z scores were calculated by data were standardizing dataed to a mean of 0.00 and a standard deviation of 1.00. Cases greater than 3.29 standard deviations from the mean were considered outliers. Two outliers were removed from the dataset. One case had data missing in patterns and was removed from the dataset. Final data analysis was conducted on 155 participants.

Research Questions

Research question one

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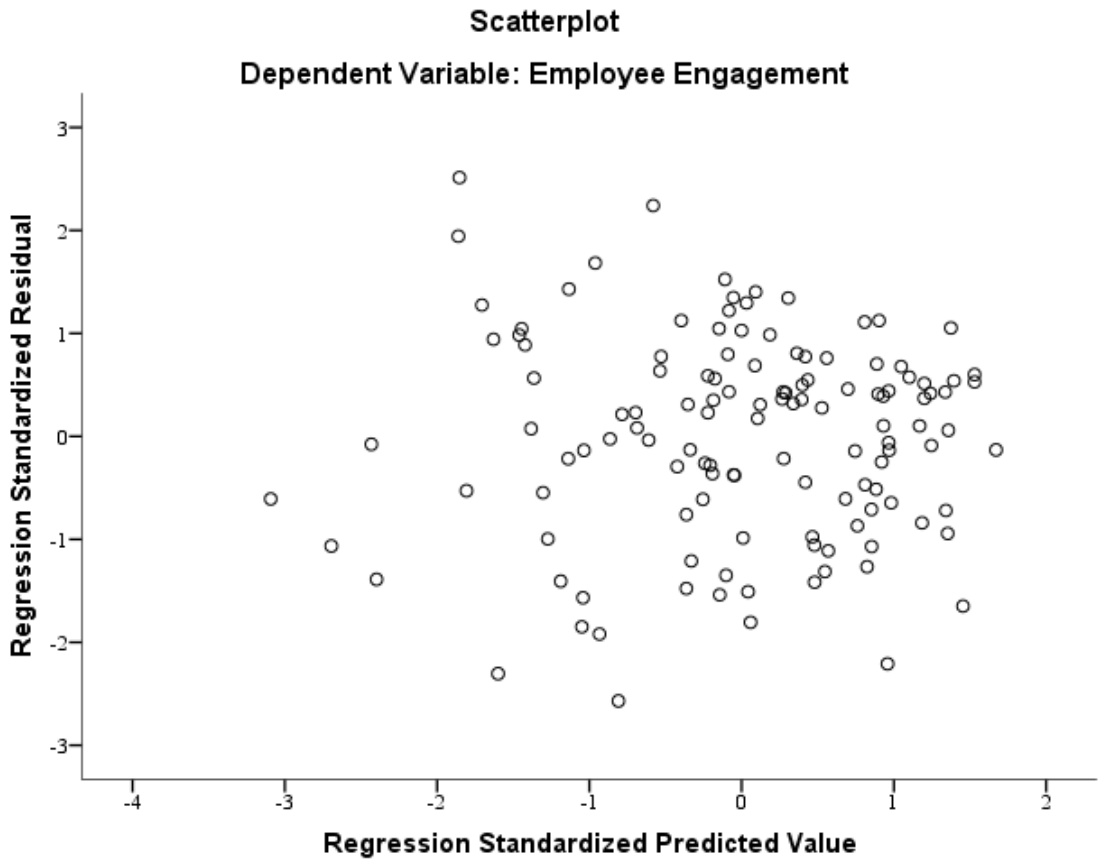

Figure 1. Residuals scatterplot to assess homoscedasticity.

The multiple linear regression was significant, $F(4, 122) = 11.64$, $p < .001$, adjusted $R^2 = .25$, indicating the model correctly accounted for 25% of the variance in employee engagement. The only significant predictor in the model was transformational leadership ($B = 0.62$, $p < .001$). As transformational leadership increases by one unit, employee engagement increases by 0.62 units. The null hypothesis, transformational leadership scores do not predict employee engagement in nonprofit organizations, must be rejected in favor of the alternative hypothesis. Results of the multiple linear regression are presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Multiple Linear Regression With Transformational Leadership Scores, Transactional Leadership Scores, Locus of Control, and Gender Predicting Employee Engagement

Source	*B*	*SE*	β	*t*	*p*	VIF
Transformational	0.62	0.11	.51	5.78	.000	1.30
Transactional	-0.07	0.14	-.04	-0.46	.650	1.28
Locus of Control	-0.22	0.15	-.12	-1.46	.148	1.06
Gender	-0.15	0.18	-.07	-0.83	.409	1.05

Note. $F(4, 122) = 11.64$, $p < .001$, adjusted $R^2 = .25$.

Research Question 2

Does locus of control mediate the relationship between transformational leadership scores and employee engagement in nonprofit organizations?

To assess research question2, and determine if locus of control mediates the relationship between transformational leadership scores and employee engagement in nonprofit organizations, a mediation analysis was conducted. Homoscedasticity and absence of multicollinearity were assessed prior to conducting the mediation analysis. Normality was assessed in the previous analysis and met. Homoscedasticity was assessed

with a residuals scatterplot. The points were rectangularly distributed about the regression line, indicating the assumption was met (Figure 2). Absence of multicollinearity was assessed with variance inflation factors (VIF). None of the values were greater than 10, indicating the assumption was met (Table 1).

To assess for mediation, three regressions were conducted. For mediation to be supported, four items must be met:

1. Transformational leadership must be related to employee engagement,
2. Transformational leadership must be related to the locus of control,
3. Locus of control must be related to employee engagement while in the presence of transformational leadership, and
4. Transformational leadership should no longer be a significant predictor of employee engagement in the presence of the locus of control (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

First, the regression with transformational leadership predicting employee engagement was conducted. The results of the regression were significant, $F(1, 133) = 39.18$, $p < .001$. This suggests that transformational leadership was positively related to employee engagement. The logistic regression with transformational leadership predicting locus of control was conducted next. The results of the regression were significant, $\chi^2(1) = 5.84$, $p = .016$. This suggests that transformational leadership was related to locus of control. The final regression was conducted to determine if locus of control mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and employee engagement. The results of the regression were significant, $F(2, 132) = 20.36$, $p < .001$.

However, transformational leadership remained a significant predictor in the third regression model, therefore Item 4 was not met; mediation can only be partially supported. The null hypothesis, locus of control does not mediate the relationship between transformational leadership scores and employee engagement in nonprofit organizations, cannot be rejected. Results of the mediation analyses are presented in Tables 2 through 4.

Table 2

Mediation Results With Transformational Leadership Predicting Employee Engagement

Dependent	Independent	*B*	*SE*	β	*t*	*p*
Regression 1:						
Employee engagement	Transformational leadership	0.58	0.09	.48	6.26	.001

Note. $F(1, 133) = 39.18$, $p < .001$.

Table 3

Mediation Results with Transformational Leadership Predicting Locus of Control

Dependent	Independent	*B*	*SE*	Wald	*OR*	*p*
Regression 2:						
Locus of control	Transformational leadership	-0.56	0.24	5.47	0.57	.019

Note. $\chi^2(1) = 5.84$, $p = .016$.

Table 4

Mediation Results with Locus of Control Mediating the Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Employee Engagement

Dependent	Independent	*B*	*SE*	β	*t*	*p*
Regression 3:						
Employee engagement	Transformational leadership	0.56	0.09	0.46	5.89	.001
	Locus of control	-0.17	0.15	-0.09	-1.19	.236

Note. $F(2, 132) = 20.36$, $p < .001$.

Slightly over half of the population was considered external locus of control. The vast majority of the population were more transformational than transactional leaders. Specifically, 80 (52%) participants scored as external locus of control; 100 (70%) participants scored as transformational leaders; and 27 (21%) participants scored as transactional leaders. The frequencies and percentages are presented in Table 5.

Table 5

Frequencies and Percentages for Locus of Control and Leadership Style

Characteristic	*n*	%
Locus of Control		
Internal	75	48
External	80	52
Leadership style		
Transformational	100	79
Transactional	27	21

Descriptive Statistics

The majority of the population was female and White. Specifically, 121 were female (78%), and 128 were White (83%). Many participants indicated they were

between 26 and 35 years old (56, 36%). When asked about how many years they have worked for the organization, the slight majority (82, 53%) indicated 0to 3 years. Sixty-six (43%) participants indicated they have graduated college, followed by 36 (23%) who stated they completed graduate school. Almost half of the participants indicated they were married (74, 48%), followed by single (57, 37%). Many participants indicated they held a management position (55, 36%) and cited their average household income between $25,000 to 49,999 (56, 36%). Demographic characteristics are presented in Table 6.

Table 6

Frequencies and Percentages for Participants' Demographic Characteristics

Variable	*n*	%
Gender		
Male	34	22
Female	121	78
Age		
18 – 25	17	11
26 – 35	56	36
36 – 45	30	19
46 – 55	32	21
56 – 65	20	13
Time in organization		
0 – 3	82	53
4 – 8	44	28
8 – 12	16	10
Over 12	13	8
Ethnicity		
White	128	83
Hispanic	11	7
Native American	4	3
Black or African American	12	8
Asian	5	3
Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander	6	1

(*table continues*)

Variable	*n*	%
Education		
High school graduate	7	5
1 year of college	8	5
2 years of college	7	5
3 years of college	11	7
Graduated college	66	43
Some graduate school	20	13
Completed graduate school	36	23
Marital status		
Single	57	37
Married	74	48
Divorced	15	10
Separated	2	1
Other	7	5
Current job category		
Clerical	4	3
Administrative	34	22
Management	55	36
Senior management	20	13
Executive	5	3
Other	37	24
Household income		
$0 - 24,999	6	4
$25,000 - 49,999	56	36
$50,000 - 74,999	39	25
$75,000 - 99,999	19	12
$100,000 - 124,999	16	10
$125,000 - 149,999	6	4
$150,000 - 174,999	3	2
$175,000 - 199,999	3	2
$200,000 and up	7	5

Note. Percentages may not total 100 due to rounding error.

Means and standard deviations were conducted on the continuous variables of interest. Those variables included: transformational leadership, transactional leadership, vigor, dedication, absorption, and the work locus of control (WLCS) total scores. Transformation and transactional leadership scores could range from 0 to 5; higher scores indicate greater alignment with that leadership style. Vigor, dedication, and absorption

scores could range from 0 to 6; higher scores indicate greater alignment with that subscale. And work locus of control total scores could range from 16 to 96; higher scores indicate an external locus of control and lower scores indicate an internal locus of control. Cronbach's alpha values were also conducted to assess the internal consistency of the scales. All scales, but transactional leadership, were found to be acceptable (George & Mallery, 2010). The alpha value of .58 for transactional leadership indicates that the internal consistency for the scale was poor (George & Mallery, 2010). Previously, the Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaire, a survey instrument that has been proven to be reliable and valid in measuring transformational leadership, has demonstrated good to excellent internal consistency for all scales across a large sample (Bass & Riggio, 2006). A low alpha value can be due to a low number of questions, poor internal relationships among the items, or heterogeneous scales or constructs (Dennick & Tavakol, 2011). However, because the instrument and subscales have been previously established as reliable, all subscales will be used for analysis. Means and standard deviations for these scores are presented in Table 7, along with Cronbach alpha values.

Table 7

Cronbach Alpha Values, Means, and Standard Deviations for Transformational Leadership, Transactional Leadership, Vigor, Dedication, Absorption, and the Work Locus of Control Total Scores

Scale score	*M*	*SD*	No. of items	α
Transformational leadership	3.68	0.75	.93	20
Transactional leadership	3.12	0.60	.58	8
Vigor	4.33	0.92	.82	6
Dedication	4.62	1.06	.85	5
Absorption	4.15	0.94	.75	6
Employee Engagement	4.35	0.91	.93	17
WLCS	39.44	9.67	.85	16

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

Idealized Influence (Attributed)

Participants reported the following idealized influence (attributed) scores (Figure 2):

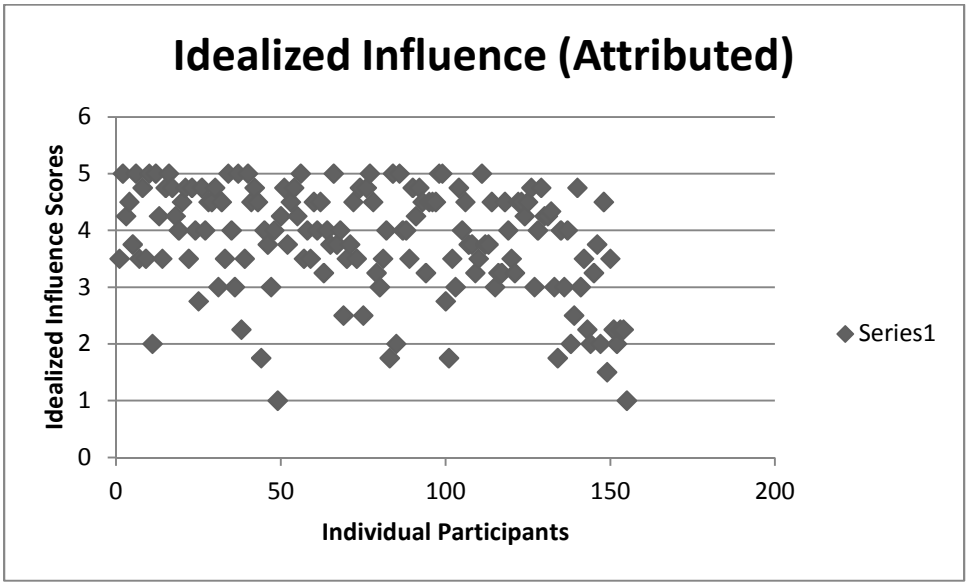

Figure 2. Idealized influence (attributed).

