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Perceptions of Leadership: Impact of Leadership Style and Gender on Employee Motivation

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Walden University
2015

Abstract

Perceptions of Leadership: Impact of Leadership Style and Gender on Employee

Motivation

by

Kristin M. Walker

MA, Argosy University, 2006

BS, Morgan State University, 2003

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Organizational Psychology

Walden University

December 2015

Abstract

Researchers suggest that individuals in Corporate America have stereotypes about the ways in which men and women lead. They also have found that a leader's style and gender can impact employees' job satisfaction, performance, and engagement. However, researchers have provided little empirical evidence about the specific relationship of leadership style and gender on employee motivation. The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the effects of leadership style, as measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), and a leader's gender on employee motivation, as measured by the Work Preference Inventory (WPI). Because it was assumed that small organizations would elicit higher participation, individuals employed at organizations with fewer than 100 employees were surveyed. After being asked about the gender and specific characteristics of their leaders, participants were asked about their level of motivation via the WPI. A 2x3 ANOVA was performed to determine the main effects of a leader's gender and leadership style on level of employee motivation. Findings revealed that although gender and leadership style do not significantly impact motivation, laissez-faire leadership style is more likely to positively influence motivation when compared to transformational or transactional leadership style. Though statistically insignificant, these findings contribute to the understanding of the relationship of gender, leadership, and employee motivation, an ongoing topic of concern. Social implications of this study include dispelling some of the gender stereotypes distributed by Corporate America. Essentially, effective leadership is not about which gender leads best, but more about deploying leadership skills that will contribute to employee success.

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Dedication

I dedicate my doctoral study to my children, Kyle and Samaya – I want them to know that with God, nothing is unattainable, especially when you put your mind to it. The sky is limitless and I encourage you both to dream big! I also dedicate this to my mother Terry Walker. I am beyond blessed to have the type of love, support and prayer that she offers on a daily basis. Your continuous love and personal sacrifice does not go unnoticed. To my father, Robert – thank you for being you. Dedication and thanks to my sister, Tabitha who tirelessly encouraged me to remain humble, yet focused on the end goal. I also dedicate this to my husband, Dee, who carried the torch when, at times, I just had to put it down. Your love and admiration for me is priceless. To all of my extended family, friends and support system, each one of you have played a tremendous role in inspiring me to complete my dissertation and PhD – your continued love and support throughout this process has been invaluable. Thus, I also dedicate this to all of you!

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I would first like to give all honor and acknowledgement to God – for without Him, nothing is possible. I also acknowledge my supportive family, friends, colleagues and classmates, who provided their wisdom, prayers, support, words of encouragement, and maybe even a babysitter during this journey. I would also like to acknowledge the participants of my research who willingly provided their time and effort in completing a survey. Most importantly, I would like to acknowledge Dr. Michelle Ross, Dr. Linda Whinghter and Dr. Thomas Edman who provided unlimited support to ensure that my research met the highest academic standards.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Background

Researchers have more extensively examined the differences between men and

women's leadership styles over the last decade (Eagly, 2007; Eagly & Johannesen-

Schmidt, 2001; Spurgeon & Cross, 2006). Leadership style describes the ways in which

an individual chooses to manage situations in an organizational setting; it is based on

one's beliefs, values, preferences, and, in some cases, gender (Vigoda-Gadot, 2007).

Researchers have examined the many facets and impacts of leadership on employees. A

significant amount of research suggests that an employee's responsiveness to a leader is

highly influenced by his or her leadership style (Adler & Reid, 2008; Chowdhury &

Amin, 2001; Embry, Padgett & Caldwell, 2008). More specifically, the path-goal theory

of leadership implies that employee motivation and satisfaction are affected by leadership

style (Evans, 1974). According to this theory, an effective leader is capable of

maintaining and increasing employees' productivity, performance and motivation. This is

the rationale behind this study.

It is not uncommon for one to think that men lead differently than women.

Researchers have suggested that in Corporate America, gender stereotypes exist

specifically for men and women in a leadership role (Eagly, 1987; Eagly & Carli, 2003).

Eagly, a major contributor to the study of gender and social roles, has conducted a variety

of research on the topic as it relates to leadership. For example, Eagly, Johannesen-

Schmidt and van Engen (2003) performed a meta-analysis to highlight the major

differences between "agentic" and "communal" leadership behaviors, where agentic

refers to behavior that is "independent, masterful, assertive and instrumentally competent" and communal to behavior that is "friendly, unselfish, concerned with others and expressive" (Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, van Engen, 2003, p. 572). They found that female leaders are perceived by employees to behave more communally than agentically. Eagly et al. posit that female leaders are more collaborative and democratic than male leaders and that they are more likely to encourage employees than to admonish or reprimand them. While this may be true, these differences and their influence on employee motivation in the workplace has yet to be explored.

What is currently known is that, generally speaking, male leaders will display a leadership style that is quite different than female leaders. Most researchers have found that women typically use a transformational leadership style, in which they seek to motivate and involve employees in decisions, often using charisma to do so (Spurgeon & Cross, 2006). On the contrary, male leaders are more likely to use a more directive and transactional approach, which focuses on the concept of using the influence of position (Spurgeon & Cross). Similar to Eagly et al. (2003), Powell (1993) described women as usually using a more democratic, participative style and men tending to take a more autocratic, directive approach. Researchers have observed these differences in both laboratory studies as well as in the observations of actual leaders (Powell). As the prevalence of women in leadership roles increases, it may be important for organizations to not only recognize the differences between males and female leaders, but to also understand the influence these differences may have on employees and their motivation in the workforce.

Problem Statement

Despite the fact that researchers have explored the impact of leadership style (Eagly, 1987; Eagly & Johnson, 1990), the relationship of leadership style to a leader's gender and possible impacts on employee motivation have not been sufficiently researched. Motivation in the workplace is a phenomenon that many organizations do not understand (CITE).. In the review of leadership studies, researchers suggest that leadership style might influence employees' health, job satisfaction, motivation, and overall job performance (Alshallah, 2004; Bodla & Nawaz, 2010; Khan, Aslam & Riaz, 2012). While the available research on employee motivation does explore some of the factors that contribute to motivation, the quantity of research is quite scarce. A study investigating gender differences as they relate to leadership style and the potential impact on employee motivation may help to further challenge stereotypes about the differences between male and female leaders. Additionally, understanding what extrinsic factors may potentially impact employee motivation could help organizations identify what specific skillset is required for effective leaders.

According to the Society for Human Resources Management (SHRM), motivation is defined as:

> Psychological forces that determine the direction of a person's level of effort, as well as a person's persistence in the face of obstacles. The direction of a person's behavior refers to the many possible actions that a person could engage in, while persistence refers to whether, when faced with roadblocks and obstacles, an individual keeps trying or gives up. (SHRM, 2012, pp. 1)

Having a better understanding of how employees are motivated in organizations may be helpful to leaders seeking to minimize turnover rates and maintain a strategic workforce as well as retain talented employees. One researcher postulated that seventy percent of employees steadily decrease in motivation over the course of a year. Eighty percent could perform better if they chose to, and fifty percent put forth just enough effort to simply keep their jobs (Chowdhury & Amin, 2001). Unfortunately, contributing factors to these shifts in motivation was not exactly clear..

In this study, I seek to understand the extent to which factors such as a leader's gender and leadership style may influence employees' extrinsic motivation levels. Chowdhury and Amin (2001) suggested that, although values and attitudes are more likely to affect intrinsic motivation, leadership behavior tends to be much more effective in enhancing employees' extrinsic motivation. For some employees an increased salary or incentives may be their highest motivator. Others may find that simply being part of an organization that promotes the social good is their greatest motivator (Lockwood, 2010). Some employees may contribute their high levels of motivation to the leadership characteristics displayed by their leaders. Understanding theses external factors will be essential for both leader and organizational success.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quasiexperimental study is to examine how leadership style and leader's gender moderates employee motivation in an organizational setting. As organizations seek out best practices for retaining employees and increasing overall productivity, researchers have an increased interest in motivation (SHRM, 2012). As

organizations become more competitive, experts assert that their effectiveness will ultimately depend on their ability to develop and retain effective leaders, regardless of gender (Spurgeon & Cross, 2006) and motivated employees who are willing to do whatever it takes to get the job done.

Nature of the Study

Employees were surveyed to determine if a relationship exists between a leader's gender, his or her leadership style, and employee motivation. The following variables were measured: a leader's gender and leader's style of leadership (i.e., transformational, transactional, or laissez-faire) as independent variables, and employee level of motivation as the dependent variable. Participants were individuals employed in organizations with fewer than 100 total employees and asked to complete Bass & Avolio's (1997) MLQ to gauge their leader's style of leadership and Amabile et al's (1994) WPI) to gauge their personal level of motivation. Individuals provided consent to participate and received a link to the questionnaire via email. The collected responses from participants were used to inform the data analysis

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The primary focus in carrying out this study was to ascertain the extent to which a leader's gender and/or leadership style may be associated with an employee's level of motivation. The following research questions helped guide this study:

RQ1: What is the impact of leader's gender on employee motivation?

$H_0 1$: There is no statistically significant difference in mean motivation between male and female leaders.

$H_1 1$: There is a statistically significant difference in mean motivation between male and female leaders

RQ2: What is the impact of leadership style on employee motivation?