According to the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Manual, leaders who demonstrated idealized influence (attributed) caused employees to take pride in the fact that they worked alongside him/her, helped foster self-respect in employees, went beyond what was required, and demonstrated confidence (Bass & Avolio, 2004). The 50 percentile score for idealized influence (attributed) is 3.00. In this case, 132 out of 155 participants scored at the 50 percentile level or above, representing approximately 85% of the sample scoring at or higher than 50 percent of the norm. The 60 percentile score for idealized influence (attributed) is 3.25. In this study, 122 participants scored at the 60 percentile level or above, representing approximately 79% of the sample scoring at or higher than 60 percent of the norm. The 95 percentile score for idealized influence (attributed) is 4.00. Eighty-five participants scored 4.00 or above, representing approximately 55% of the participants scoring at or higher than 95 percent of the norm.

Idealized Influence (Behavior)

Participants reported the following idealized influence (behavior) scores (Figure 3):

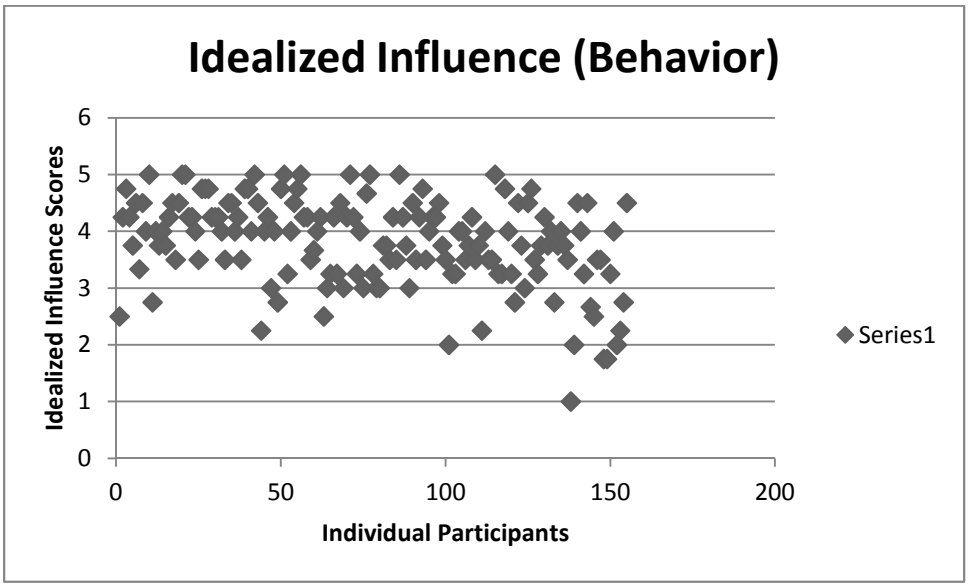

Figure 3. Idealized influence (behavior)

According to the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Manual, leaders who demonstrated idealized influence (behavior) openly discussed beliefs and values, influenced employees to identify with a shared purpose, made ethical decisions, and encouraged a shared vision (Bass & Avolio, 2004). The 50 percentile score for idealized influence (behavior) is 3.00. In this case, 137 out of 155 participants scored at the 50 percentile level or above, representing approximately 88% of the sample scoring at or higher than 50 percent of the norm. The 60 percentile score for idealized influence (behavior) is 3.25. In this study, 129 participants scored at the 60 percentile level or above, representing approximately 83% of the sample scoring at or higher than 60 percent of the norm. The 95 percentile score for idealized influence (behavior) is 4.00. Eighty-two participants scored 4.00 or above, representing approximately 53% of the participants scoring at or higher than 95 percent of the norm.

Inspirational Motivation

Participants reported the following inspirational motivation scores (Figure 4):

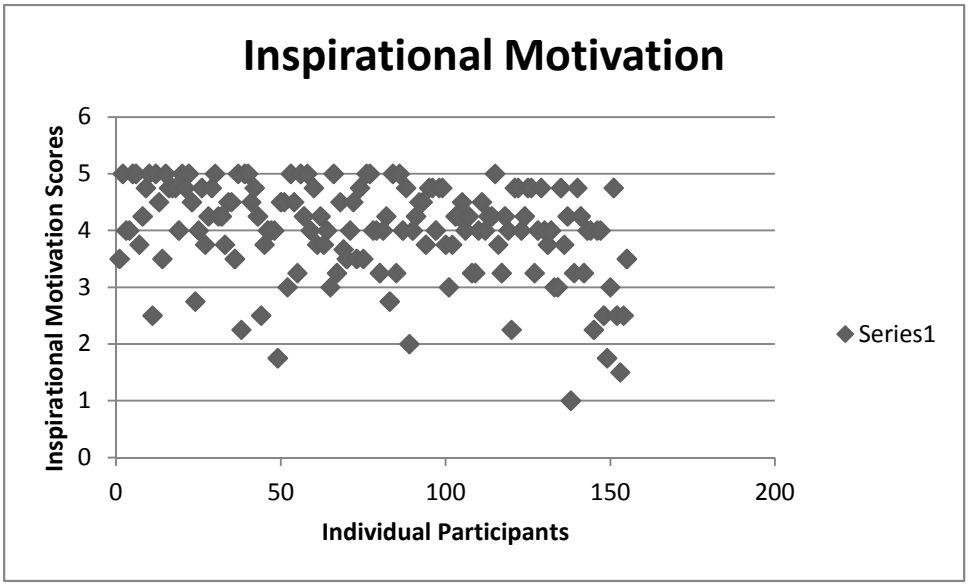

Figure 4. Inspirational motivation

According to the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Manual, leaders who demonstrated inspirational motivation are optimistic and enthusiastic, are confident that goals will be met, and support the shared vision of the organization (Bass & Avolio, 2004). The 50 percentile score for inspirational motivation is 3.00. In this case, 140 out of 155 participants scored at the 50 percentile level or above, representing approximately 90% of the sample scoring at or higher than 50 percent of the norm. The 60 percentile score for inspirational motivation is 3.25. In this study, 134 participants scored at the 60 percentile level or above, representing approximately 86% of the sample scoring at or higher than 60 percent of the norm. The 95 percentile score for inspirational motivation is 4.00. One hundred and four participants scored 4.00 or above, representing approximately 67% of the participants scoring at or higher than 95 percent of the norm.

Intellectual Stimulation

Participants reported the following intellectual stimulation scores (Figure 5):

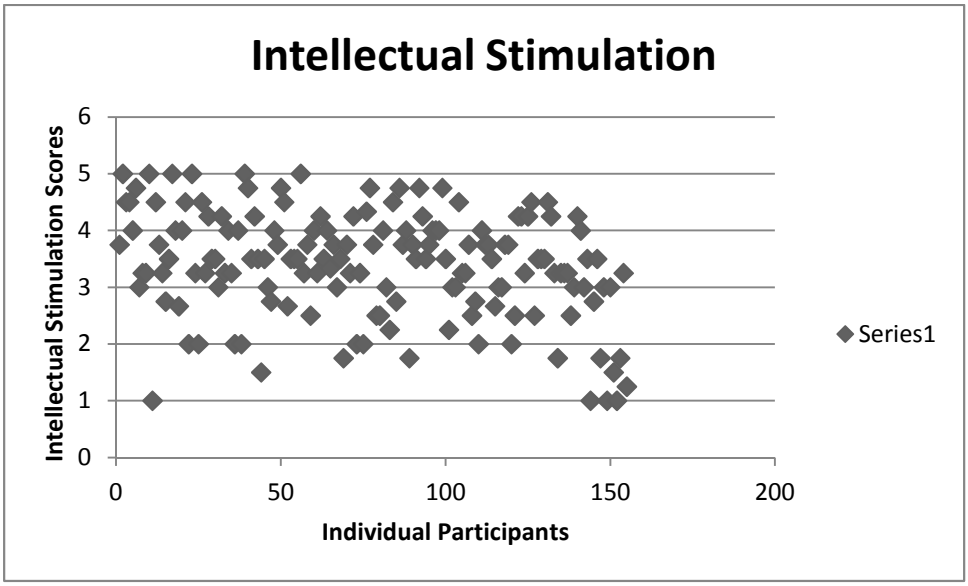

Figure 5. Intellectual stimulation

According to the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Manual, leaders who demonstrated intellectual stimulation question and reevaluate everything, seek ideas and advice from others, and are open to new solutions (Bass & Avolio, 2004). The 50 percentile score for intellectual stimulation is 2.75. In this case, 123 out of 155 participants scored at the 50 percentile level or above, representing approximately 79% of the sample scoring at or higher than 50 percent of the norm. The 60 percentile score for intellectual stimulation is 3.00. In this study, 118 participants scored at the 60 percentile level or above, representing approximately 76% of the sample scoring at or higher than 60 percent of the norm. The 95 percentile score for intellectual stimulation is 3.75. Sixty-five participants scored 3.75 or above, representing approximately 42% of the participants scoring at or higher than 95 percent of the norm.

Individual Consideration

Participants reported the following individual consideration scores (Figure 6):

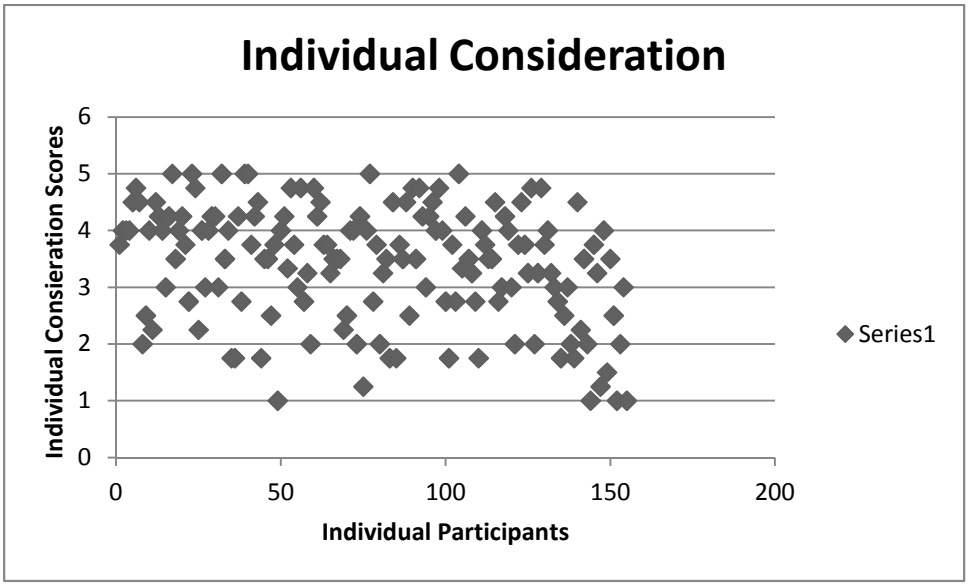

Figure 6. Individual consideration

According to the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Manual, leaders who demonstrated individual consideration act as mentors, treat employees individually, and build on employees' strengths (Bass & Avolio, 2004). The 50 percentile score for individual consideration is 2.75. In this case, 120 out of 155 participants scored at the 50 percentile level or above, representing approximately 77% of the sample scoring at or higher than 50 percent of the norm. The 60 percentile score for individual consideration is 3.00. In this study, 111 participants scored at the 60 percentile level or above, representing approximately 72% of the sample scoring at or higher than 60 percent of the norm. The 95 percentile score for individual consideration is 3.75. Seventy-six participants scored 3.75 or above, representing approximately 49% of the participants scoring at or higher than 95 percent of the norm.

Contingent Reward

Participants reported the following contingent reward scores (Figure 7):

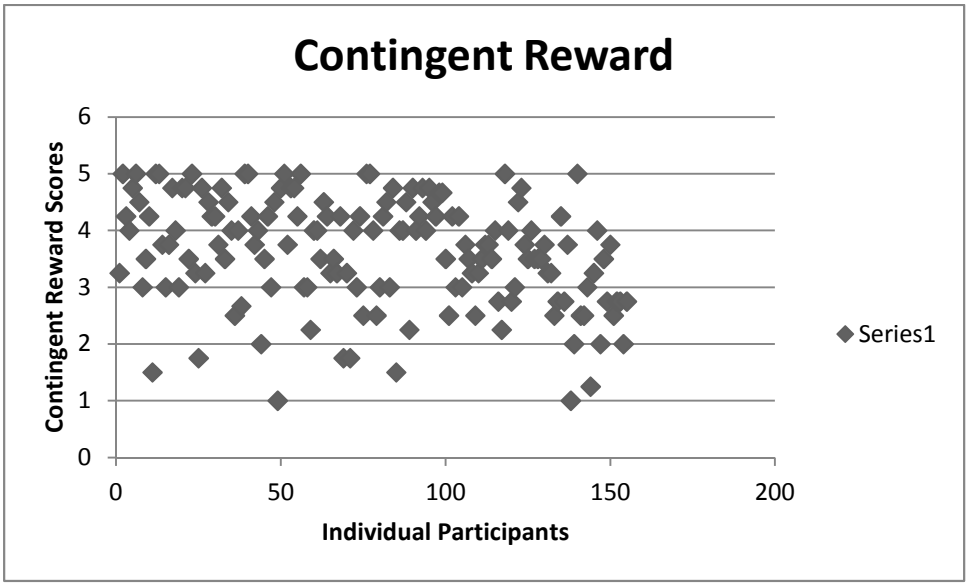

Figure 7. Contingent reward

According to the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Manual, contingent reward is an aspect of transactional leadership where leaders provide rewards for meeting goals, set those goals, make individual expectations and rewards clear, and respond favorably when those goals are met (Bass & Avolio, 2004). The 50 percentile score for contingent reward is 3.00. In this case, 122 out of 155 participants scored at the 50 percentile level or above, representing approximately 79% of the sample scoring at or higher than 50 percent of the norm. The 60 percentile score for contingent reward is 3.06. In this study, 109 participants scored at the 60 percentile level or above, representing approximately 70% of the sample scoring at or higher than 60 percent of the norm. The 95 percentile score for contingent reward is 3.75. Seventy-one participants scored 3.75 or

above, representing approximately 46% of the participants scoring at or higher than 95 percent of the norm.