$H_0 2$: There is no statistically significant difference in mean motivation between transactional, transformational or laissez-faire leadership styles.

$H_1 2$: There is a statistically significant difference in mean motivation between transactional, transformational or laissez-faire leadership styles.

RQ3: What impact does the interaction of leadership style and a leader's gender have on employee motivation?

$H_0 3$: There is no statistically significant difference between the interaction effects of leadership style and gender on employee motivation.

$H_1 3$: There is a statistically significant difference between the interaction effects of leadership style and gender on employee motivation.

Theoretical Base

Support for the framework for this study can be viewed through many theoretical lenses. One theoretical framework for this research is Bem's (1981) social role theory. The theory supports the notion that an individual's actions, behaviors, dispositions and desires are determined by a set of specific socially determined roles (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001). Social role theory constructs a set of socially acceptable norms and expectations that individuals internalize as they become socialized. Individuals can choose to either validate those norms or act against them. Because of that, the female gender role is more likely to be incongruent with society's traditional leader

roles than the male gender role is. In turn, a potential for bias as well as inadequate employee performance may develop.

Another theory that supports this study's framework is House's (1971) path-goal theory of leadership. This theory describes the ways in which leaders encourage and support their followers in achieving goals by making the path toward goal achievement clear and easy (Schriesheim, Castro, Zhou & DeChurch, 2006). In essence, depending on the type of leadership style deployed, a leader, regardless of his or her gender, may influence an employee's motivation.

Definition of Terms

In an effort to avoid any ambiguity, the following definitions for key terms and phrases that are used in the study are offered:

Leadership: The ability of an individual to impact the motivation or competence of other individuals in a group (Humphrey, 2012).

Leadership role: The process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal (Northouse, 2007).

Transformational leadership: A leadership style that is most often characterized by the ability to display (a) inspirational motivation, (b) intellectual stimulation, (c) idealized influence, and (d) individualized consideration. Transformational leaders are full of foresight and are inspiring, audacious, and considered to be risk-takers (Bodla & Nawaz, 2010).

Transactional leadership: A leadership style that involves influencing employees through utilizing rewards, praises, and, oftentimes, promises. These type of leaders are

more likely to perpetuate a "give and take" type of relationship where rapport is ascertained through exchange, such as a rewards system for meeting particular goals (Lai, 2011).

Laissez-faire leadership: A leadership style where leaders are less likely to exercise control over their employees and are more likely to allow employees a sense of freedom to perform their assigned tasks with a lack of direct supervision (Mehmood & Arif, 2011).

Glass ceiling: The historical division in labor between women and men and the responsibilities they assume (Stelter, 2002).

Social role theory: The theory of process that suggests individual's process and regulate their behavior according to society's definitions of what is masculine and what is feminine (Bem, 1981).

Path-goal theory: View that an employee's level of motivation, job satisfaction, and overall performance in the workplace are contingent upon the type of leadership style portrayed by his or her leader (House, 1971).

Motivation: In the workplace, psychological forces that determine an employee's level of effort and persistence in the face of obstacles (SHRM, 2010).

Assumptions, Delimitations, and Limitations

Assumptions

A critical assumption of the current study posits the availability of a substantial number of individuals willing to reflect on their current leader's style of leadership and corresponding level of personal motivation. It is assumed that a substantial amount of

participants will participate in the study. Although,small and large organizations display similar dynamics, it is assumed that participant recruitment would be easier at smaller organizations. It is also assumed that participants provided honest answers about their experiences in the workplace such that data was not positively or negatively skewed.

Because the current study used existing measurement tools, validity and reliability tests were not required prior to use. It was assumed that the selected research instruments (the MLQ and WPI) held construct validity and reliability (see Bass & Avolio, 1990; Amabile, Hill, Hennessey & Tighe, 1994). This study also assumed that the sample contained a representation of all three leadership styles to be considered: transactional, transformation and laissez-faire. Moreover, it was assumed that both leaders and employees have been in their positions for a sufficient amount of time to be able to provide an accurate view of their reflections. It was also assumed that the sample will be representative of a variety of industries and that overall generalizability may be low. Finally, it was assumed that participants had a broad enough opinion of their leaders to be able to rate their style of leadership and a working knowledge of motivation to be able to accurately rate their level of motivation.

Delimitations

In this study, I restricted my analysis to employees of small organizations, which have fewer than 100 employees. In addition, because gender was included as an independent variable (leader's gender), the gender of employees was not analyzed. Differences between what male and female employees may be an implication for future research.

Limitations

Because no incentives were used for the present study, there was the possibility of not collecting a substantial amount of subjects to voluntarily participate. There was also the risk of participants submitting incomplete surveys or providing inaccurate opinions of leaders because of personal biases. The sample size for the study was a small population in the United States. Thus, the generalizability of this study may be limited because it is crosssectional and only focuses on smaller organizations with fewer than 100 employees. Additionally, while survey methods are an ideal measurement tool for capturing a magnitude of quality responses, Salehi and Golafshani (2010) suggest closed ended measurement tools often used in quantitative studies are limited in their ability to capture underlying and covert environments and experiences. Thus, measuring a leader's style in an observational setting may provide a much more accurate depiction. Another limitation of the current study is the survey tool.

The MLQ model was designed for collecting data on current leaders in an organization but does have the flexibility to be used for past employers. Studies that rely solely on survey methodology, compiled of self-reported questionnaire data, have the potential to elicit some bias and may also be cause for minor concern. One potential threat to external validity may be the fact that participants are being asked to complete two questionnaires. Completing a longer survey (two combined to make one) requires more time. Finally, the current research is a short-term cross-sectional study designed to capture a single snapshot of employee perception. Hence, this limitation may influence the study's ability to collect the most accurate data.

Significance of the Study

The significance of the current study was to determine the extent to which external factors like leader's gender and style of leadership can influence employee motivation. Many organizations are static in their views of the best way to lead and, which gender may be best suited to lead. Ultimately, it is hoped that organizations and leaders alike will be able to employ methods to increase motivation and performance.

The present study contributes to social change by providing organizations with an implication of how their styles of leadership can impact the overall environment of the organization as well as the motivation levels of its employees. Understanding how these areas relate may enhance strategic planning and personnel decisions for leaders within organizations (Tsai, Chen & Cheng, 2009). Additionally, much of the past resarch does not specify the size of the organizations. This research will specifically provide insight for leaders of smaller organizations. Over the past decade, it has been assumed that it is a "one size fits all" version of leadership effectiveness (Dalgish & Therin, 2003); the results of this research can be used as a catalyst to make changes where necessary and set the foundation as it relates to the gender bias that currently exists. The present study will also contribute toward the psychometric validity and reliability data available for the MLQ and WPI.

Summary and Transition

Motivation, in any type of setting, can be influenced by a variety of factors. Whether extrinsic or intrinsic, understanding those influences is essential. Social role theories insist that one's behavior can be quite influential on another's behavior. Again,

understanding the extent to which that is true is essential. The remainder of this study is organized in the following manner:

Chapter 2 provides a comprehensive review of the literature on gender differences in leadership within organizational settings and their potential affect on employee motivation. Specifically, this chapter evaluates past research studies that have examined the relationships between gender role theories, leadership styles (transformational, transactional and Laissez-Faire), and how they have influenced workplace behaviors. Chapter 3 describes the methods and procedures to be used in the present study with an emphasis placed on the specific test instruments used, sample population and selection and the specific experimental procedures. Chapter 4 provides an in depth explanation of the data collected and an exploration of how the data was analyzed while chapter 5 provides an explanation of the conclusions drawn from the analysis of the collected data. Furthermore, chapter 5 describes the social change impact as well as any implications for future research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

An essential element of any successful organization, and its main source of productivity, is motivated employees. Thus, the extent to which an organization is capable of motivating its employees is critical to its overall success. Because an employee's motivation can be influenced by many factors, both intrinsic and extrinsic ones (Alshallah, 2004; Bodla & Nawaz, 2010; Khan, Aslam & Riaz, 2012), knowing which factors are most influential may be advantageous for organizations. Two motivational factors that receiving scholarly attention are a leader's gender and his or her leadership style.

Both popular and scholarly sources have suggested that male leaders possess an aggressive, agentic characteristic that ultimately make them much more effective leaders, regardless of the specific leadership styles they deploy (Eagly, 1987). Although many female leaders may be considered passive (or, less aggressive) than many male leaders by their employees, they may possess attributes (e.g., nurturing, empathetic, intuitive, compromising, caring, and accommodating) that may be deemed valuable in a leadership role (Growe & Montgomery, 2000). Unfortunately, these valuable attributes do not exactly move women up the career ladder. According to Applebaum and Shapiro (1993), simply put, women just do not lead like men. While there is some indication of improved attitudes towards women in the workplace, including their increased presence in corporate America, (Pande & Forde, 2011) many of the stereotypes have yet to be dispelled.

Many researchers have examined the differences between male and female leadership style. Much of this research has been conducted within an organizational environment and considered the leader's gender as a variable (Alshallah, 2004; Bodla & Nawaz, 2010; Khan, Aslam & Riaz, 2012)). Researchers have evaluated an employee's perception of his or her leader's style across three particular criteria: (a) task accomplishment/interpersonal relationships (transformational), (b) autocratic/democratic style (transactional), and (c) laissez-faire (Afolabi, Obude, Okediji, & Ezeh, 2008; Madlock, 2008; Powell, 1990; Stelter, 2002). Elaborate. Furthermore, these researchers suggest that there are, in fact, gender stereotypes that exist for both men and women in a leadership role.