Transformational

Participants reported the following transformational scores (Figure 8):

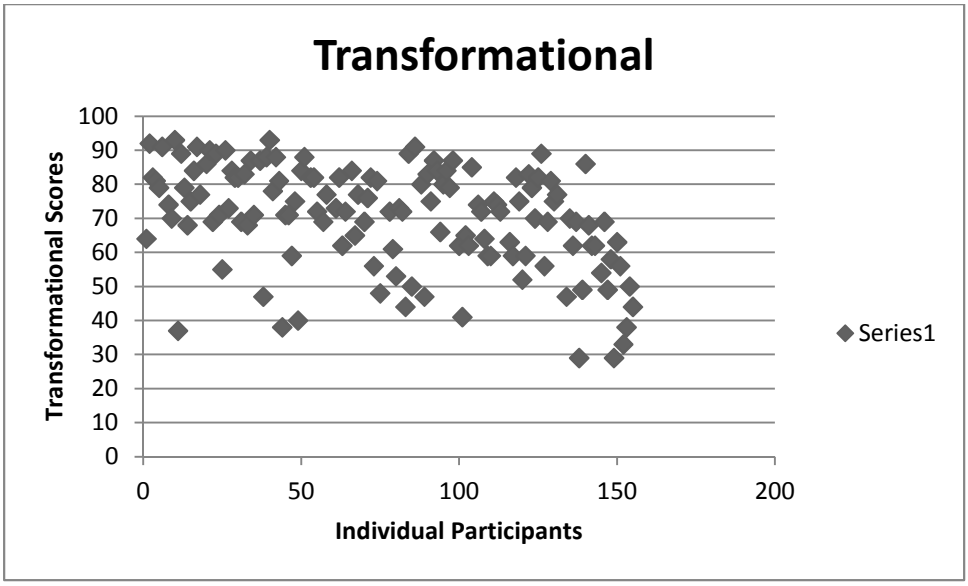

Figure 8. Transformational

According to the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Manual, leaders who are more transformational actively motivate and inspire to go above the mere expectations and encourage employees to set higher standards (Bass & Avolio, 2004). The manual does not provide percentiles for transformational leaders. However, higher scores represent a higher level of transsformational leadership qualities. Participants reported that 62 leaders scored 75 or higher; 46 leaders scored 80 or higher; 22 leaders scored 85 or higher; eight leaders scored 90 or higher; and two leaders scored the highest score of 93.

Transactional

Participants reported the following transactional scores (Figure 9):

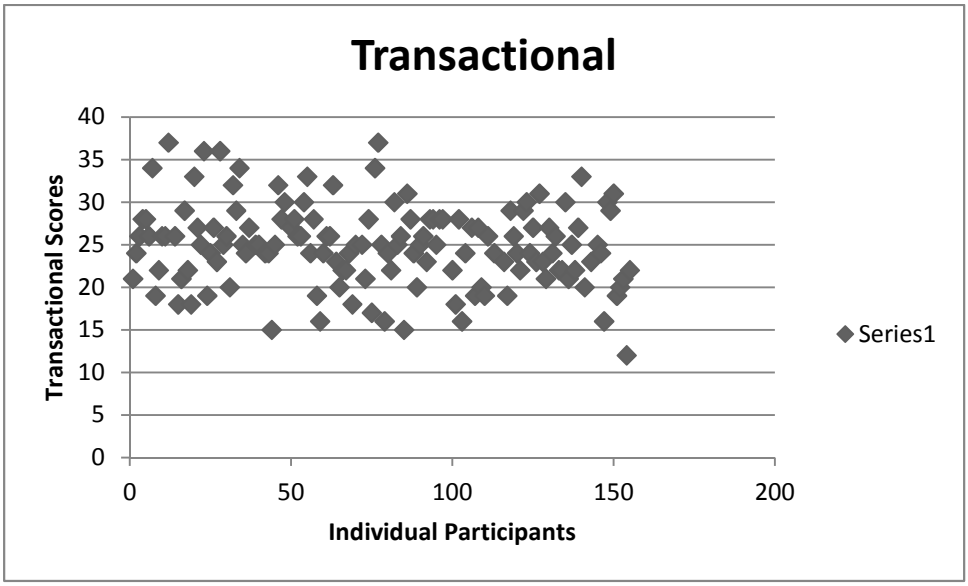

Figure 9. Transactional

According to the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Manual, leaders who scored more transactional clarified expectations and took disciplinary action when necessary (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Like transformational leadership, no percentile scores are provided for transactional leadership, as it is more fully explained by contingent reward and management-by-exception. However, scores ranged from 37 to 12. The higher the score, the more a leader displays a management-by-exception (active) type of leadership style, while the lower the score, the more the leader displays a laissez-faire leadership style.

Management-By-Exception (Active)

Participants reported the following management-by-exception (active) scores (Figure 10):

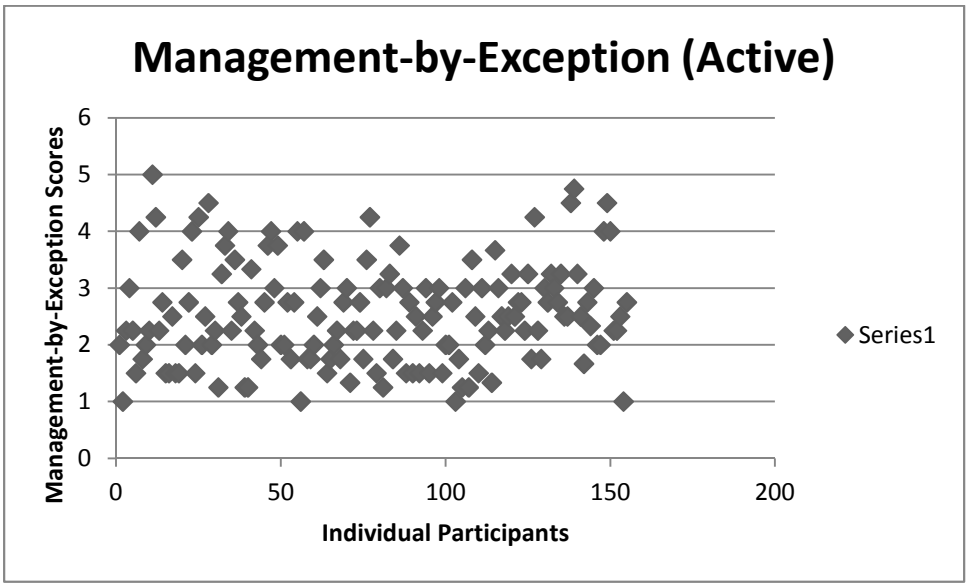

Figure 10. Management-by-exception (active)

According to the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Manual, management-by-exception (active) is a type of transactional leadership style where leaders focus on the flaws and errors employees make to cause them to realize their deviation from their expectations (Bass & Avolio, 2004). The 50 percentile score for management-by-exception (active) is 1.67. In this case, 128 out of 155 participants scored at the 50 percentile level or above, representing approximately 83% of the sample scoring at or higher than 50 percent of the norm. The 60 percentile score for management-by-exception (active) is 1.87. In this study, 116 participants scored at the 60 percentile level or above, representing approximately 75% of the sample scoring at or higher than 60 percent of the norm. The 95 percentile score for management-by-exception (active) is 3.25. Seventeen participants scored 3.25 or above, representing approximately 11% of the participants scoring at or higher than 95 percent of the norm.

Management-By-Exception (Passive)

Participants reported the following management-by-exception (passive) scores (Figure 11):

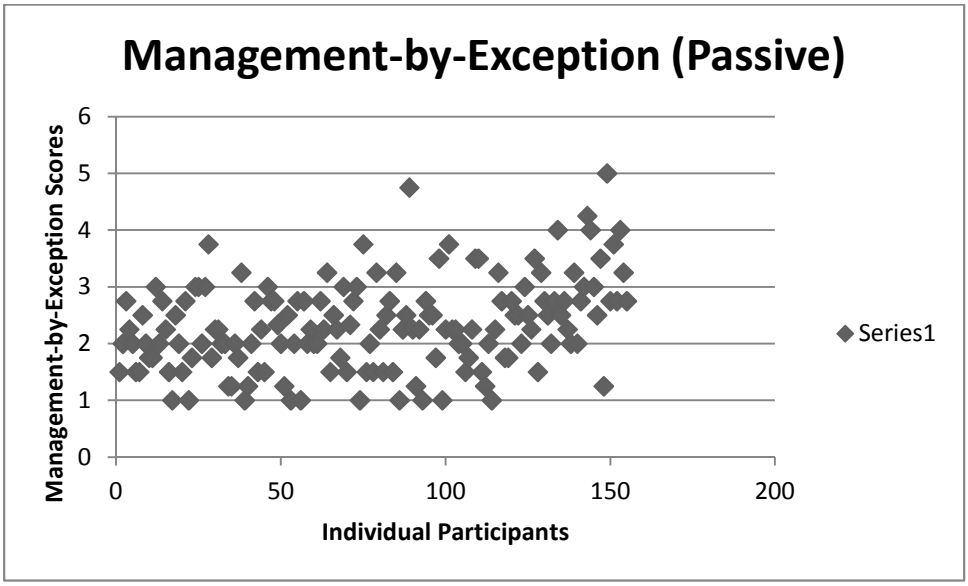

Figure 11. Management-by-exception (passive)

According to the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Manual, management-by-exception (passive) is a type of transactional leadership style where leaders do nothing until a chronic problem arises and do nothing until a issues occur (Bass & Avolio, 2004). The 50 percentile score for management-by-exception (passive) is 1.00. In this case, 155 out of 155 participants scored at the 50 percentile level or above, representing approximately 100% of the sample scoring at or higher than 50 percent of the norm. The 60 percentile score for management-by-exception (passive) is 1.04. In this study, 145 participants scored at the 60 percentile level or above, representing approximately 94% of the sample scoring at or higher than 60 percent of the norm. The 95 percentile score for management-by-exception (passive) is 2.50. Sixty-eight participants scored 2.50 or

above, representing approximately 44% of the participants scoring at or higher than 95 percent of the norm.

Laissez-Faire Leadership

Participants reported the following laissez-faire leadership scores (Figure 12):

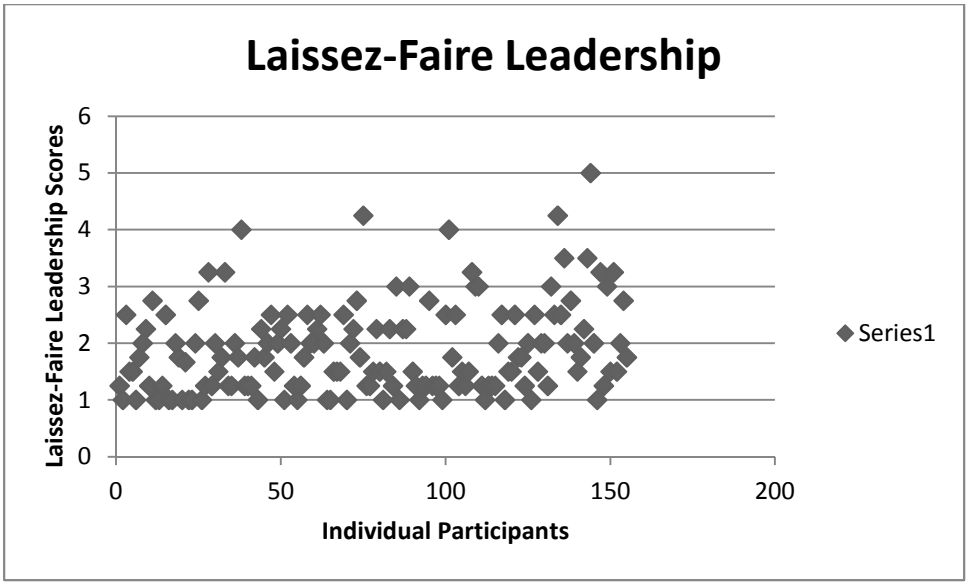

Figure 12. Laissez-faire leadership

According to the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Manual, laissez-faire leaders avoid confrontation and decision-making and are often unavailable when needed (Bass & Avolio, 2004). The 50 percentile score for laissez-faire is .50. In this case, 155 out of 155 participants scored at the 50 percentile level or above, representing approximately 100% of the sample scoring at or higher than 50 percent of the norm. The 60 percentile score for laissez-faire is .75. In this study, 155 participants scored at the 60 percentile level or above, representing approximately 100% of the sample scoring at or higher than 60 percent of the norm. The 95 percentile score for laissez-faire is 2.00.

Sixty-eight participants scored 2.00 or above, representing approximately 44% of the participants scoring at or higher than 95 percent of the norm.

Extra Effort

Participants reported the following extra effort scores (Figure 13):

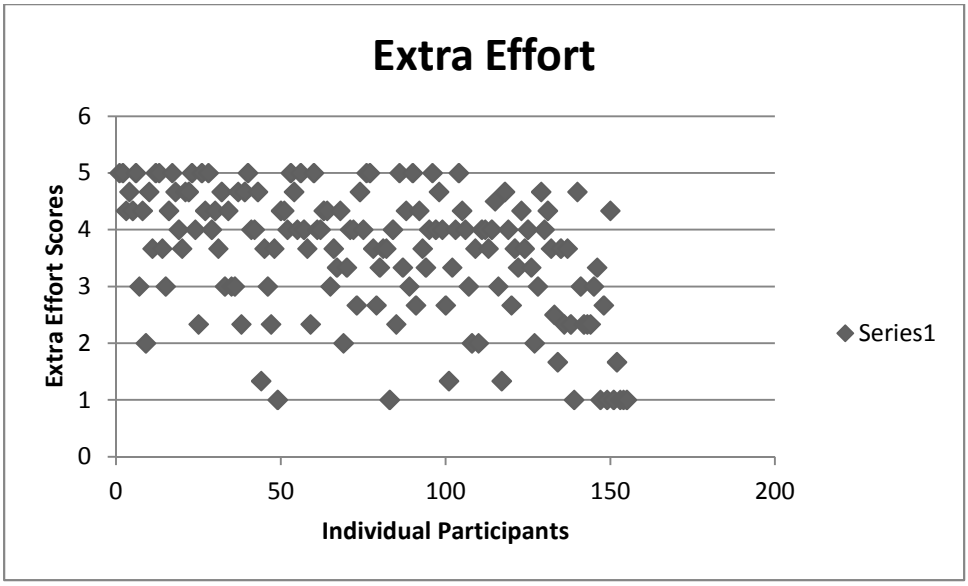

Figure 13. Extra effort

According to the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Manual, extra effort is an outcome of leadership in which leaders motivate employees to willingly put in extra effort and try harder (Bass & Avolio, 2004). The 50 percentile score for extra effort is 2.74. In this case, 119 out of 155 participants scored at the 50 percentile level or above, representing approximately 77% of the sample scoring at or higher than 50 percent of the norm. The 60 percentile score for extra effort is 3.00. In this study, 119 participants scored at the 60 percentile level or above, representing approximately 77% of the sample scoring at or higher than 60 percent of the norm. The 95 percentile score for extra effort

is 4.00. Seventy-eight participants scored 4.00 or above, representing approximately 50% of the participants scoring at or higher than 95 percent of the norm.

Effectiveness

Participants reported the following effectiveness scores (Figure 14):

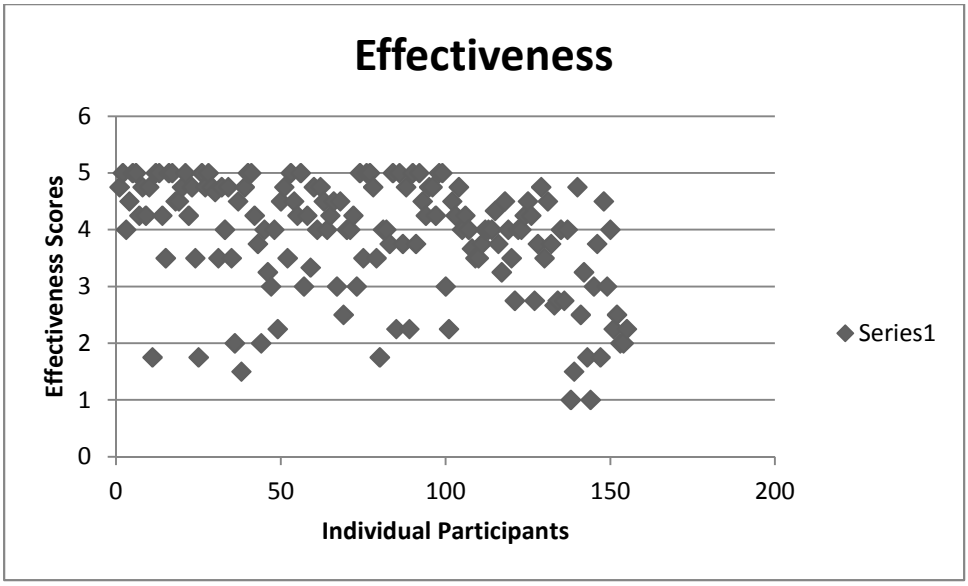

Figure 14. Effectiveness

According to the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Manual, effectiveness is an outcome of leadership in which leaders motivate employees to be effective in all aspects of their positions and to make the group as a whole more effective (Bass & Avolio, 2004). The 50 percentile score for effectiveness is 3.25. In this case, 121 out of 155 participants scored at the 50 percentile level or above, representing approximately 78% of the sample scoring at or higher than 50 percent of the norm. The 60 percentile score for effectiveness is 3.25. In this study, 121 participants scored at the 60 percentile level or above, representing approximately 78% of the sample scoring at or higher than 60 percent of the norm. The 95 percentile score for effectiveness is 4.00. Ninety-six

participants scored 4.00 or above, representing approximately 62% of the participants scoring at or higher than 95 percent of the norm.

Satisfaction

Participants reported the following satisfaction scores (Figure 15):

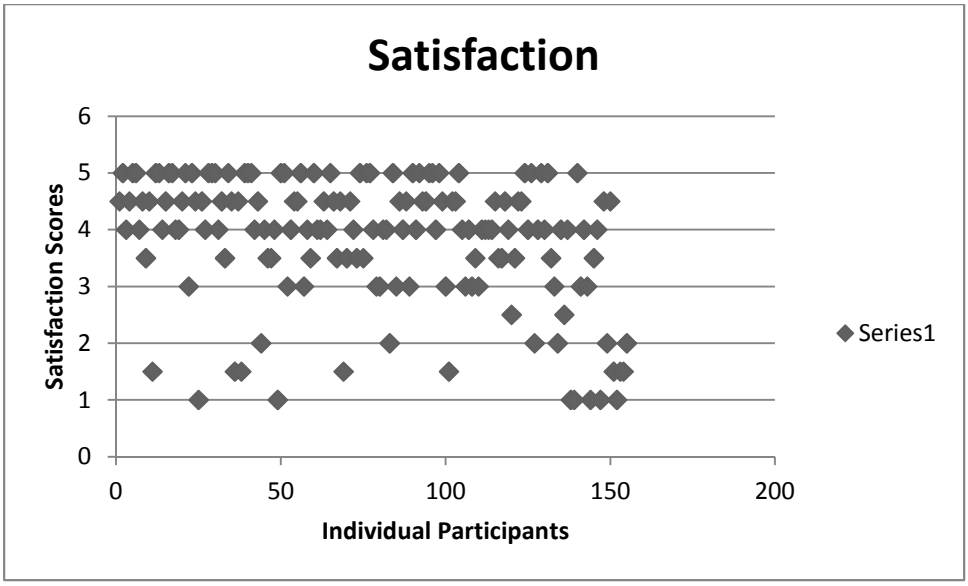

Figure 15. Satisfaction

According to the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Manual, satisfaction with the leader is an outcome of leadership in which leaders work in satisfactory ways with the employees (Bass & Avolio, 2004). The 50 percentile score for satisfaction is 3.00. In this case, 121 out of 155 participants scored at the 50 percentile level or above, representing approximately 85% of the sample scoring at or higher than 50 percent of the norm. The 60 percentile score for satisfaction is 3.50. In this study, 118 participants scored at the 60 percentile level or above, representing approximately 76% of the sample scoring at or higher than 60 percent of the norm. The 95 percentile score for satisfaction is 4.00. One

hundred and three participants scored 4.00 or above, representing approximately 66% of the participants scoring at or higher than 95 percent of the norm.

Utrecht Work Engagement Scale

Vigor

Participants reported the following vigor scores (Figure 16):

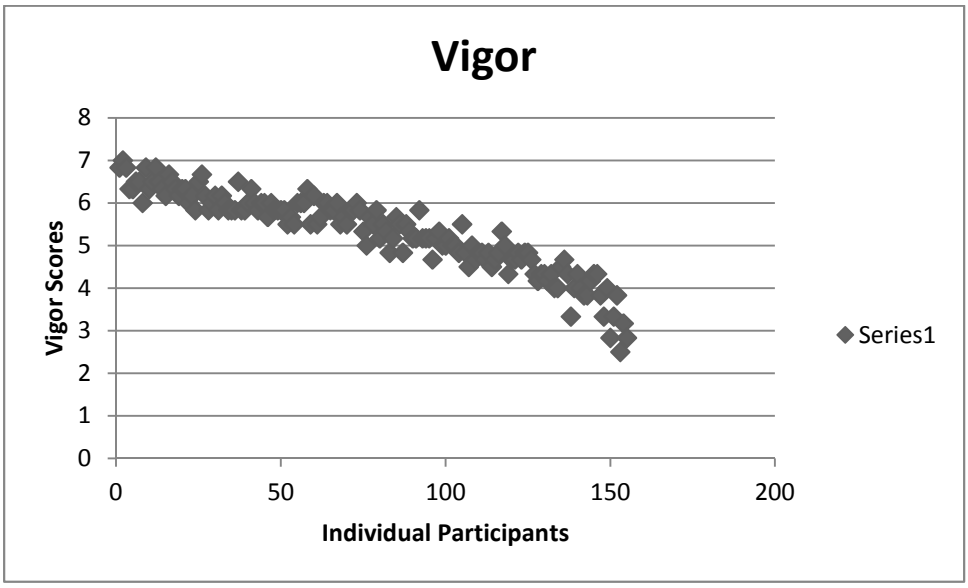

Figure 16. Vigor

According to the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale, vigor is a state of high energy where employees are able to work at a high level of efficiency (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). Participants rated themselves on a scale of 0-6. Low scores were those falling between 2.18-3.20. Average scores were those falling between 3.21-4.80. High scores were those falling between 4.81-5.60. Very high scores were those scoring above 5.61. Only four participants scored in the low category, representing 2.5% of the sample. Thirty-six participants scored in the average range, representing 23% of the sample.

Forty-three participants scored in the high range, representing 28% of the sample. Seventy-two participants scored in the very high range, representing 46% of the sample.

Dedication

Participants reported the following dedication scores (Figure 17):

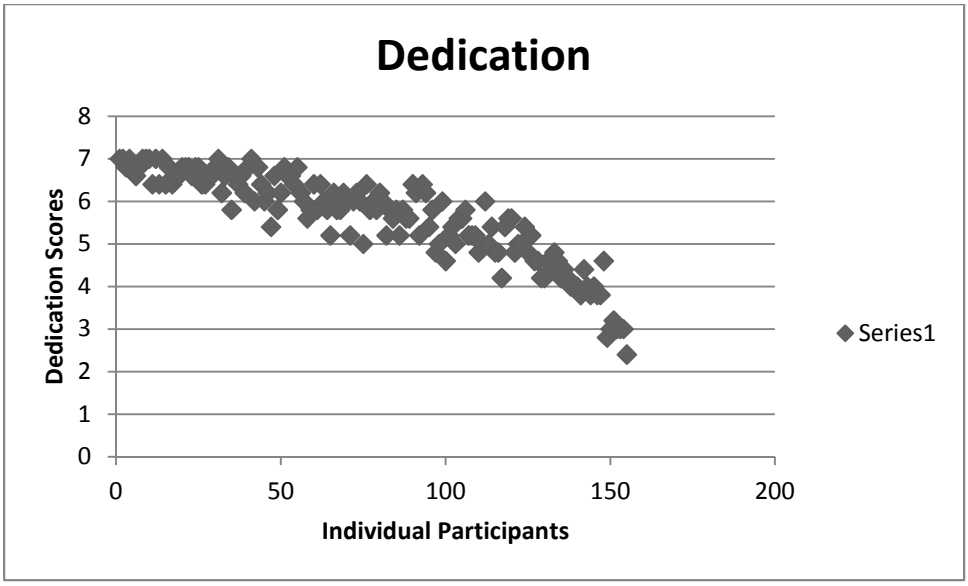

Figure 17. Dedication

According to the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale, dedication exists when an employee feels inspired by his/her work and finds purpose in it (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). Participants rated themselves on a scale of 0-6. Low scores were those falling between 1.61-3.00. Average scores were those falling between 3.01-4.90. High scores were those falling between 4.91-5.79. Very high scores were those scoring above 5.80. Only six participants scored in the low category, representing 4% of the sample. Thirty-one participants scored in the average range, representing 20% of the sample. Thirty-one participants scored in the high range, representing 20% of the sample. Eighty-seven participants scored in the very high range, representing 56% of the sample.