Other researchers suggest that how an individual responds to a leader is influenced by his or her leader's specific leadership style. For example, one's particular leadership style can affect employee's behaviors (Khan, Ramzan, Ahmed, & Nawaz, 2011), attitudes (Embry, Padgett, & Caldwell, 2008), and mental health in the workplace (Kuoppala, Lamminpaa, Liira, & Vanio, 2008). For example, the more positive behaviors that a leader exhibits, the less likely it is for employees to develop anxiety and depression (Kuoppala et al). Through an in depth meta-analysis of available research on employee health and leadership behaviors researchers were able to conclude that employees who rated their leaders as "good" were 40% more likely to be in the highest category of psychological well-being than those who rated their leaders as "bad" (Kuoppala et al). These findings provide evidence supporting the notion that leadership is quite influential on employees.

Motivation hygiene theorist Herzberg (2008) theorized that satisfied employees tend to be more productive, creative, and committed to their employers than those who are dissatisfied. Also, employees' motivation to work is grounded in the satisfaction of higher self-fulfillment needs rather than merely earning a wage. Thus, a leader displaying effective leadership skills may be deemed a "higher self-fulfillment need" for employees and, in turn, increases employee satisfaction. Additionally, leaders can foster employee job satisfaction, which has been found to directly increase job performance (Alshallah, 2004). As organizations continue to focus on reaching maximum efficiency, understanding what impacts their most valuable assets (their employees) is essential to their success. Kuoppala et al. (2008) found evidence supporting Herzberg's findings as did Lundberg, Gudmundson, and Anderson (2009).

Current research shows that leadership roles can impact employee behaviors - either positively or negatively. Researchers have also found evidence indicating that societal gender roles may influence others' behavior (Eagly & Carly, 2003) and that employees are motivated by a variety of extrinsic factors such as benefits and/or pay for performance. I believe that further evaluation is required to determine the extent to which leadership style and/or a leader's gender may also influence employee motivation.

This comprehensive review of the literature is organized into four sections: (a) a theoretical perspective on gender role theories and models, (b) an assessment of the empirical research on observed differences in leadership style and the association between leadership style and gender stereotypes, (c) a theoretical discussion on attributes of motivation, and (d) an evaluation of available research on the influences of leadership

style. Information on leadership style as an extrinsic motivational factor for employees was obtained through professional organizations such as SHRM and the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology (SIOP). Library resources at Walden University, Loyola University (Maryland), and multiple public libraries in the Maryland, Virginia, and the District of Columbia were also utilized. Academic databases including Business Source Complete, SocINDEX, PsycINFO, PyscArticles, GoogleScholar, ProQuest and Academic Search Premier were searched using Boolean logic. Search terms such as *employee motivation, leadership style, extrinsic motivation factors, leader gender, motivation theory, leadership theory,* and *gender role theory* were used. Additionally, many books on "how to motivate employees" and "the impact of leadership style" were reviewed in an effort to pinpoint which motivational factors held the most prevalence.

Gender Role Models

Gender roles are the specific attitudes and behaviors expected of male and female members of a society by that particular society. More specifically, Eagly (1987) asserted that gender roles impose societal expectations on the way an individual should behave on the basis of his or her gender. Therefore, gender and its associated roles could be deemed an ascribed status characteristic. If these ascribed characteristics are true, the aforementioned definition explains how a man's higher social status offers him more power, resources, and privilege than that offered to a woman. Many researchers contend that one critical reason that women may not be equally represented in leadership roles is because they have been socialized into specific gender roles (Diekman & Schneider,

2010; Eagly, 1987). In the workforce, it is believed that men exhibit stronger credentials for leadership roles than do women (Diekman & Schneider). This assumption leads many organizations to gender role stereotyping of leadership positions.

Some of the available research highlights the considerable difference between the numbers of men and women in leadership positions (Diekman & Schneider, 2010; Eagly & Sczesny, 2009). Researchers have found a gender imbalance in corporate leadership. Pande and Forde (2011), for example, found that the more senior the position, the less likely it is to be occupied by a woman. In Europe, despite a labor force that is 45% female, women only average about 11.9% membership of companies' boards of directors. In the Americas, that number drops to 9.9%, and even lower to 6.5% in the Asia-Pacific region. The lowest percentage of women in senior positions is 3.2% in the Middle East and North Africa (Pande & Forde). Although women have achieved much in the last few decades, including the right to vote and acquiring some positions of status (e.g., Hillary Clinton and Condoleezza Rice as presidential cabinet members), they still hold fewer leadership positions than men in labor unions, business, government, and nonprofit organizations (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Kaminski & Yakura, 2008). This underrepresentation of women in leadership positions may be attributed to the common misperception that men better serve as leaders. However, much of the literature points to the idea that the lack of representation is due to the specific gender roles that women possess (Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Eagly & Carli, 2003; Quader, 2011). To be able to explain the roles of men and women, one must understand the social conditions under which they live.

Historically, regarding behaviors and social roles, women are perceived as having the primary responsibility of caring for the home and family, even when they work fulltime outside of the home (Eagly, Rose, Riger & McHugh, 2012; Livingston & Judge, 2008). For example, if there is an ill child and both parents work, it is not the father who typically leaves the office to pick the child up and then nurse the child back to good health. Researchers has found that 47% of reported work absences among women, compared to only 9% among men were related to caring for a sick child (Messing & Ostlin, 2006). Livingston and Judge (2008) suggested that while women are just as participatory in the workforce as their men counterparts, the woman primarily dominates the family domain. More specifically, if one were to define in terms of both paid and unpaid work (e.g., grocery shopping, laundry, cooking, childcare, and the overall appearance of the home), women work 5–7 hours more per week than do men (Livingston & Judge). According to Eagly (1987), these types of social conditions confirm that women are described with a personal dimension (i.e., behaviors that are caring and nurturing) in mind while men are described along a task dimension. Eagly suggests that task dimension describes behaviors that are consistent with task style tendencies including dominance, controlling, aggressive and ambitious. These attributes are what make men and women appear different.

Unlike women, men get to enjoy a socially dominant position. From an early age, boys are taught to acquire a masculinity that will allow them to assume and maintain that position once they become men (Livingston & Judge, 2008). Furthermore, the male social role is intended to reward masculine men, while the female social role offers its

relative benefits only to feminine women. As Livingston and Judge suggest, just as men and women's social roles differ in the home environment, so too do they differ in the workplace.

Glass Ceiling Effect

When men and women enter the workforce, social roles have been the main attribute in determining how successful men and women can be. Most prevalent is the fact that women are oftentimes plagued by the concept of the *glass ceiling* (Bryant, 1985), which describes the overt barriers that prevent women from reaching the top of the corporate hierarchy. More specifically, these artificial barriers are not only commonly based on societal gender roles, but also on attitudinal or organizational bias that prevent qualified women from advancing upward in their organization's leadership-level positions (Stelter, 2002). There is evidence that women will encounter the effects of the glass ceiling or barriers to advancement into the executive ranks of organizations (Cotter, Hermsen, Ovadia, & Vanneman, 2001; Hoobler, Wayne & Lemmon, 2009). It was expected that this barrier would eventually be eradicated with the large influx of women entering the work force over the last few decades, but with respect to senior rank and position, not much has changed. In most corporate sectors, women still only make up about 20% of senior management positions (Grant Thornton LLP, 2012). The lack of women in higher-ranking positions potentially adds to the perception that corporate America is not as culturally diverse as it appears to be.

Stereotypical beliefs and attitudes are more than likely to stem from societal gender role theories. Eagly and Steffen (1984) suggested that stereotypic beliefs about

gender suggest that women are more communal (selfless and concerned with others) and less agentic (self-assertive and motivated to master) than men. These beliefs were attributed to perceivers' observations of women and men in conflicting social roles: (a) women are more likely than men to hold positions of lower status and authority, and (b) women are more likely than men to be homemakers and are less likely to be employed in the paid work force. Similarly, Shinnar, Giacomin, and Janssen (2012) asserted that gender role stereotypes lead to the categorizing of jobs as either primarily feminine or primarily masculine. Individuals are more likely to aspire to obtain jobs that are socially accepted for their gender, while avoiding those considered appropriate for the opposing gender. In that regard, gender stereotypes are not only descriptive (i.e., indicating the behavioral differences of how men and women actually are), but they are also prescriptive (i.e., identifying the norms regarding behaviors that are considered suitable for each), in particularly highlighting how men and women "should" behave (Shinnar et al., 2012). When men and women behave differently, they are thought to be in defiance of their social roles.

Social Role Theory

Social role theory (SRT) identifies the historical division in labor between women and men and the responsibilities they assume (Peters, Kinsey & Malloy, 2004). Essentially, social role theory suggests that men and women are destined to behave differently in social situations primarily due to the expectations that society puts upon them. Relative to individuals in leadership positions, SRT has the potential to lead women to assess that the probability of attaining a leadership position is lower than that

of men (Peters, Kinsey, & Malloy). As mentioned previously, ascribed social roles may discourage many of the activities typically required to attain a position of leadership. These include pursuing advanced training, viewing oneself as a leader, and expressing one's point of view. In an appraisal of sex differences as it relates to social role theory, Eagly, Wood and Diekman (2000) found that if women are not recognized as influential and are not as successful at wielding influence as their men counterparts, they will be less likely to emerge as a leader and thus less likely to advance to a position of higher ranking.