Absorption

Participants reported the following absorption scores (Figure 18):

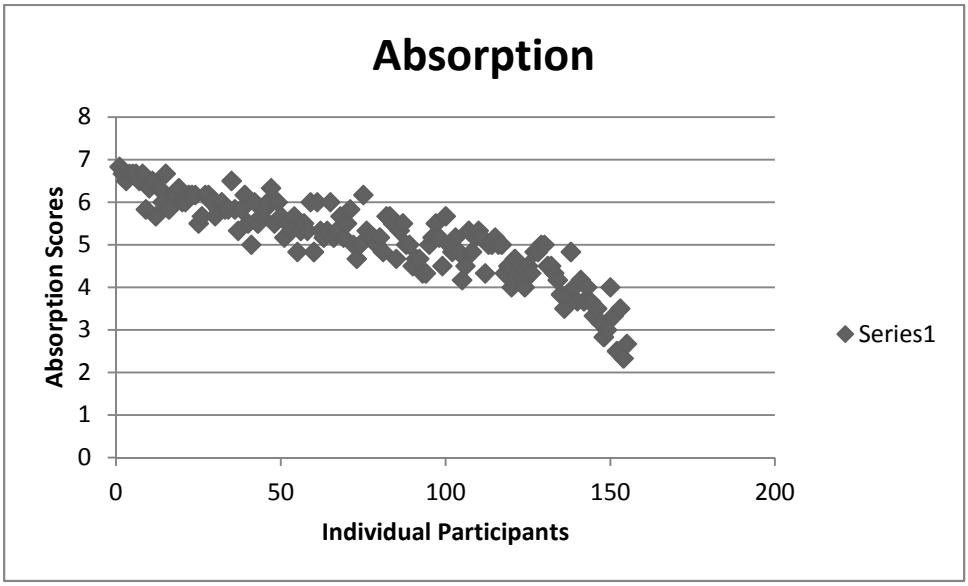

Figure 18. Absorption

According to the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale, absorption occurs when employees get lost in their work, losing all track of time, focusing solely on their duties (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). Participants rated themselves on a scale of 0-6. Low scores were those falling between 1.61-2.75. Average scores were those falling between 2.76-4.40. High scores were those falling between 4.41-5.35. Very high scores were those scoring above 5.36. Only three participants scored in the low category, representing 2% of the sample. Twenty-eight participants scored in the average range, representing 18% of the sample. Sixty participants scored in the high range, representing 39% of the sample. Sixty-four participants scored in the very high range, representing 41% of the sample.

Work Locus of Control Scale

Participants reported the following locus of control scores (Figure 19):

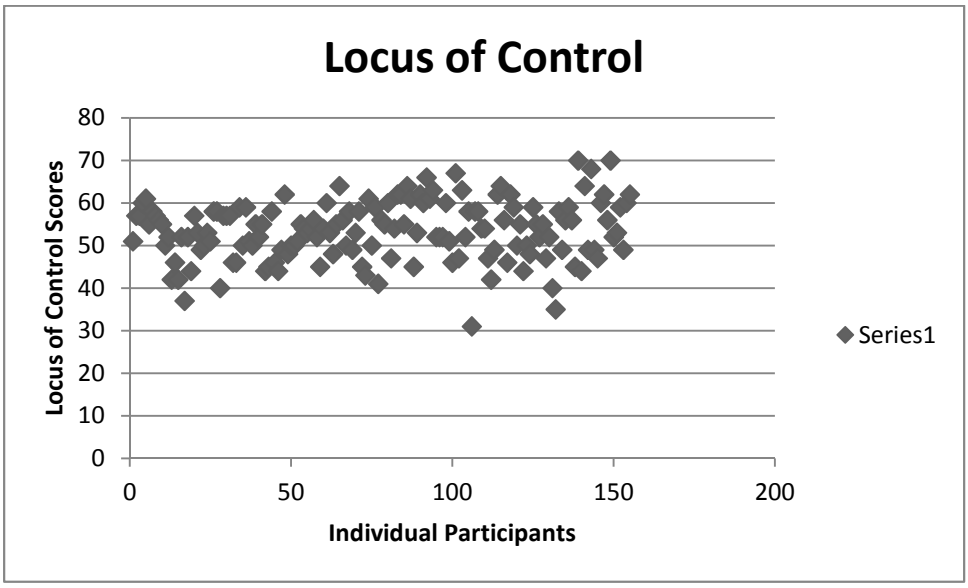

Figure 19. Locus of control

Individuals who believe that their actions predict their own consequences have an internal locus of control, while those who feel that the actions of others predict their own consequences have an external locus of control (Tillman et al., 2010). According to the Work Locus of Control Scale, the norms for the United States is 39.5 and range from 16 to 96 (Spector, 1988). This is a self-reported survey, and individuals respond to questions on a scale of 0-6 (Spector, 1988). The higher the score, the more external locus of control an individual has (Spector, 1988). Scores ranged from 70-31.

Summary

The analysis conducted supported the hypothesis that transformational leadership positively affects employee engagement in nonprofit organizations to a strong degree. The descriptive statistics overwhelmingly demonstrated that employees believed their leaders were more transformational than transactional and considered themselves to be high or very highly engaged. However, locus of control had no significant mediating

effect on employee engagement. Thus the null hypothesis was supported. Slightly more than half of the employees reported having an external locus of control.

The following chapter, Chapter 5, will provide the results, conclusions, and recommendations from the research conducted in this chapter.

Chapter 5: Results, Conclusions, and Recommendations

This chapter provides the analysis of the research in Chapter 4 that was based on the purpose of the study in Chapter 1 (that transformational leadership in nonprofit organizations can improve productivity and will ultimately lead to improved organizational success within the nonprofit sector) and hypotheses and was supported by the literature review in Chapter 2 using the research design and questions in Chapter 3. The focus of this chapter is to present the findings in a meaningful manner to support positive social change, and this study will add to the body of literature that exists on the subject of transformational leadership, employee engagement, and locus of control. The analysis of the two research questions and hypotheses developed throughout this dissertation will be explained in detail, and sections discussing the research's limitations and proposed future research will follow.

Research Overview

This study examined whether transformational leadership, if present, had an effect on employee engagement within nonprofit organizations. It also sought to determine if locus of control had a mediating effect on employee engagement, if present, with regard to those same employees. Employees from 30 nonprofit organizations located throughout the country were surveyed for this study using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale, and the Work Locus of Control Scale survey tools as well as basic demographic information. Employees were asked to rate their leaders on the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire and themselves on the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale and Work Locus of Control Scale to determine if any relationship

between transformational leadership and employee engagement existed and whether locus of control mediated that effect. According to the analysis in Chapter 4, a relationship was found to exist. Transformational leadership did positively affect employee engagement. Locus of control did not fully mediate that relationship, so that the null hypothesis could not be rejected. Interpretation of this relationship based on the data will follow below.

A vast body of knowledge exists on the subjects of transformational leadership and employee engagement. A somewhat lesser body of research exists on the topic of locus of control. Transformational leadership has been clearly shown to increase productivity by motivating employees to achieve more and dedicate themselves to the organization's mission, while employees who are engaged were generally found to have less symptoms of burnout, fatigue, and stress. They were also found to be more invigorated by and satisfied with their work. Through studies such as this, leaders may be encouraged to actively practice transformational leadership, and organizations may attempt to increase employees' engagement levels all to increase productivity and decrease turnover rates.

The data were analyzed using multiple regression through Statistical Package for the Social Sciences Statistics Student Version 19.0. Other tests used in this study include the *F* test, R-squared adjusted, and a *t* test.

Findings

Transformational Leadership

The first research question was whether transformational leadership, if present, affects employee engagement in nonprofit organizations. Based on the analysis conducted, as transformation leadership increases by one unit, employee engagement increases by 0.62 units, which supports the research question that transformational leadership does affect the level of employees' engagement.

Transformational leadership was found to be present when leaders engaged in certain behaviors of idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Idealized influence is the concept that transformational leaders influence employees by their positive qualities and actions. Such leaders also communicate with employees in order to empower them and create ownership in their jobs (Bass et al., 2003). In other words, transformational leaders influence employees by their very qualities and actions (inspirational motivation). Transformational leaders inspire followers by challenging them, creating significance to their jobs, and supporting each employee through positive visions and goals (Bass et al., 2003). These leaders motivate others to reach goals previously considered unattainable (intellectual stimulation; Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). Transformational leaders also encourage individual participation and contributions, inspiring creativity in decision-making and problem solving (Bass et al., 2003). Through such involvement, followers are persuaded to speak their minds without fear of retribution (individualized consideration; Bass et al., 2003). These qualities are in sharp contrast to transactional leaders who use monetary and

other types of currency to encourage employee participation in meeting their goals (Bass & Avolio, 1993). This may be effective, but it does not create the motivation to reach past those stated goals (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Further, laissez-faire leaders actually do very little leading but rather avoid confrontation and responsibility (Bass, 1999).

In this study, a significant number of employees reported that their leader was more transformational than would be expected. No norm is given for transformational leadership, yet 62 out 151 leaders were scored at 75 or higher. Transformational leaders are those that inspire and motivate employees to go above and beyond expectations and take pride and satisfaction in their jobs, while transactional leaders typically use contingent rewards to motivate employees to meet their goals (Bass et al., 2003).

More specifically, a majority of the participants experienced idealized influence (attributed), idealized influence (behavior), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration, all of which predict the existence of transformational leadership. In fact, the majority of the participants reported that their leaders were more transformational than transactional. It should be noted that transformational leaders may possess attributes associated with transactional leaders, as was shown in Chapter 4. Moreover, the leadership outcomes for transformational leadership were observed to be what would be expected in the presence of transformational leadership. A high number of participants displayed extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction. These results indicate how effective transformational leadership can be in a nonprofit organization to increase efficiency and performance and reduce turnover.

Employee Engagement

Employees were considered to be engaged when they possessed vigor, dedication, and absorption. Employees show signs of vigor when their energy levels and mental spirits were high and when they failed to become discouraged in their work even when difficulties arise (Schaufeli et al., 2002b). Dedication is defined as having pride and enthusiasm in one's work and welcoming challenges (Schaufeli et al., 2002b). Finally, absorption is found when employees are mindful and present in their work without regard to the passing of time (Schaufeli et al., 2002b). Engaged employees are more satisfied with their work and generally do not consider leaving their jobs (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2008). Instead, they are motivated and welcome challenges, thus increasing productivity (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2008). This engagement can be infectious (Bakker & Xanthopoulou, 2009). When one employee is engaged, others around them may become engaged (Bakker & Xanthopoulou, 2009). However, the same is true of burnout. It can be contagious from one employee to another (Bakker & Xanthopoulou, 2009). These findings are significant because it would benefit all organizations, not just nonprofit organizations, to foster environments where employees are engaged to increase productivity and decrease turnover.

This study supported the hypothesis that transformational leadership scores do predict employee engagement in nonprofit organizations. A moderate correlation between dedication and extra effort (+0.51) was found. Likewise, a lesser moderate correlation between absorption and extra effort (+0.445) was found. Additionally, less than moderate correlations between dedication and idealized influence (attributed; +0.456) idealized

influence (behavior; +0.404), individual consideration (+0.407), management-by-exception (passive; +0.429), effectiveness (+0.467), and satisfaction (+0.418) were identified. Finally, weak correlations between vigor and effectiveness (+.440), and extra effort (+0.482) were noted. No other, stronger correlations between the engagement characteristics and the transformational aspects or outcomes were detected.

Specifically, the majority of the participants enjoyed vigor, dedication, and absorption, all of which are predictors of employee engagement. Engaged employees are more efficient and productive than unengaged employees and are more likely to be immune to feelings of burnout. This suggests that transformational leadership positively influences employee engagement, leading to more satisfied employees. It further suggests that transformational leadership is an effective leadership approach for nonprofit organizations to improve success and decrease turnover.

Locus of Control

The second research question sought to establish whether locus of control acted as a mediating variable on the level of employee engagement, if present. Based on the analysis performed in this study, the mediating effect of locus of control can only be partially supported. The null hypothesis, locus of control does not mediate the relationship between transformational leadership scores and employee engagement in nonprofit organizations, could not be rejected.

Locus of control is a theory based on the assumption that individuals have either an internal locus of control or an external locus of control (Srivastava, 2009). Individuals who possess an internal locus of control perceive that their own actions predict their

consequences and outcomes, while individuals with an external locus of control perceive that others (than themselves such as supervisors or managers) are responsible for the consequences and outcomes of their lives (Tillman et al., 2010). Internal job control positively influences job demands and allows individuals to better handle stressful workplace scenarios without negative health consequences (Karimi & Alipour, 2011). Employees with internal job control are likely to be proactive in finding practical solutions to conflict, while employees with external job control generally avoid conflict (Qiang, Bowling, & Eschleman, 2010; Taylor, 2010; Treven, 2010). Individuals with external locus of control often experience stress and burnout (Mohapatra & Gupta, 2010; Srivastava, 2009). Additionally, leaders with internal locus of control are generally supportive and involved with their employees (Byrne, 2011) and share many characteristics of transformational leaders including collaboration, support, participatory involvement, and communication (Mohapatra & Gupta, 2010). Internal locus of control is also linked to a decrease in turnover rates and higher performance (Tillman et al., 2010), because those with an internal locus of control take responsibility for their own actions (McKnight & Wright, 2011; Paino et al., 2011). These findings are similar to the increased performance resulting from employee engagement and transformational leadership, suggesting that leaders with internal locus of control may be likely to be transformational leadership, and employees with internal locus of control may be more engaged. Organizations, thus, cannot ignore underlying personal characteristics when recruiting to retain employees and to better match individuals to positions.

This study did not fully support the hypothesis that locus of control mediates the relationship between transformational leadership scores and employee engagement in nonprofit organizations. Results were not sufficient to establish a correlation between locus of control and employee engagement.

Summary of Findings

In general, the findings of this study demonstrated that transformational leadership positively affected employee engagement levels in nonprofit organizations. Moderate correlations between some engagement characteristics and transformational aspects and outcomes were noted. However, no strong correlations were found. Although locus of control was partially responsible for mediating levels of employee engagement, this study did not demonstrate that locus of control fully explained engagement levels.

Implications of the Study: Social Change

Walden University expects students to conduct their studies towards effecting positive social change. That concept, according to Walden University's website, is described as

> Walden believes that knowledge is most valuable when put to use for the greater good. Students, alumni, and faculty are committed to improving the human and social condition by creating and applying ideas to promote the development of individuals, communities, and organizations, as well as society as a whole. (Walden University, 2014, para. 7)

This study contributes to positive social change through its support of and findings that transformational leadership increases levels of employee engagement in

nonprofit organizations. Nonprofit organizations are the very foundation of positive social change by creating awareness for causes and injustices and lobbying for reform. Nonprofit organizations shine the light on social issues, working to change society for the better. Without nonprofit organizations, it is safe to say that as a society, each of us would suffer greatly. Nonprofit organizations work towards education and relief for such causes as health issues, civil rights, youth development, animal rights, and a vast array of other necessary social impacts.

It is a known fact that nonprofit organizations spend great effort to collect donations, grants, and other support. Fundraising is often a central task in nonprofit organizations. Thus, their existence is based on the money they can raise to fulfill their missions and goals. Therefore, identifying areas for improvement to increase productivity and decrease employee turnover (as well as to retain volunteers) is paramount to nonprofit organizations' success.

Likewise, nonprofit organizations must ensure that their leaders are ethical and transparent in their work to prevent corruption, scandals, and loss of sources of funding. Transformational leaders, by definition, are ethical and conscientious and lead by example (Schyns, et al., 2011). In a social sense, improved leadership is very relevant and much needed in society, business, and politics to overcome challenges and reach understanding. This study's literature review demonstrates how transformational leadership positively enhances employee/employer relationships and increases productivity, motivating individuals to reach ever higher than the limitations of their job duties (Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, & Bakker, 2002). Likewise, it establishes

that employees who are engaged are more productive than their unengaged counterparts and take a more active role in their jobs (de Lange, De Witte, & Notelaers, 2008). Together, this study reveals that transformational leadership enhances employee engagement. This finding is simply too remarkable for nonprofit organizations to ignore to increase their bottom line and reduce waste wherever possible.

Social Change

In a social sense, improved leadership is very relevant and much needed in society, business, and politics to overcome challenges and reach understanding. In a very real sense, nonprofit organizations are the root of positive social change by creating awareness for causes and injustices and lobbying for reform. Assisting nonprofit organizations better manage their operations and provide leadership for their success is an important step in creating positive social change. Nonprofit organizations, in their role of raising awareness of social causes and driving public policy, are instrumental in positive social change.

Nonprofit organizations are critical to society and positive social change. Rarely does one individual contribute to wide-scale, positive social change. Rather, it is the collective action of nonprofit organizations unified for the purpose of promoting a cause, lobbying for support, and changing society for the better that leads to positive social change.

Nonprofit organizations exist for a wide variety of purposes and causes and are a necessary part of promoting positive social change through increasing awareness of issues and active development of programs and services designed to aid and support

those issues. Indeed, nonprofit organizations are considered the heroes of society. Considering the enormity of the social responsibility and reform that they assume, it is reasonable to state that without them society would be greatly diminished.

Study Limitations

This study contains several significant limitations, and further research is necessary to negate the effect of these limitations. These will be discussed below.

Errors in Data Collection

As with any study, errors in the collection, analysis, review, and processing can occur. All steps to limit such errors were taken. Use of an electronic survey tool (Survey Monkey) assisted with the accurate collection of data, and raw data were easily downloaded from the electronic survey tool. The data were loaded directly into the statistical software (SPSS) from the electronic download. No manual processing was conducted. All statistical analyses were conducted with the statistical software.

Self-Report Questionnaires

This study used a set of three self-reported questionnaires to survey individuals. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire asked employees to rate their leaders'. The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale asked employees to rate their own levels of engagement. The Work Locus of Control Scale asked employees to rate their perception of control. It is very possible that employees did not accurately respond to the questions. More involved interviews could improve those results.

Survey Selection and Research Design

Both the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire and the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale were chosen for this study due to the exhaustive literature using both scales. Each has been proven to consistently be reliable and valid in multiple locations and multiple settings. However, as noted above, participants' results may not have been accurate, and no further confirmation was conducted. The Work Locus of Control Scale was chosen as a good option from a few available surveys. While it was met with some negative feedback, such that a two or three factor test could more accurately predict internal or external locus of control as opposed to Spector's (1988) one factor model (Oliver et al., 2006).

Further Study and Research

This study was conducted by surveying employees in 30 nonprofit organizations around the country. Conducting a similar study in one large nonprofit organization and focusing on one specific leader (or conducting the study several times, focusing on several leaders) may prove to be more worthwhile, leading to more appropriate and useful results. Likewise, conducting this study in larger nonprofit organizations in several different areas of social awareness may shed light on classes of nonprofit organizations where leadership training may be more effective.

The lack of significant correlations between the engagement characteristics and transformational aspects and outcomes is somewhat surprising. Additional studies on transformational leadership's effect on employee engagement may uncover stronger relationships between these variables with consistency. As each engagement

characteristic is separate and unique at the same time each transformational aspect and outcome is separate and unique, one would expect to find predictable relationships.

Conclusion

This study contributes to the existing body of literature on transformational leadership, employee engagement, and locus of control, as well as building upon the lack of research based in the nonprofit sector. It also provides a path for future research. The aspect of locus of control should be further researched to determine if a relationship can be established between locus of control and employee engagement. Using a different survey instrument may assist with that effort. Yet this study did establish a relationship between transformational leadership and employee engagement with transformational leadership positively affecting employee engagement.

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Appendix A: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

According to Mind Garden (Mind Garden, Inc., 2010) copyright permission, 5 random sample questions from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire may be used in this dissertation. They are as follows:

3. I fail to interfere until problems become serious

6. I talk about my most important values and beliefs

12. I wait for things to go wrong before taking action

20. I demonstrate that problems must become chronic before I take action

32. I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments

Appendix B: Utrecht Work Engagement Scale

Work & Well-being Survey (UWES) ©

The following 17 statements are about how you feel at work. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. If you have never had this feeling, cross the "0" (zero) in the space after the statement. If you have had this feeling, indicate how often you feel it by crossing the number (from 1 to 6) that best describes how frequently you feel that way.

	Almost never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very often	Always
0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Never	A few times a year or less	Once a month or less	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Every day

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

Appendix C: Work Locus of Control Scale

Work Locus of Control Scale Copyright Paul E. Spector, All rights reserved, 1988						
The following questions concern your beliefs about jobs in general. They do not refer only to your present job.	Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
1. A job is what you make of it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. On most jobs, people can pretty much accomplish whatever they set out to accomplish	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. If you know what you want out of a job, you can find a job that gives it to you	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. If employees are unhappy with a decision made by their boss, they should do something about it	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Getting the job you want is mostly a matter of luck	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Making money is primarily a matter of good fortune	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Most people are capable of doing their jobs well if they make the effort	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. In order to get a really good job, you need to have family members or friends in high places	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Promotions are usually a matter of good fortune	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. When it comes to landing a really good job, who you know is more important than what you know	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. Promotions are given to employees who perform well on the job	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. To make a lot of money you have to know the right people	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. It takes a lot of luck to be an outstanding employee on most jobs	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. People who perform their jobs well generally get rewarded	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. Most employees have more influence on their supervisors than they think they do	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. The main difference between people who make a lot of money and people who make a little money is luck	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix D: Informed Consent

CONSENT FORM

You are invited to take part in a research study of leadership's effect on employees in nonprofit organizations. The researcher is inviting all full-time employees to be in the study. This form is part of a process called "informed consent" to allow you to understand this study before deciding whether to take part.

This study is being conducted by a researcher named Jacqueline Myers, who is a doctoral student at Walden University.

Background Information:

The purpose of this study is to look at leadership from the employees' point of view.

Procedures:

If you agree to be in this study, you will be asked to:

- Complete a total of 3 surveys.
- It should take approximately 20-25 minutes to complete the surveys.
- Once the combined surveys are completed, the results will be sent to Jacqueline Myers, only.
- All survey results are completely anonymous.

Here are some sample questions:

- I am proud of the work that I do.
- To me, my job is challenging.
- A job is what you make of it.

- Promotions are given to employees who perform well on the job.

Voluntary Nature of the Study:

This study is voluntary. Everyone will respect your decision of whether or not you choose to be in the study. No one at your organization will treat you differently if you decide not to be in the study. If you decide to join the study now, you can still change your mind later. You may stop at any time.

Risks and Benefits of Being in the Study:

Being in this type of study involves some risk of the minor discomforts that can be encountered in daily life, such as discomfort and fatigue from sitting at a computer for 20-25 minutes. Being in this study would not pose risk to your safety or wellbeing.

One potential benefit of the study is to better understand how leaders affect employees in nonprofit organizations.

Payment:

You will receive no payment for participating in this survey.

Privacy:

Any information you provide will be kept anonymous. The researcher will not use your personal information for any purposes outside of this research project. Also, the researcher will not include your name or anything else that could identify you in the study reports. Data will be kept secure by protecting the results with a password protected external hard drive. Data will be kept for a period of at least 5 years, as required by the university.

Contacts and Questions:

Walden University's approval number for this study is 08-29-13-0137367, and it expires on August 28, 2014.

Please print or save this consent form for your records.

Statement of Consent:

I have read the above information and I feel I understand the study well enough to make a decision about my involvement. By clicking the link below, I understand that I am agreeing to the terms described above.

Appendix E: Permission to Use Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

Sales Receipt

Order #27835 Date: 09/10/2013 20:16:33 EDT

Thank you for your order. A copy of this sales receipt will be e-mailed to you for your records. Please login to access your electronic products (login directions are at the bottom of this page). If you ordered a report as part of an academic course, your product requires additional set up and is not immediately available. Please do not reload this page or click the back button or your credit card may be charged twice.

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Ship To:		Bill To:	
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Email Address:	[redacted]	**Email Address:**	[redacted]
Phone Number:	[redacted]	**Phone Number:**	[redacted]
Fax Number:		**Fax Number:**	
Company:		**Company:**	
Address:	[redacted] US	**Address:**	[redacted] US

Product	Code	Quantity	Price/Each	Total
MLQR3 Manual Format: downloadable PDF file	MLQ-Manual	1	$40.00	$40.00
MLQ Reproduction License Licenses: 300 Format: downloadable PDF file	MLQ-License	1	$228.00	$228.00

Shipping: Online Product Delivery: $0.00
Sales Tax: $0.00
Total: $268.00

Special Instructions:

Login instructions

Please go to www.mindgarden.com (this link will open in a separate tab or window).
At the top click on Transform.
New customers: In the green box enter your email address - [redacted] - and create a password.
Returning customers: In the blue box enter your email address - [redacted] - and previously created password.
After logging in, you will see a link to your products.

If you have any trouble viewing documents, download the latest version of Adobe Acrobat Reader (free over the internet).

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Appendix F: Permission to Use Utrecht Work Engagement Scale

Notice for potential users of the UWES and the DUWAS

You are welcomed to use both tests provided that you agree to the following two conditions:

1. The use is for non-commercial educational or research purposes only. This means that no one is charging anyone a fee.

2. You agree to share some of your data, detailed below, with the authors. We will add these data to our international database and use them only for the purpose of further validating the UWES (e.g., updating norms, assessing cross-national equivalence).

Data to be shared:

For each sample, the raw test-scores, age, gender, and (if available) occupation. Please adhere to the original answering format and sequential order of the items.

For each sample a brief narrative description of its size, occupation(s) covered, language, and country.

Please send data to: . Preferably the raw data file should be in SPSS or EXCEL format.

By continuing to the TEST FORMS you agree with the above statement.

Appendix G: Permission to Use Work Locus of Control Scale

Sharing of Results for Researchers Who Use My Scales

All of my scales are copyrighted. I allow free use under two conditions.

1. The use is for noncommercial educational or research purposes. This means no one is charging anyone a fee. If you are using any of my scales for consulting purposes, there is a fee.

2. You agree to share results with me. This is how I continue to update the norms and bibliography.

What Results Do I Need?

1. Means per subscale and total score

2. Sample size

3. Brief description of sample, e.g., 220 hospital nurses. I don't need to know the organization name if it is sensitive.

4. Name of country where collected, and if outside of the U.S., the language used. I am especially interested in nonAmerican samples.

5. Standard deviations per subscale and total score (optional)

6. Coefficient alpha per subscale and total score (optional)

I would love to see copies of research reports (thesis, dissertation, conference paper, journal article, etc.) in which you used the JSS. Summaries are fine for long documents (e.g., dissertation), and e-mailed documents are preferred (saves copy and mail costs). Be sure to indicate how you want the work cited in the bibliography.

You can send the material to me via e-mail: pspector [at sign goes here] usf.edu or via regular mail: Paul Spector, Department of Psychology, PCD 4118, University of South Florida, Tampa, FL 33620 USA.

Last modified January 7, 2011.

Appendix H: Survey Monkey's Privacy and Security Policies

Privacy Policy

Last updated: March 28, 2012

This privacy policy explains how SurveyMonkey handles your personal information and data. We value your trust, so we've strived to present this policy in clear, plain language instead of legalese. The policy is structured so you can quickly find answers to the questions which interest you the most.