According to Eagly's (1987) view of social role theory:

> A major assumption of the social-role interpretation of sex differences is that the perception of women as especially communal and men as especially agentic stems from the differing specific roles that women and men occupy in the family and society. The distinctive communal content of the female stereotype is assumed to derive primarily from the domestic role. The distinctive agentic role is assumed to derive from men's typical roles in the society and the economy (p. 19).

Eagly's theory is consistent with many of social role theory's predecessors (e.g., Parsons, 1955; Schein, 1972). These theories suggest that most of what is known about the behavioral differences between men and women are the result of cultural stereotypes about gender (how men and women are supposed to act). Gender differences in social influence are moderated by gender composition of the group, gender-type of the task, and the competence, dominance, and communality of the person attempting to influence

(Eagly, Wood, & Diekman, 2000; Eagly & Carli, 2003). Social role theory focuses on the

social roles that men and women occupy. It deals with status and influence in the larger

context of society, but focuses specifically on these constructs as they relate to gender.

Because leadership has traditionally been conceptualized in masculine, agentic terms

(Eagly, 1987), women are less likely to be expected to have the characteristics necessary

to fit the role of a leader. If women were to employ some of the masculine leadership

characteristics that make men successful as leaders, then they would appear to be

incongruent with their gender.

Gender Role Congruity

In an environment where expectations are clearly defined, maintaining one's

social role is more commonplace. Elsaid & Elsaid (2011) assert that women are rated

much more favorable when they display characteristics congruent with their gender.

Furthermore, groups and individuals are viewed more positively when their

characteristics are in line with the specific requirements of the associated social role

(Elsaid & Elsaid, 2011). Parents who are part of the workforce, female leaders and male

nurses are specific examples of incongruence within gender roles.

In an attempt to highlight some of the outcomes that are a result of gender role

incongruence, Eagly and Karau (2002) examined the available empirical research on the

concept of role congruity theory. Essentially, they were able to conclude that incongruity

between one's gender role and the leadership role could lead to two forms of bias: (a)

identifying women as less favorable than men to occupy potential leadership roles and (b)

assessing behavior that satisfies the prescriptions of a leader role less favorably when it is

occupied by a woman (Eagly & Karau). As a result, society is faced with attitudes being less positive toward female leaders than male leaders, while perpetuating an environment where it is much more difficult for women to become leaders and be successful in a leadership role. Perhaps the biggest consequence is gender role spillover. Regardless of their skillset and ability to successfully lead, a woman's gender will take precedence thus, forcing her in a more gender-specific role.

Gender Role Spillover

Gutek's (1985) gender role spillover theory is based on the idea that gender norms are so highly influential that they "spill over" into the work environment. Thus, people respond to individuals based upon their gender role rather than their work role (Cleveland, Stockdale & Murphy, 2009). According to Gutek, gender role spillover has a different impact on women in leadership positions when compared to men in leadership positions, mostly because of the expectation that leader qualities are aligned more closely to archetypal masculine qualities. It appears as though the only way for women to be successful in a leadership role is to incorporate male leadership tendencies into their own styles. Unfortunately, by doing so, women are forced to infringe on the covenants deemed appropriate behavior for their gender and as a result, run the risk of being viewed less favorably than their counterparts.

<center>**Leadership Styles Observed in Gender Differences**</center>

Leadership is defined as the ability of an individual to impact the motivation or competence of other individuals in a group (Humprey, 2012). Finding the right

individual, whether woman or man, who is considered a good leader, is relevant since effective leadership ultimately leads to more benefits for the organization. To understand the elements of leadership exploring the more popular theories of leadership may be helpful.

Transformational, Transactional and Laissez-Faire Leadership Theories

The most popular resource of understanding the effectiveness of leaders is the theories of transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership. All three theories of leadership involve interactions with other individuals; however, each has a different level of power that affects those interactions (Humphrey, 2012). For example, transactional leadership relationships are characterized by an exchange between a leader and an employee. Once the interaction is complete, a shared purpose or relationship becomes non-existent. With transformational leadership relationships, on the contrary, it is an interaction between a leader and employee that changes certain characteristics of both individuals involved and joins their purposes (Humphrey). Laissez-faire leadership relationships are characterized by the lack of interaction between a leader and employees. A high-performing workforce has become much more prevalent in corporate America. For an organization to be considered high performing, its leader must be able to stimulate employees to go above and beyond their day-to-day requirements. With such a workforce, it may be helpful for organizations to consider making efforts towards developing ways of changing the organization through leadership.

Transformational leadership style is one that may be present at all levels of the organization. These types of leaders are full of foresight, inspiring, audacious and also

considered risk-takers (Bodla & Nawaz, 2010). Though charm is also one of transformational leaders strongest characteristics, it is not sufficient enough to bring about change in the organization. According to Bodla and Nawaz, transformational leaders should display the following four factors to ultimately bring about change: (1) inspirational motivation, (2) intellectual stimulation, (3) idealized influence and (4) individualized consideration. A further description of each of these factors follows.

Inspirational motivation. This factor suggests that a leader is also able to act as a supporter on behalf of his or her followers. Leaders are more likely to display enthusiasm and optimism, and also more likely to put emphasis on commitment to a shared goal (Lai, 2011).

Intellectual stimulation. With this characteristic, leaders instill creativity in employees – they encourage them to approach problems in new ways (Avolio & Bass, 1995).

Idealized influence. This factor describes the ability of a leader to act as a role model to their employees. Additionally, leaders are more likely to display solid moral and ethical principles. Idealized influence is either attributed (traits are assigned to a leader) or behavioral (how one acts) (Avolio & Bass, 1995).

Individual consideration. Under this factor, communication is essential. Leaders invest much into the development of their employees. That is, serving as a mentor and/or coach and considering individual needs is not abnormal (Lai, 2011).

Khan, Aslam and Riaz (2011) surveyed 100 bank managers in Pakistan about their leadership styles and creativity within work behavior. Their study found that of the

three types of leadership, transformational leadership is the most prominent predictor of innovative work behavior. Moreover, employees of transformational leaders are more likely to engage in organizational behaviors, and demonstrate high levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. In essence, transformational leaders will appeal to their employees via internal ideals and moral values.

Unlike transformational leadership, transactional leadership influences employees by appealing to their self-interest. Transactional leadership describes a more "give and take" type of relationship where rapport is ascertained through exchange, such as a rewards system for meeting particular goals (Lai, 2011). Transactional leadership involves influencing employees through utilizing rewards, praises and oftentimes promises. Mehmood and Arif (2011) suggested there are three factors that distinguish transactional leadership from transformational leadership: (1) contingent rewards, (2) passive management by exception and (3) active management by exception. Passive management by exception refers to a leader who arbitrates only when conflicts arise whereas active management by exception refers to those leaders who actively observe their employees' work to ensure standards are being met.

Contrary to transformational leaders who utilize foresight to set plans and goals, transactional leaders focus on the basic leadership process of governing, organizing, and temporary planning. Thus, a transactional leader's power lies in the form of their formal authority and responsibility in the organization (Lai, 2011). Rather than focusing on individual needs, the main goal is to get employees to follow and obey the commands of the leader. This style is also referred to as authoritarian (Khan, Aslam & Riaz, 2011).

Contingent upon the employee completing the desired task, he or she will receive a reward. On the other hand, however, if he or she chooses to perform in opposition of the leader's wishes, a punishment will follow (Lair, 2011). This type of transaction between leader and employee occurs in an effort to achieve certain performance goals.

The underlying difference between transformational leadership and transactional leadership is their focus on particular organizational aspects. Transformational leaders tend to concentrate on the actual employees, who are ultimately the cause of productivity in the workplace. These types of leaders actually care about their employees and in turn, want them to succeed. Transactional leaders place their focus on the needs of the organization. In essence, transactional leaders work hard to ensure that employees are meeting the overall organizational goals and not necessarily their personal/internal goals.

Contrary to the aforementioned aspects of transformational and transactional leadership styles, leaders who portray the laissez-faire style of leadership are less likely to exercise control over their employees and are more likely to allow employees a sense of freedom to perform their assigned tasks with a lack of direct supervision (Mehmood & Arif, 2011). The basis for utilizing this style of leadership is bidimensional. First, there is the belief that employees are aware of the duties of their jobs the best, thus it is okay to leave them alone to do their jobs. Second, the leader may be in a position where politics are involved and chooses not to exert power and control for fear of losing that position (Lai, 2011). Of the three types of leadership, laissez-faire is considered to be the least influential on employees.

Laissez-faire leaders will offer the team support but only on an as needed basis.