This privacy policy applies to all the products, services and websites offered by SurveyMonkey.com, LLC, SurveyMonkey Europe Sarl, and their affiliates, except where otherwise noted. We refer to those products, services and websites collectively as the "services" in this policy. Some services have supplementary privacy statements that explain in more detail our specific privacy practices in relation to them. Unless otherwise noted, our services are provided by SurveyMonkey.com, LLC inside of the United States and by SurveyMonkey Europe Sarl outside of the United States.

Truste
TRUSTe. SurveyMonkey is certified by TRUSTe under its Privacy Seal program. TRUSTe is an independent third party which has reviewed our privacy policies and practices for compliance with its program requirements.

European Safe Harbors. SurveyMonkey.com, LLC complies with the US-EU and US-Swiss Safe Harbor Frameworks developed by the U.S. Department of Commerce regarding the collection, use and retention of personal information from EU member countries and Switzerland. We have certified, and TRUSTe has verified, that we adhere to the Safe Harbor Privacy Principles of notice, choice, onward transfer, security, data integrity, access and enforcement. View our certification on the U.S. Department of Commerce's Safe Harbor website.

Questions? For questions regarding our privacy policy or practices, contact SurveyMonkey by mail at 285 Hamilton Avenue, Suite 500, Palo Alto, CA 94301, USA, or electronically through this form. You may contact TRUSTe if feel your question has not been satisfactorily addressed.

Key Privacy Points: The Stuff You Really Care About

IF YOU CREATE SURVEYS:

- Your survey data is owned by you. Not only that, but SurveyMonkey treats your surveys as if they were private. We don't sell them to anyone and we don't use the survey responses you collect for our own purposes, except in a limited set of circumstances (e.g. if we are compelled by a subpoena, or if you've made your survey responses public).

- We safeguard respondents' email addresses. To make it easier for you to invite people to take your surveys via email, you mayupload lists of email addresses, in which case SurveyMonkey acts as a mere custodian of that data. We don't sell these email addresses and we use them only as directed by you and in accordance with this policy. The same goes for any email addresses collected by your surveys.

- We keep your data securely. Read our Security Statement for more information.

- Survey data is stored on servers located in the United States. More information about this is available if you are located in Canada orEurope. SurveyMonkey will process your survey data on your behalf and under your instructions (including the ones agreed to in this privacy policy).

IF YOU ANSWER SURVEYS:

- Surveys are administered by survey creators. Survey creators conduct thousands of surveys each day using our services. We host the surveys on our websites and collect the responses that you submit to the survey creator. If you have any questions about a survey you are taking, please contact the survey creator directly as SurveyMonkey is not responsible for the content of that survey or your responses to it. The survey creator is usually the same person that invited you to take the survey and sometimes they have their own privacy policy.

- Are your responses anonymous? This depends on how the survey creator has configured the survey. Contact them to find out, or click here to read more about respondent anonymity.

- We don't sell your responses to third parties. SurveyMonkey doesn't sell or share your survey responses with third party advertisers or marketers (although the survey creator might, so check with them). SurveyMonkey merely acts as a custodian on behalf of the survey creator who controls your data.

- If you think a survey violates our Terms of Use or may be engaging in illegal activity, click here to report it.

Survey Creators & Survey Respondents

SurveyMonkey is used by survey creators (people who create and conduct surveys online) and survey respondents (people who answer those surveys). The information we receive from survey creators and survey respondents and how we handle it differs, so we have split this privacy policy into two parts. Click on the one that applies to you:

Privacy for Survey Creators
Privacy for Survey Respondents

PRIVACY FOR SURVEY CREATORS

1. What information does SurveyMonkey collect?

When you use SurveyMonkey, we collect information relating to you and your use of our services from a variety of sources. These are listed below. The sections afterward describe what we do with this information.

Information we collect directly from you

- Registration information. You need a SurveyMonkey account before you can create surveys on SurveyMonkey. When you register for an account, we collect your username, password and email address. If you choose to register by using a third party account (such as your Google or Facebook account), please see "Information from third parties" below.

- Billing information. If you make a payment to SurveyMonkey, we require you to provide your billing details, such as a name, address, email address and financial information corresponding to your selected method of payment (e.g. a credit card number and expiration date or a bank account number). If you provide a billing address, we will regard that as the location of the account holder.

- Account settings. You can set various preferences and personal details on pages like your account settings page. For example, your default language, timezone and communication preferences (e.g. opting in or out of receiving marketing emails from SurveyMonkey).

- Address book information. We allow you to import email addresses into an Address Book and associate email addresses withemail invitation collectors so you can easily invite people to take your surveys via email. We don't use these email addresses for our own purposes or email them except at your direction.

- Survey data. We store your survey data (questions and responses) for you.

- Other data you intentionally share. We may collect your personal information or data if you submit it to us in other contexts. For example, if you provide us with a testimonial, or participate in a SurveyMonkey contest.

We safeguard your respondents' email addresses. Rest assured, SurveyMonkey will not email your survey respondents or people in your Address Book except at your direction. We definitely don't sell those email addresses to any third parties.

Information we collect about you from other sources

- Usage data. We collect usage data about you whenever you interact with our services. This may include which webpages you visit, what you click on, when you performed those actions, and so on. Additionally, like most websites today, our web servers keep log files that record data each time a device accesses those servers. The log files contain data about the nature of each access, including originating IP addresses.

- Device data. We collect data from the device and application you use to access our services, such as your IP address and browser type. We may also infer your geographic location based on your IP address.

- Referral data. If you arrive at a SurveyMonkey website from an external source (such as a link on another website or in an email), we record information about the source that referred you to us.

- Information from third parties. We may collect your personal information or data from third parties if you give permission to those third parties to share your information with us. For example, you have the option of registering and signing into SurveyMonkey with your Facebook account details. If you do this, the authentication of your logon details is handled by Facebook and we only collect information about your Facebook account that you expressly agree to share with us at the time you give permission for your SurveyMonkey account to be linked to your Facebook account.

- Information from page tags. We use third party tracking services that employ cookies and page tags (also known as web beacons) to collect aggregated and anonymized data about visitors to our websites. This data includes usage and user statistics.

How does SurveyMonkey use the information we collect?

We treat your survey questions and responses as information that is private to you. We know that, in many cases, you want to keep your survey questions and responses (which we collectively refer to as "survey data") private. Unless you decide toshare your survey questions and/or responses with the public, we do not use your survey data for our own purposes, except in the limited circumstances

described in this privacy policy or unless we have your express consent. We do not sell your survey data to third parties.

Generally, we use the information we collect from you in connection with providing our services to you and, on your behalf, to your survey respondents. For example, specific ways we use this information are listed below. (See the next section of this privacy policy to see who we share your information with.)

- To provide you with our services.
  - This includes providing you with customer support, which requires us to access your information to assist you (such as with survey design and creation or technical troubleshooting).
    - Certain features of our services use the content of your survey questions and responses and your account information in additional ways. Feature descriptions will clearly identify where this is the case. You can avoid the use of your survey data in this way by simply choosing not to use such features. For example, by using our Question Bank feature, to add questions to your surveys, you also permit us to aggregate the responses you receive to those questions with responses received by other Question Bank users who have used the same questions. We may then report statistics about the aggregated (and anonymized) data sent to you and other survey creators.
  - If you choose to link your SurveyMonkey account to a third party account (such as your Google or Facebook account), we may use the information you allow us to collect from those third parties to provide you with additional features, services, and personalized content.
- To manage our services. We internally use your information, including certain survey data, for the following limited purposes:
    - To monitor and improve our services and features. We internally perform statistical and other analysis on information we collect (including usage data, device data, referral data, and information from page tags) to analyze and measure user behavior and trends, to understand how people use our services, and to monitor, troubleshoot and improve our services. However, we do not use the non-public content of surveys (*i.e.,* the content of questions and responses that you have not publicly shared) for these purposes.
  - To assist the enforcement of our Terms of Use.
  - To prevent potentially illegal activities.
  - To screen for undesirable or abusive activity. For example, we have automated systems that screen content for phishing activities, spam, and fraud.
    - To create new services, features or content (public data and metadata only). We may use public survey data and anonymized survey metadata (that is, data about the characteristics of a survey but not its non-public content), to create and provide new services, features or content. For example, we may look at statistics like response rates, question and answer word counts, and the average number of questions in a survey and publish interesting observations about these for informational or marketing purposes. When we do this, neither individual survey creators nor survey respondents will be identified or identifiable unless we have obtained their permission.
- To facilitate account creation and the logon process. If you choose to link your SurveyMonkey account to a third party account (such as your Google or Facebook account), we use the information you allowed us to collect from those third parties to facilitate the account creation and login process. For more information, click here.

- To contact you about your service or account. We occasionally send you communications of a transactional nature (e.g. service-related announcements, billing-related matters, changes to our services or policies, a welcome email when you first register). You can't opt out of these communications since they are required to provide our services to you.

- To contact you for marketing purposes (if you opt in). We will only do this if you have given us your express permission to contact you for this purpose. For example, during the account registration process we will ask for your permission to use your information to contact you for promotional purposes. You may opt out of these communications at any time by clicking on the "unsubscribe" link in them, or changing the relevant setting on your My Account page.

- To respond to legal requests and prevent harm. If we receive a subpoena or other legal request, we may need to inspect the data we hold to determine how to respond.

With whom do we share or disclose your information?

We don't sell your survey data!

When might we disclose your survey data to third parties? Only for a limited number of reasons. Mostly commonly, we share your information with our service providers who help us to provide our services to you. We contractually bind these service providers to keep your information confidential and to use it only for the purpose of providing their services to us. For example, we use payment processors who help us to process credit card transactions. By using our services, you authorize SurveyMonkey to sub-contract in this manner on your behalf.

Rarer circumstances include when we need to share information if required by law, or in a corporate restructuring or acquisition context (see below for more details).

Sharing your surveys with the public. By default, your surveys are private. You are able to control who can take your survey bychanging your collector settings. For example, surveys can be made completely public (and indexable by search engines),password protected, or distributed to a restricted list of people. You can also choose to share your survey responses instantlyor at a public location.

We recognize that you have entrusted us with safeguarding the privacy of your information. Because that trust is very important to us, the only time we will disclose or share your personal information or survey data with a third party is when we have done one of three things, in accordance with applicable law: (a) given you notice, such as in this privacy policy; (b) obtained your express consent, such as through an opt-in checkbox; or (c) anonymized the information so that individuals cannot be identified by it. Where required by law, we will obtain your express consent prior to disclosing or sharing any personal information.

We may disclose:

- Your information to our service providers. We use service providers who help us to provide you with our services. We give relevant persons working for some of these providers access to your information, but only to the extent necessary for them to perform their services for us. We also implement reasonable contractual and technical protections to ensure the confidentiality of your personal information and data is maintained, used only for the provision of their services to us, and handled in accordance with this privacy policy. Examples of service providers include payment processors, email service providers, and web traffic analytics tools.

- Your account details to your billing contact. If your details (as the account holder) are different to the billing contact listed for your account, we may disclose your identity and account details to the billing contact upon their request (we also will usually attempt to notify you of such requests). By using our services and agreeing to this privacy policy, you consent to this disclosure.

- Aggregated information to third parties to improve or promote our services. No individuals can be identified or linked to any part of the information we share with third parties to improve or promote our services.

- The presence of a cookie to advertise our services. We may ask advertisers to display ads promoting our services on other websites. We may ask them to deliver those ads based on the presence of a cookie but in doing so will not share any other information with the advertiser.

- Your information if required or permitted by law. We may disclose your information as required or permitted by law, or when we believe that disclosure is necessary to protect our rights, and/or to comply with a judicial proceeding, court order, subpoena, or other legal process served on us.

- Your information if there's a change in business ownership or structure. If ownership of all or substantially all of our business changes, or we undertake a corporate reorganization (including a merger or consolidation) or any other action or transfer between SurveyMonkey entities, you expressly consent to SurveyMonkey transferring your information to the new owner or successor entity so that we can continue providing our services. If required, SurveyMonkey will notify the applicable data protection agency in each jurisdiction of such a transfer in accordance with the notification procedures under applicable data protection laws.

- Information you expressly consent to be shared. For example, we may expressly request your permission to provide your contact details to third parties for various purposes, including to allow those third parties to contact you for marketing purposes. (You may later revoke your permission, but if you wish to stop receiving communications from a third party to which we provided your information with your permission, you will need to contact that third party directly.)

What are your rights to your information?

You can:

- Update your account details. You can update your registration and other account information on your My Account page. Information is updated immediately.

- Download/backup your survey data. We provide you with the ability to export, share and publish your survey data in a variety of formats. This allows you to create your own backups or conduct offline data analysis. See here for downloading instructions.

- Delete your survey data. Deleting survey data in the ways described on this page will not permanently delete survey data immediately. As long as you maintain an account with us, we retain your deleted data in case you delete something by accident and need to restore it (which you can request by contacting customer support). To the extent permitted by law, we will permanently delete your data if you request to cancel your account.

- Cancel your account. To cancel and delete your account, please contact customer support. Deleting your account will cause all the survey data in the account to be permanently deleted, as permitted by law, and will disable your access to any other services that require a SurveyMonkey account. We will respond to any such request, and any appropriate request to access, correct, update or delete your personal information within the time period specified by law (if applicable) or without excessive delay. We will promptly fulfill requests to delete personal data unless the request is not technically

feasible or such data is required to be retained by law (in which case we will block access to such data, if required by law).

For how long do we retain your data? We generally retain your data for as long as you have an account with us, or to comply with our legal obligations, resolve disputes, or enforce our agreements. Data that is deleted from our servers may remain as residual copies on offsite backup media for up to approximately 12 months afterward. We describe our retention practices in more detail in this FAQ

Security, cookies and other important information

Changes to this privacy policy. We may modify this privacy policy at any time, but if we do so, we will notify you by publishing the changes on this website. If we determine the changes are material, we will provide you with additional, prominent notice as is appropriate under the circumstances, such as via email.

For any changes to this privacy policy for which you are required to provide prior consent, we will provide you with reasonable notice of such changes before they become effective and provide you with the opportunity to consent to those changes. If you do not cancel your subscription and continue to use our services beyond the advance-notice period, you will be considered as having expressly consented to the changes in our privacy policy. If you disagree with the terms of this privacy policy or any updated privacy policy, you may close your account at any time.

- Security. Details about SurveyMonkey's security practices are available in our Security Statement. We are committed to handling your personal information and data with integrity and care. However, regardless of the security protections and precautions we undertake, there is always a risk that your personal data may be viewed and used by unauthorized third parties as a result of collecting and transmitting your data through the internet.

- Cookies. We use cookies on our websites. Cookies are small bits of data we store on the device you use to access our services so we can recognize repeat users. Each cookie expires after a certain period of time, depending on what we use it for. We use cookies for several reasons:

    - To make our site easier to use. If you use the "Remember me" feature when you sign into your account, we may store your username in a cookie to make it quicker for you to sign in whenever you return to SurveyMonkey.

    - For security reasons. We use cookies to authenticate your identity, such as confirming whether you are currently logged into SurveyMonkey.

    - To provide you with personalized content. We may store user preferences, such as your default language, in cookies to personalize the content you see. We also use cookies to ensure that users can't retake certain surveys that they have already completed.

    - To improve our services. We use cookies to measure your usage of our websites and track referral data, as well as to occasionally display different versions of content to you. This information helps us to develop and improve our services and optimize the content we display to users.

    Click here for more details about our cookies. We don't believe cookies are sinister, but you can still choose to remove or disable cookies via your browser. Refer to your web browser's configuration documentation to learn how to do this. Please note that doing this may adversely impact your ability to use our services. Enabling cookies ensures a smoother experience when using our websites. By

using our websites and agreeing to this privacy policy, you expressly consent to the use of cookies as described in this policy.

- Blogs and Forums. Our website offers publicly accessible blogs and community forums. You should be aware that any information you provide in these areas may be read, collected, and used by others who access them. We're not responsible for any personal information you choose to submit in these areas of our site.

- Safety of Minors and COPPA. Our services are not intended for and may not be used by minors. "Minors" are individuals under the age of majority in their place of residence (or under 13 in the United States). SurveyMonkey does not knowingly collect personal data from minors or allow them to register. If it comes to our attention that we have collected personal data from a minor, we may delete this information without notice. If you have reason to believe that this has occurred, please contact us atsupport@surveymonkey.com.

- English version controls. Non-English translations of this privacy policy are provided for convenience. In the event of any ambiguity or conflict between translations, the English version is authoritative.

Additional information for European Union users

SurveyMonkey provides some of its services to users in the EU through SurveyMonkey Europe Sarl, located at 1, Allée Scheffer, L-2520 Luxembourg.

- "Personal data". For users located in the EU, references to "personal information" in this policy are equivalent to what is commonly referred to as "personal data" in the EU.

- About IP addresses. Our servers record the incoming IP addresses of visitors to our websites (whether or not the visitor has a SurveyMonkey account) and store the IP addresses in log files. We use these log files for purposes such as system administration and maintenance, record keeping, tracking referring web sites, inferring your location, and security purposes (e.g. controlling abuse, spam and DDOS attacks). We also store IP addresses along with certain actions you take on our system. IP addresses are only linked to survey responses if a survey creator has configured a survey to collect IP addresses. By agreeing to this privacy policy, you expressly consent to SurveyMonkey using your IP address for the foregoing purposes. If you wish to opt out from the foregoing consent to use your IP address, you must cancel your account (if you have one) or not respond to a survey if requested to do so.

- Data controller. SurveyMonkey Europe Sarl, whose contact information is listed above, is the data controller for registration, billing and other account information that we collect from users in the EU. However, the data controller for survey data is the survey creator. The survey creator determines how their survey questions and responses are used and disclosed. SurveyMonkey only processes such survey data in accordance with the instructions and permissions (including those given under this privacy policy) selected by the survey creator when they create and administer their survey.

- Accessing and correcting your personal data. You have the right to access and correct the personal information that SurveyMonkey holds about you. This right may be exercised through by visiting your account's My Account page or by emailingsupport@surveymonkey.com.

- Your responsibilities. By using our services, you agree to comply with applicable data protection requirements when collecting and using your survey data, such as requirements to inform respondents about the specific uses and disclosures of their data.

Consents

By clicking “I Agree” or any other button indicating your acceptance of this privacy policy, you expressly consent to the following:

- You consent to the collection, use, disclosure and processing of your personal data in the manner described in this privacy policy, including our procedures relating to cookies, IP addresses and log files.

- Our servers are based in the United States, so your personal data will be primarily processed by us in the United States. You consent to the transfer and processing of your personal data in the United States by SurveyMonkey.com, LLC, in Luxembourg by SurveyMonkey Europe Sarl and in Portugal by SurveyMonkey Spain, Sucursal em Portugal.

- You consent and agree that we may transfer your data to data processors located in countries, including the United States, which do not have data protection laws that provide the same level of protection that exists in countries in the European Economic Area. Your consent is voluntary, and you may revoke your consent by opting out at any time. Please note that if you opt-out, we may no longer be able to provide you our services.

- You consent to us sharing your personal data with relevant persons working for service providers who assist us to provide our services.

- If you have enabled cookies on your web browser, you consent to our use of cookies as described in this privacy policy.

Additional information for Canadian users

- Please read this article for information about the U.S. Patriot Act and how it affects the personal information of Canadian users.

Additional information for Japanese users

- You agree that you are responsible for notifying the respondents of surveys that you create using our services about how SurveyMonkey may use the respondents’ survey responses and personal data as described in this privacy policy and obtaining prior consent from respondents to disclose their personal data to SurveyMonkey.

PRIVACY FOR SURVEY RESPONDENTS

1. What information does SurveyMonkey collect?

When you respond to surveys hosted by SurveyMonkey, we collect, on behalf and upon instructions (including the ones provided in this privacy policy) of survey creators, information relating to you and your use of our services from a variety of sources. These are listed below. The sections afterward describe what we do with this information.

Information we collect directly from you

- Survey responses. We collect and store the survey responses that you submit. The survey creator is responsible for this data and manages it. A survey may ask you to provide personal information or

data. If you have any questions about a survey you are taking, please contact the survey creator directly as SurveyMonkey is not responsible for the content of that survey. The survey creator is usually the same person that invited you to take the survey and sometimes they have their own privacy policy.

Are your survey responses anonymous? You will need to ask the survey creator this as it depends on how they have chosen to configure their survey. We provide instructions on how a survey creator can ensure they collect responses anonymously. However, even if a survey creator has followed those steps, specific questions in the survey may still ask you for your personal information or data that could be used to identify you.

Information we collect about you from other sources

- Usage data. We collect usage data about you whenever you interact with our services. This may include which webpages you visit, what you click on, when you performed those actions, and so on. Additionally, as with most websites today, our web servers keep log files that record data each time a device accesses those servers. The log files contain data about the nature of each access, including originating IP addresses. Note that we do not link this usage data to your survey responses.

- Device data. We collect data from the device and application you use to access our services, such as your IP address and browser type. We may also infer your geographic location based on your IP address. Your IP address will be linked to your survey responses unless a survey creator has disabled IP address collection for the survey you respond to.

- Referral data. We record information about the source that referred you to a survey (e.g. a link on a website or in an email).

- Information from page tags. We use third party tracking services that employ cookies and page tags (also known as web beacons) to collect aggregated and anonymized data about visitors to our websites. This data includes usage and user statistics.

- Your email address. If a survey creator uses an email invitation collector to send you a survey invitation email, we collect your email address when the survey creator provides it to us. We don't use this to send you email except at the direction of a survey creator. The emails we send on behalf of a survey creator appear to come from that survey creator's email address.

Providing survey responses is voluntary. Remember, you can always choose not to provide an answer to any given survey question (especially those requesting your personal information or data). However, sometimes this will prevent you from completing a survey if the survey creator has marked that question as requiring an answer.

How does SurveyMonkey use the information we collect?

Your survey responses are owned and managed by the survey creator, and we treat that information as private to the survey creator. Please contact the survey creator directly to understand how they will use your survey responses. Some survey creators may provide you with a privacy policy or notice at the time you take their survey and we encourage you to review that to understand how the survey creator will handle your responses.

Please see the Survey Creator version of this privacy policy to understand how SurveyMonkey handles survey responses. SurveyMonkey does not sell survey responses to third parties and we do not use any contact details collected in our customers' surveys to contact survey respondents.

We also use the information we collect from you (including usage data, device data, referral data and information from page tags) to manage and improve our services.

With whom do we share or disclose your information?

SurveyMonkey does not sell your survey responses!

We disclose:

- Your survey responses to survey creators. We host surveys for survey creators, but they are really the primary curator of survey data. Anything you expressly disclose in your survey responses will, naturally, be provided to them. Please contact the survey creator directly to understand how they might share your survey responses. Please see the Survey Creator version of this privacy policy to understand what SurveyMonkey tells survey creators about how we handle survey responses.

What are your rights to your information?

- Contact the survey creator to access and correct your responses and personal information. Because we collect survey responses on behalf of survey creators, you will need to contact the survey creator if you have any questions about the survey, or if you want to access, update, or delete anything in your responses. We provide survey creators with tools to maintain the responses they collect through their surveys. SurveyMonkey cannot provide you with this access since survey responses are the survey creator's private information.

- Opt out of receiving surveys. You may opt out of receiving email invitations to take surveys which are sent by survey creators via SurveyMonkey.

Security, cookies and other important information

Changes to this privacy policy. We may modify this privacy policy at any time, but if we do so, we will notify you by publishing the changes on this website. If we determine the changes are material, we will provide you with additional, prominent notice as is appropriate under the circumstances, such as via email.

For any changes to this privacy policy for which you are required to provide prior consent, we will provide you with reasonable notice of such changes before they become effective and provide you with the opportunity to consent to those changes. If you do not cancel your subscription and continue to use our services beyond the advance-notice period, you will be considered as having expressly consented to the changes in our privacy policy. If you disagree with the terms of this privacy policy or any updated privacy policy, you may close your account (if you have one) at any time or not respond to a survey.

- Security. Details about SurveyMonkey's security practices are available in our Security Statement. We are committed to handling your personal information and data with integrity and care. However, regardless of the security protections and precautions we undertake, there is always a risk that your

personal data may be viewed and used by unauthorized third parties as a result of collecting and transmitting your data through the internet.

- Cookies. We use cookies on our websites. Cookies are small bits of data we store on the device you use to access our services so we can recognize repeat users. Each cookie expires after a certain period of time, depending on what we use it for. We use cookies for several reasons:

  - To make our site easier to use. If you use the “Remember me” feature when you sign into your account, we may store your username in a cookie to make it quicker for you to sign in whenever you return to SurveyMonkey.

  - For security reasons. We use cookies to authenticate your identity, such as confirming whether you are currently logged into SurveyMonkey.

  - To provide you with personalized content. We may store user preferences, such as your default language, in cookies to personalize the content you see. We also use cookies to ensure that users can’t retake certain surveys that they have already completed.

  - To improve our services. We use cookies to measure your usage of our websites and track referral data, as well as to occasionally display different versions of content to you. This information helps us to develop and improve our services and optimize the content we display to users.

  Click here for more details about our cookies. We don’t believe cookies are sinister, but you can still choose to remove or disable cookies via your browser. Refer to your web browser’s configuration documentation to learn how to do this. Please note that doing this may adversely impact your ability to use our services. Enabling cookies ensures a smoother experience when using our websites. By using our websites and agreeing to this privacy policy, you expressly consent to the use of cookies as described in this policy.
- Blogs and Forums. Our website offers publicly accessible blogs and community forums. You should be aware that any information you provide in these areas may be read, collected, and used by others who access them. We’re not responsible for any personal information you choose to submit in these areas of our site.

- Safety of Minors and COPPA. Our services are not intended for and may not be used by minors. “Minors” are individuals under the age of majority in their place of residence (or under 13 in the United States). SurveyMonkey does not knowingly collect personal data from minors or allow them to register. If it comes to our attention that we have collected personal data from a minor, we may delete this information without notice. If you have reason to believe that this has occurred, please contact us atsupport@surveymonkey.com.

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- Our servers are based in the United States, so your personal data will be primarily processed by us in the United States. You consent to the transfer and processing of your personal data in the United States by SurveyMonkey.com, LLC, in Luxembourg by SurveyMonkey Europe Sarl and in Portugal by SurveyMonkey Spain, Sucursal em Portugal.

- You consent and agree that we may transfer your data to data processors located in countries, including the United States, which do not have data protection laws that provide the same level of protection that exists in countries in the European Economic Area. Your consent is voluntary, and you may revoke your consent by opting out at any time. Please note that if you opt-out, we may no longer be able to provide you our services.

- You consent to us sharing your personal data with relevant persons working for service providers who assist us to provide our services.

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