They are not the type of leader to get involved with the day-to-day tasks. While some research suggests that it can be the most ineffective method of leadership (Khan, Aslam & Riaz, 2011; Lai, 2011; Mehmood & Arif, 2011) there are some that defends this type of leadership style as effective. Goodnight (2004) suggested that one way a laissez-faire leader can be effective is if he or she monitors performance and gives feedback to team members regularly. So, while the leader may not be engaged in the daily tasks of the organizations, monitoring the overall outcome and providing insight may be helpful. In addition, Goodnight (2004) argued against placing a laissez-faire leadership style with employees who are new to the workplace and require guidance, it is more effective when employees are self-starters, and quite experienced in their line of work. There is one main benefit that laissez-faire leadership style offers, providing a level of autonomy for employees that may not be present in other leadership-employee relationships (Goodnight). This can lead to increased productivity and high job satisfaction because employees feel like they are in charge of their own destiny. The downside is that it can be detrimental to the organization if employees lack good time-management skills and/or the proper skillset and motivation to perform their duties effectively.

Gender and Leadership Style

It is fair to say that in today's society, the roles of women in corporate America have expanded. However, women are still underrepresented in leadership positions. The effect of gender role stereotypes means that, unfortunately, a woman's effectiveness as a leader will almost always be undervalued (Cheng & Lin, 2012). Because of this, there is an apparent need to prove, or disprove what the stereotypes suggest. Current research

provides a variety of explanations on how the gender of a leader can influence their employees. On one hand, some research reveals that both men and women have a specific leadership style and even further, that employees will identify with at least one (Cheng & Lin). On the other hand, some research suggests that it is not necessarily the leader's gender, and specific leadership style they portray, but rather the congruity (or lack thereof) of the leader's gender with the employee's gender that will likely influence behavior (Grissom, Nicholson-Crotty & Keiser, 2012). The collaborative behaviors of the employee and leader are thus contingent upon their gender roles.

Rudman and Phelan (2010), in their investigation of gender roles and beliefs in leadership positions, summarized what much of the previous research has acknowledged (e.g., Eagly & Sczesny, 2009). Stereotypes of how men differ from women are akin to the general perception of how a leader differs from an employee; one possesses key traits that the other does not. In their review of gender stereotype literature, Rudman and Phelan suggested that men are believed to possess traits like being aggressive, independent, impartial, competitive, and decisive, whereas women are believed to be nurturing, emotional, sensitive, dependent, and compliant. These gender beliefs are generally accepted to be normal by society and understood by the opposite gender as they have been in place over many generations (Rudman & Phelan). As a result of gender stereotyping, it can be argued that both men and women employees expect their leaders to employ more masculine and authoritarian attributes.

Schein (1972) was probably one of the first of many woman researchers who delved into gender stereotypes in an industrial/organizational setting. Seeking to assess

some of the many obstacles that minimize the prevalence of women in more senior ranking positions, Schein (1972) asked a sample of leaders to identify their type of leadership style by using a list of 92 male and female attributes. Surprisingly, her results asserted that both male and female leaders believed that being successful was primarily based on the possession of more masculine traits than feminine traits.

Gutek's (1993) research validated Schein's (1972) findings through an assessment of stereotypes of women in leadership positions more than twenty years later. Similarly, it was found that women in management positions were perceived as less aggressive and independent when compared to their men counterparts. On the contrary, however, research conducted a few years prior demonstrated that, yes women are perceived as less aggressive, but they are seen as having higher degrees of interpersonal skills (Eagly & Steffen, 1984; Eagly & Johnson, 1990). Like Schein's (1972) and Gutek's (1993) findings, more recent research has also led to the general idea that there are differences that exist between male and female leadership styles.

A significant amount of literature has examined the leadership styles of women and men. Psychogios (2007) suggested that research about gender and the associated leadership styles has often been quite conflicting – it either does or does not support the idea of the existence of prototypical male and female leadership styles. Although much of the existing research uses a variety of methods to evaluate a leader's style, the most popular measure has been to obtain employee's opinion of their leader's style by asking them to rate their leader on specific items that are deemed essential to a particular style of leadership.

Eagly and Johnson (1990) conducted a meta-analysis on available gender and leadership literature. They found that the majority of the studies examined four aspects of leadership styles: (a) task, (b) personal, (c) democratic and (d) autocratic. Most of the studies included in the meta-analysis upheld that the task dimension included behaviors such as maintaining high standards for performance, and clearly defining leader and employee roles, while the personal leadership dimension comprised behaviors such as being approachable and altruistic to employees. Eagly and Johnson, along with other researchers (e.g., Psychogios, 2007) stated that the democratic/autocratic dimension relates to gender stereotypes in the same manner as the task/personal dimension. Men are believed to be more dominant and controlling (i.e., more autocratic) than women. Additionally, three types of study settings were examined in the meta-analysis: (a) organizational studies, (b) assessment studies, and (c) experimental studies.

Eagly and Johnson (1990) were able to conclude that while male and female leaders did not significantly differ in their task-oriented style, there was a small tendency for women to be more socially oriented than men. In addition, with respect to being directive versus participative, male leaders were found to be much more directive than female leaders and women much more participative than men. This finding held steady in all three settings of empirical studies. Within organizational settings men and women did not differ when it came to task leadership styles. This is indicative of the idea that within organizational chain of commands, leadership roles take precedence over gender roles.

Further confirmation of the actual differences between male and female leaders was shown through Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt's (2001) meta-analysis of 47 studies

comparing male and female leadership styles. In addition to the 47 studies, they also investigated transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles in a large sample of leaders. Ratings of leaders were obtained using the MLQ where their employees indicated how frequently their leaders engaged in behaviors that were typical of the three aforementioned leadership styles. Similar to preceding studies, though small, gender differences did exist within the sample. Women surpassed men on three of the transformational attributes – including idealized influence, motivation and individualized consideration as well as on the contingent reward aspect of transactional leadership (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt).

These findings suggest that unlike men, women are more likely to motivate their employees, be optimistic about the future, attend to individual needs and offer rewards for good performance. All of these attributes are indicative of communal content. On the other hand however, Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt found that men surpassed women on both transactional and laissez-faire leadership attributes. In essence, men were more likely to attend to employee's problems and mistakes, delay until problems became more critical before solving them and are more preoccupied and uninvolved during the most serious times. These findings, like much of the other research, imply that leadership style findings conducted in an experimental setting do tend to be quite gender-stereotypic. That is, gender roles are highly influential on one's behavior and will undoubtedly produce gender prototypical behaviors. Though the differences are considered small, it is fair to assume that men and women do actually lead differently. A later meta-analysis by Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt and Van Engen (2003) also confirmed the influence of gender on

one's leadership style. They found that female leaders are much more transformational than male leaders and that men are more likely to display characteristics of a transactional and/or laissez-faire leader. These findings suggest that leadership styles are relative to one another.

In a review of the relationship between sex, gender and leadership, Powell (2012) asserted that discrimination of women in leadership roles might be attributable to the influence of gender stereotypes on leadership performance. In their 2012 study, Cheng and Lin sought to understand the effectiveness of leader by examining their gender and leadership style. They collected information on 345 pairs of employee-supervisor relationships in enterprises of Taiwan. A correlational analysis revealed that the greater the positive emotional expression and moral leadership portrayed by supervisors, the greater the loyalty and job performance of employees (Cheng & Lin, 2012). Contrary to Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt's (2001) study, two-way ANOVA analysis revealed two significant factors: (1) the gender of supervisors did not have a significant moderating effect on moral leadership; and (2) the use of authoritarian leadership style held different effects on job performance, contingent upon one's gender.

From these findings, the authors were able to conclude that most employees are used to male leaders displaying authoritarian leadership styles but not female leaders and that employees of female leaders had significantly poorer job performance. Although Cheng and Lin (2012) found no real effect on how men and women lead their employees, their study confirms the stereotypes that exist between women and men in leadership positions. Their findings, amongst others validate that leadership style does impact

employee behavior in a variety of ways.

Theories of Motivation

The development of theories of motivation has had very incongruent influences during different moments in history. Some theories postulate that the forces behind motivation are biological (e.g. Maslow's hierarchy of needs) whereas others assume it is social, emotional or cognitive (e.g., Herzberg's two-factor theory; Deci and Ryan's Self-Determination theory). In essence, while researchers have established a number of diverse theories that explain motivation, each theory is still rather limited in scope. The term motivation is the power that initiates, guides and maintains goal-oriented behaviors. It is what encourages an individual to take action. For example, whether to eat a sandwich to reduce hunger or enroll in college courses seeking a degree are both driven by motivation. When an individual believes that he/she is engaging in a specific behavior that will ensue a desired outcome, that is the description of motivation (Eyal & Roth, 2011).

Because of the many facets of motivation, it is difficult to define motivation in one manner that could be considered universal. Industrialists learn how to motivate consumers to purchase products and utilize their services based on their understanding of what motivation means and organizations seek to find the element that motivates employees to work diligently, efficiently and productively based on their understanding of the term. Motivation is the phenomenon that explains why people think and behave as they do (Eyal & Roth, 2011). As defined by Lundberg, Gudmondson and Anderson (2009), in the workplace, motivation refers to a set of active forces that originate both

within and beyond an individual's being, which then initiates work-related behavior. To help further understand motivation and its many facets, exploring types of motivation as well as some of the more popular theories that have made their way down the historical pipeline will provide some clarity on motivation in its entirety.

Extrinsic motivation vs. intrinsic motivation

To be motivated means to be encouraged by something to do something. There are two types of workplace motivation: extrinsic and intrinsic (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Both types of motivation have been the subjects of a variety of scholarly research that provides insight on what makes them similar, but more importantly, what makes them different. Deci and Ryan suggest that the most primitive distinction between these two types of motivation is the idea that one refers to engaging in something because it is enjoyable, or simply because one wants to (intrinsic motivation), while the other refers to engaging in something because it is believed to have some type of pleasurable outcome associated with it (extrinsic motivation). Contingent upon which type of motivation is present, the quality of one's behavior will significantly vary.

In the workplace, employees that are intrinsically motivated are more likely to perform their day-to-day tasks, primarily because they are willing and eager to engage. Lin (2007) asserts that their overall work performance is much more meaningful, and more oftentimes than not, will go above and beyond to engage in work activities. Because employees are motivated by factors within themselves, they participate in work activities because it provides pleasure, the opportunity to acquire a new skill or simply because it is morally considered the right thing to do (Lin). It is not uncommon for employees with

higher levels of intrinsic motivation to become so engaged that they lose track of time while working.

On the other side of the spectrum is extrinsic motivation. It is oftentimes characterized as a "pale and impoverished form" of motivation that significantly contrasts with intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2000). In essence, extrinsically motivated employees may have to be enticed with some type of incentive to perform the same tasks. Unlike those that are intrinsically motivated, employees who are extrinsically motivated perform work to get the rewards, benefits and recognition associated with doing the work (Lin, 2007). Employees are motivated to perform work tasks as a means to an end, and not necessarily as an end in itself. Both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation has its advantages and disadvantages in getting employees to be productive. Intrinsic motivation can be difficult to tap into because of its personal nature. In some cases, employees may be dealing with difficulties in their personal lives that use up their energy and leaves very little space for organizational enthusiasm.

Hawthorne Studies

One of the first studies to explain motivation occurred between 1924 and 1932 at the Hawthorne plant of the Western Electric Company in Cicero, Illinois (Gillespie, 1994). The four-part research originally designed to manipulate the physiological stimulus of the employees' environment (i.e., humidity, brightness of the lighting) to determine its effect on worker production. It later turned into an exploration of much more of the psychological aspects of the workplace including group pressure, leadership and working hours (Cinar, Bektas & Aslan, 2011). The results of the Hawthorne study

revealed much more than the researchers bargained for and included two major findings: (1) employees were not simply motivated by extrinsic factors such as pay for performance and (2) the way in which employees behave is based strongly upon their attitudes (Cinar, et al.). Furthermore, regardless of the physical stimulus manipulation used in the study, the employees' production seemed to increase. The researchers were ultimately able to conclude that if employees are permitted to participate in decision-making that affects their interests, they are more likely to perform better. Employees work much more efficiently when they feel there is a genuine concern for their welfare from leadership. Finally, when employees feel they are being treated with respect and poise, overall work performance is likely to increase. The results of the Hawthorne studies set the foundation for other researchers seeking to explore the concept of motivation.

Maslow's Theory of Motivation

As a founding father of humanistic psychology, Abraham Maslow and his theory are rarely used as a source of input for scholarly research on the topic of motivation (Neher, 1991). However, it is important to at least examine its implications as it relates to employees and their behaviors. Maslow was a firm believer in the idea that psychological forces are what initiate human behavior. His theory assumed the existence of a graduated scale of needs that ranged from basic, physical ones to much higher level ones (Neher). More specifically, Maslow's theory of motivation describes a hierarchical pyramid that includes five needs individuals are born with that require being met. The first layer of the hierarchy encompasses physiological needs (i.e., food, water and oxygen); the second and

third layers include safety needs and love and intimacy needs, respectively; the fourth

level describes attaining a positive level of self-esteem; and level five is the epitome of a

perfect human being – achieving self-actualization. Essentially, Maslow believed that

organizations would achieve enhanced results from its employees if they were able to

recognize the individual needs and then varied the rewards being offered to them.

To test Maslow's theory of motivation, Mill's (1985) study interviewed a sample

of 708 subjects who were visiting a California area ski resort. Participants were asked to

rate the relevance of 23 items for having a successful ski day. The collected data were

analyzed to determine the empirical structure of motivation correlated with Maslow's

theory. Mill was able to operationalize the four upper levels of Maslow's hierarchy and

conclude that instead of the popular one-dimensional hierarchy, the operational measures

of Maslow needs combined to portray a two-dimensional structure of motivation. This

two-dimensional specification of the theory was found to be consistent with Maslow's

theory and highlighted the differentiation between skiers more than the popular one-

dimensional hierarchy.

As Maslow's hierarchy of needs relates to the workplace, only once lower needs

are fully met would an employee be motivated to progress to the next level. A person

who is suffering from hunger will be more motivated to achieve basic pay in order to buy

food than worrying about being respected by peers or having job security. It may be

helpful for leaders and organization to recognize and understand Maslow's hierarchy, its

influence on motivation and that not all employees are motivated in the same manner

(Neher). Employees will not move up the hierarchy in the same pace. Understanding

more than one theory of motivation would also be helpful, as incentives will differ slightly from employee to employee.

Herzberg's Two-factor Hygiene Theory of Motivation

Similar to Maslow, Herzberg also proposed a behavioral theory to explain motivation in individuals. His two-factor theory of motivation asserts that certain factors exist that could directly motivate, or satisfy individuals in an organizational setting and thus enhance their overall performance. Additionally, there are hygiene factors that also exist, however these will create dissatisfaction if they are not present. Yet, the presence of these dissatisfiers does not motivate or create satisfaction (Herzberg, 2008). Research on Herzberg's two-dimensional paradigm determined that such factors as the organization's policy, leadership, interpersonal relationships, working environment, and salary are considered hygiene factors rather than motivators. On the contrary, he determined from his research that motivators were elements that enriched an employee's job such as accomplishment, acknowledgement, day-to-day work tasks, responsibility and the potential for promotion (Herzberg). Thus, Herzberg was able to associate motivators with positive long-term effects while hygiene factors were likely to only provide short-term gratification. Motivators relate to what an employee does while the dissatisfiers relate to the environment in which the employee does what he or she does (Herzberg).

To validate Herzberg's theory, Lundberg, Gudmondson and Anderson (2009) conducted a mixed-methods study on the levels of motivation of seasonal workers in hospitality and tourism. Based on the belief that needs theories more adequately

explained work motivation, Herzberg's theory of motivation was used at the theoretical

foundation of Lundberg's et al. research. Need theories are based on the assumption that

once an individual's needs are met, they are able to drive action. By identifying needs

and then fulfilling them, employees are able to become motivated at work (Lundberg,

Gudmondson & Anderson). Lundberg's et al. study consisted of interviews and

questionnaires distributed to 266 seasonal employees who were asked about their views

on their working and non-working livelihood. Findings revealed that workers were

significantly less concerned about wage and more concerned about meeting new people.

Ultimately, they were able to conclude that work motivation was grounded in the

satisfaction of higher needs or self-fulfillment needs and not in mundane needs such as

pay levels or other benefits. That being said, a leader who displays effective leadership

skills may be deemed a higher need and consequently cause an increase in work

motivation and in overall satisfaction. Dissatisfaction could be prevented by

improvements in hygiene factors but these improvements would not alone provide

motivation. An organization would also need to consider the conditions that make

employees feel fulfilled in the workplace.

Deci and Ryan's Self-Determination Theory

Deci and Ryan's Self-Determination Theory (SDT) focuses on an individual's

inherent growth and their innate psychological needs as the motivation behind choices,

without external influence or interference. The most fundamental aspect of SDT is its

distinction between autonomous motivation and controlled motivation (Gagne & Ryan,

2005). Autonomy involves acting with a sense of independence and desire as well as

having the experience of choice. Intrinsic motivation can be deemed an example of autonomy, as it relates to motivation. For example, when individuals participate in an activity because they find it interesting, they are doing the activity out of autonomous motivation (e.g., I go to work because it is fun). Contrarily, being controlled involves participating in a task with a sense of pressure, or a sense of being forced to engage in activities. Using extrinsic rewards can be deemed a form of controlled motivation (Gagne & Ryan). SDT hypothesizes that autonomous and controlled motivations differ in terms of the underlying regulatory processes and accompanying experiences associated with each. Because of that, behaviors can be described in terms of the extent to which they are autonomous versus controlled. Both types of motivation are calculated, and together they stand in contrast to amotivation, the lack of intention and/or motivation (Gagne & Ryan).

To test Deci and Ryan's SDT, Thogersen-Ntoumani and Ntoumanis (2007) examined the role of motivational guidelines to exercise and need satisfaction as predictors of body image concerns, self-presentation and self-perceptions using SDT as a guiding framework. In this empirical research, 149 aerobic instructors were asked to complete a questionnaire that inquired about five key concepts: (a) general need satisfaction, (b) exercise motivational principles, (c) concerns for body image, (d) social physique anxiety and (e) self-perceptions. From the results of Thogersen-Ntoumani and Ntoumanis' study, they were able to conclude that intrinsic motivation did positively predict self-worth whereas autonomy need satisfaction negatively predicted body image concerns. Additionally, differences were found to exist in need satisfaction, forced regulation, self-perceptions and social physique anxiety between those individuals

considered at risk of developing eating disorders and those not at risk. The results suggest that satisfaction of the need to be in control of one's life plays a critical role in predicting body image concerns thus, offering support for Deci and Ryan's Self-determination theory.

Path-Goal Theory of Motivation

Of the major theories of motivation, there is one in particular that has a direct relation to a leader's specific style of leadership and most applicable to the current research; that is the path-goal theory of motivation. Researchers suggest that House's path-goal theory of motivation postulates an employee's level of motivation, job satisfaction and overall performance in the workplace are contingent upon the type of leadership style portrayed by their leader (House, 1971). With origins in expectancy theory, the path-goal theory of motivation assumes that an employee's understanding of what is expected of him in the workplace is significantly affected by how their leader behaves (House). The role of the leader is to assist employees in attaining rewards by explaining the anticipated paths to goals and removing visible obstacles that may hinder performance. Leaders in this position remain active by delivering the necessary information, support and other resources that may be required for employees to get the job done (House, 1996). Rather than viewing a leadership position as one of power, House's path-goal theory emphasizes a view of leaders that is similar to a transformational style of leadership. Leaders act as coaches and facilitators to their employees in an effort to increase their level of motivation and overall effectiveness.

House's theory has been exposed to empirical validation in a variety of research

studies and has received some scholarly research support (House, 1996). Using data gathered from a manufacturing facility, Dixon and Hart (2010) explored the relationship between path-goal leadership styles, diversity, work group effectiveness, and work group members' turnover intention. Similar to House's theory, Dixon and Hart asserted that leaders who utilize path-goal theories of motivation as their foundation are more likely to provide ideas that empower, motivate, and encourage high levels of individual and group performance in the organization; they hypothesized that there is a statistically significant positive relationship between path-goal leadership styles and work group effectiveness.

To test this hypothesis, surveys were distributed to 260 employees working in one of 20 work groups (e.g., production/manufacturing, distribution/ logistics, technology, cleaning/painting, or recycling) (Dixon & Hart, 2010). Utilizing leaders who specifically displayed one of three path-goal leadership styles (Instrumental, Supportive and Participative), participants were asked to complete a survey inquiring information on four measures: (1) participant demographics (i.e., age, gender, rage, ethnicity); (2) perceptions of their leader's style of leadership using the Perceived Leadership Behavior Scale (PLBS); (3) perceptions of their work groups' effectiveness; and (4) employees' turnover intention. Findings confirmed their hypothesis, portraying a path-goal leadership style does positively correlate with work group effectiveness. In addition, work group effectiveness showed no significant correlation with turnover intention (Dixon & Hart). These findings authenticate House's theory as overall performance was influenced by the leader's path-goal approach. Essentially, employees were more likely to be motivated, and much more productive when paths and goals are clearly outlined for them.

In another attempt to validate House's path-goal theory, Vandegrift and Matusitz (2011) took a different approach and explored specific organizations that utilize path-goal theories of motivation. One successful organization they found is renowned music recording company, Columbia records. Through exploring the organization's leadership structure and results of their productivity, Vandegrift and Matusitz found that path-goal theory was very much present in its day-to-day transactions. Essentially, they were able to pinpoint that because executives (leaders) laid out a clear path, and set goals for their clients, they were able to maintain their motivation and sell records. Ultimately, Vandegrift and Matusitz confirmed that by thoroughly applying the multiple styles and principles that path-goal theory offers, Columbia Records executives have made this music recording company one of the most successful organizations in history. Vandegrift and Matusitz demonstrate that the facets of path-goal theory can be successfully applied to a record company, not just typical workplaces and organizations where employee-leader interactions are present.

Based on the research, there are driving factors that either enhance or stagnate individuals. In the workplace, research shows that motivated employees, whether intrinsically or extrinsically, are much more productive and creative than those who are considered unmotivated. Employees enjoy their work and are more likely to go above and beyond to get their jobs done and will even experience less stress when there is an increased level of motivation. Leaders and organizations alike have long strived to find ways to motivate their employees. Behavioral theorists and psychologists have developed various concepts about motivation in an attempt to better comprehend and control human

behavior. A basic understanding of these major motivation theories provides

organizations with insight on how motivation can be applied in the workplace.

Observed impact of leadership style on employees

In any organization, the role of the leader is to ensure organizational goals are

being met as well as leading employees to put their best foot forward. Therefore, it is fair

to say that in the workplace, what somewhat makes for a good and effective leader is the

ability to motivate employees to participate in behaviors known to lead to positive

outcomes for the organization. Unfortunately, the available literature on the role of

leadership style fostering employee motivation in organizations is quite scarce. The few

studies that have examined leadership style and its impact on employees typically only

examine transformational leadership style versus transactional leadership style and

explores variables like work engagement, job satisfaction and commitment – which in

some cases, could translate to employee motivation. The present study is intended to

bridge the gap between leadership style and motivation by exploring all three major

styles of leadership.

The universal theme among the available scholarly research is that (1) leadership

is fundamental to the success of all organizations, regardless of their size, tenure and

status (Mehmood & Ari, 2011); (2) transformational leadership can have a significantly

greater effect than transactional leadership in predicting employee satisfaction whereas

laissez-faire typically leads to negative effects (Khan, Ramzan, Ahmed & Nawaz, 2011;

Spinelli, 2006); and (3) employees' overall performance has been found to be directly

correlated to their motivation (Oyedele, 2011). For example, Spinelli (2006) explored the

relationship between the leadership styles (transformational, transactional or laissez-faire) of healthcare CEOs and their employee's overall satisfaction, willingness to go above and beyond, and their perception of the leaders' effectiveness. Surveys were deployed to 101 participants that were employed across five medical centers in Pennsylvania. Findings showed that the more leaders portrayed the laissez-faire style with their employees, the less likely they were to exert any extra effort nor do they consider the leader as effective (Spinelli). The more employees perceived the leader as being transformational, the more they reported taking more initiative and being more satisfied (Spinelli). Overall, the relationship between transformational leadership and the outcome factors significantly outweighed the transactional and laissez-faire styles. These findings imply that in general, employees are more likely to be motivated and perform better when there is a transformational leadership present.

Similar to Spinelli's (2006) research, Tims, Bakker and Xanthopoulou (2011) examined the influence of a leader's style on employee work engagement. Tims et al. postulated that neither transactional nor laissez-faire leadership styles influence employees' level of work engagement because both lack the power of motivation and inspiration. In fact, they asserted that contrary to the elements of transactional leadership, external rewards have found to be negatively impact motivation. They wanted to explore (1) the extent to which leaders demonstrated transformational leadership style and (2) the impact those characteristics had on work engagement. Work engagement, operationalized as a "positive affective-motivational work-related state that is characterized by vigor, dedication and absorption" (Tims et al.) was measured by surveying 42 consultants about

their opinions using the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale followed by a diary survey over 5 consecutive days. Subjects were asked to refer to and rate a different leader of their organization. Essentially, Tims et al found a significant positive relation between transformational leadership and work engagement ($t = 2.33$, p<.05). That is, like Spinelli, the more likely leaders are to portray transformational leadership, the more likely employees are to be engaged in work.

Khan, Aslam, and Riaz (2012) also examined the many facets of leadership styles. Unlike the two previous studies, they explored leadership as a predictor of employee innovative work behavior. Utilizing the MLQ to assess leadership style and Innovative Work Behavior Scale to assess innovation, 100 bank managers of Rawalpindi and Islamabad were asked to complete a self-report survey of their specific leadership styles as well as their perception of their innovative work behavior. This study provided a different view as most studies only consider the employee's point of view when assessing leadership style.

Both transactional and transformational styles of leadership were found to positively predict innovative behavior, whereas laissez-faire negatively impacted it. A stepwise regression analysis where all three leadership styles were entered as predictors of innovative work behavior revealed that transformational leadership style is the most positive predictor of innovative work behavior causing 36% of the variance. Transactional leadership style followed closely behind with 43% variance. Khan, Aslam, and Riaz also found that female leaders were more likely to display transformational leadership whereas male leaders considered themselves to be more innovative. These

findings validate the idea that leadership style impacts behavior.

From a different perspective, Khan, Ramzan, Ahmed and Nawaz (2011) evaluated leadership styles in an academia setting in Punjab, Pakistan. They assessed the extent to which the leadership styles of teaching faculty could predict student satisfaction and extra effort. 256 faculty members were asked to give a self-perception of their leadership style using the MLQ, as well as of their student's satisfaction and willingness to go above and beyond normal tasks. Through a correlational analysis, Khan et al found that both transformational and transactional leadership styles were positively correlated to extra effort and satisfaction levels of students. However, laissez-faire negatively impacted student's level of effort and satisfaction. The more likely a teacher exhibits the laissez-faire type of leadership, the less likely students are to be satisfied and put forth any extra effort. Though Khan, et al's results are consistent with much of the available scholarly research, their findings may be somewhat biased because of the self-perception aspect.

Similar to Khan, Ramzan, Ahmed and Nawaz (2011), Eyal and Roth (2010) explored leadership styles in an educational environment. They investigated the relationship between principal's leadership style and teachers' motivation (both controlled and autonomous). 122 Israeli elementary school teachers were asked to complete surveys that assessed three measures (1) principal's leadership style (MLQ), (2) self-reported motivation level and (3) self-reported burnout levels. Eyal and Roth found that leadership style, in and of itself, does impact motivation, especially as it describes the principal teacher relationship. Additionally, overall teacher's sense of burnout and motivation was quite low (M =2.32 and 2.92, respectively). Transformational leadership

did not positively correlate with burnout, however there was a positive correlation between transactional leadership and burnout. In addition, transformational leadership was significantly and positively correlated to autonomous motivation whereas transactional leadership was significantly and positively correlated to controlled motivation. Eyal and Roth were able to conclude that principals' leadership style was an active predictor of motivation and feelings of exhaustion. Portraying a transformational leadership style in the academia setting is more likely to increase controlled motivation as well as decrease burnout among teachers.

Review of the empirical research confirms what leadership theories have stated all along. How leader's lead can positively and/or negatively impact how their followers behave. Although past studies have effectively demonstrated the positive aspects of transformational leadership by linking it to employee innovation, work engagement, commitment and satisfaction, it is rare that they specifically evaluated motivation.

Conclusion

This review of the literature lays the foundation for the current study. While it highlights many of the gender role theories that exist as well as the stereotypes relating to gender, it also reveals a gap in the literature regarding the factors associated with employee motivation. More specifically, exploring factors likes leader's gender and leadership style as extrinsic motivation factors has not been closely examined. Social role theories suggest that gendered behavior does have an impact on others. Similarly, leadership theories suggest that specific styles can also impact employees' behaviors. In addition to laying the foundation, this comprehensive review identified many of the

empirical studies that have been conducted to either confirm or deny gender role theories and leadership theories as they relate to the workplace. While the available literature suggests gendered behaviors can influence the way in which others act, little research has specifically examined the influence of a leader's gender and/or style on the motivation of the employees. Perhaps the most critical part of this literature review is its identification of the theories of leadership style and motivation that exist and how each highlights different factors that can enhance and diminish one's level of motivation.

On the topic of effectiveness, both gender of the leader and specific leadership style could be deemed as more effective than the other. Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt's (2001) and Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt and Van Engen's (2003) meta-analyses suggest that a woman's use of transformational style and aspects of transactional leadership (i.e., contingent reward) should improve an organization's effectiveness. In an attempt to investigate the role of leadership style in public sector organizations, Wright and Pandey (2009) concluded that the prevalence of transformational leadership style significantly outweighed the presence of transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles. The present research does not seek to answer the question of which gender and/or leadership style is most effective, or which is more prevalent. Instead rather, it is concerned with which is most influential especially as it relates to employee motivation in the workplace. The following chapter specifically outlines how this will be conducted.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

Employee motivation is a multi-faceted concept because motivation can be influenced by a variety of internal and external factors. Motivation is what causes employees to pursue work tasks or goals and respond to stimuli in a certain way. The goal in carrying out this research was to clarify the concepts of leadership and gender and their relationship to employee motivation. This chapter provides a discussion of the research methodology used for studying the impact of leadership style and leader's gender on employee motivation. A discussion of the setting and sample population is also discussed. The specific measurement tools and their reliability and validity are discussed followed by a discussion of how data was collected and analyzed. Finally, an explanation of the role of the researcher and the measures to be taken to protect participants' rights is provided.

Research Design and Approach

The current study used quantitative survey methodology to collect data in an effort to examine a leader's gender and style of leadership relative to the motivation levels of his or her employees. According to Creswell (2009), a researcher using a qualitative approach is able to inquire in depth about a distinct social problem. Qualitative research requires a researcher to build complex, holistic pictures, analyze difficult words and conversations, and report detailed views and observations of participants (Creswell). Qualitative researchers typically conduct their studies in a natural setting (Creswell). According to Creswell (2009), when a researcher develops a

hypothesis about the relationship of two distinct variables, the most applicable approach is quantitative.

The research design for this study was a two-way between groups design. A research design in which the researcher assesses the differences between two or more groups (i.e., male leaders versus female leaders) is considered a between group design (Marczyk, 2005). A between groups design establishes causal relationships between the independent variable and the dependent variables and uses a separate sample of individuals for each treatment condition. On the contrary, a within-subject design (i.e., a before and after type of design) uses the same individuals for each treatment condition (Marczyk). Many scholarly researchers have taken a between groups approach to measure the relationship of leadership style on another variable (Afolabi, Obude, Okediji, & Ezeh, 2008; Bodla, 2010; Madlock, 2008). This study examines the relationship between gender, leadership style, as measured by the MLQ and employee motivation, as measured by the WPI.

Quantitative data was gathered using self-report instruments to measure the variables of the current study. According to Tourangeau, Rips and Rasinski (2000), surveys and questionnaires are one of the most common methods used to collect data. The survey method gathers quantitative data on a particular subject in question. More specifically, survey methodology is designed to ask a representative sample of individuals the same questions regarding their attitudes, opinions, values and beliefs (Tourangeau, Rips & Rasinski). Utilizing survey methodology allows participants to provide their opinions on the subject matter in a more concealed manner. The WPI was

used to acquire employees' views on their leaders' impact on their level of motivation.

The MLQ was used to determine the specific leadership style that a leader possesses (see

Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Research Questions and Hypothesis

The purpose in carrying out this quantitative study was to evaluate the influence

of a leader's gender and leadership style on employee motivation in organizations that

have fewer than 100 employees. The MLQ (Avolio & Bass, 2004) was used to measure

leadership style as it relates to transformational, transactional, or laissez-faire

characteristics. Concurrently, level of employee motivation was measured through the

extrinsic portion of the WPI. The following research questions and hypotheses guide the

investigation:

RQ1: What is the impact of a leader's gender on employee motivation?

$H_0 1$: There is no statistically significant difference in mean motivation between

male and female leaders.

$H_1 1$: There is a statistically significant difference in mean motivation between

male and female leaders

RQ2: What is the impact of leadership style on employee motivation?

$H_0 2$: There is no statistically significant difference in mean motivation between

transactional, transformational or laissez-faire leadership styles.

$H_1 2$: There is a statistically significant difference in mean motivation between

transactional, transformational or laissez-faire leadership styles.

RQ3: What impact does the interaction of leadership style and a leader's gender have on employee motivation?

$H_0$3: There is no statistically significant difference between the interaction effects of leadership style and gender on employee motivation.

$H_1$3: There is a statistically significant difference between the interaction effects of leadership style and gender on employee motivation.

Setting and Sample

The target population for the current study was organizations with fewer than 100 employees. In recruiting participants, those individuals who were employed in a variety of organizational settings and had a working relationship (a regular interaction) with their current leaders were selected to participate. Settings included the general public with Internet access. Both male and female employees were asked to participate in the study and both employees and leaders were required to be in their positions for at least six months. Additionally, participants were to have maintained a working relationship with the same leader for at least six months. Participants were first solicited through Walden University's participant pool. The participant pool was open to all students at the university and serves as a bulletin board connecting researchers to individuals who are interested in being part of research studies. Additionally, Walden University's participant pool offers the researcher access to diverse individuals from a variety of backgrounds and professions and also serves as a method of convenience sampling. In addition to the participant pool, access to the survey link was posted in professional groups on LinkedIn. G Power 3, a popular software used to perform statistical power analysis for research

(Faul, Erdfelder, Lang & Buchner, 2007), calculated that with a medium effect size of .3, an alpha value = .05 and a statistical power = 95%, an ideal sample size for this study was approximately 135 total participants. In an effort to saturate the data, the total sample size was 178 participants.

Data Collection and Analysis

Upon approval from Walden University's Institutional Review Board (IRB), the survey questionnaire was posted on Walden's participant pool website. From there, survey participants were directed to an anonymous questionnaire via Survey Monkey where an implied consent was the first point of reference. In order to proceed to the survey questions in the study, participants has to agree to the following statement, "By clicking the button below, you giving your consent to participate." In addition, the survey included 'knock-out questions' that helped weed out participants that did not qualify. For example, not being employed at a small organization, or not being in a working relationship with the same leader for at least 6 months would automatically disqualify a participant. Once participants clicked on the statement, they were directed to the questionnaire.

As previously mentioned, data gathering was initiated through the use of the MLQ and the WPI. Both measurement tools were designed to collect ordinal data. Developed by Avolio and Bass (2004), the MLQ 5X version of the form is the most current and has been used in a variety of leadership research (Afolabi, Obude, Okediji, & Ezeh, 2008; Eyal & Roth, 2011; Khan, Ramzan, Ahmed, & Nawaz, 2011; Madlock, 2008). The MLQ measured the independent variable of leadership style (i.e.,

transformational, transactional and laissez-faire) while the WPI measured the dependent variable of level of motivation. Combined together to make one survey, the data collection tool was created by Mind Garden and distributed to those individuals agreeing to participate in the study.

All information collected from participants was completely confidential. No names or identifying information of participants was collected and/or used. Instead, each survey was numbered for purposes of organizing the data. Additionally, an implied consent was obtained prior to allowing individuals to participate. The purpose of the implied consent was to inform participants of the purpose and procedures of the study, describe confidentially, provide information on any known risks, inform individuals that participation is voluntary and that they are free to discontinue participation at any time, and lastly, obtain consent to participation.

To begin the analysis, data was put into The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), a data management software program used to analyze data for statistical significance. A 2x3 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was the method of analysis. ANOVAs are ideal when a researcher wants to examine the effect of two independent categorical variables on a dependent variable. Thus, for the current study, an ANOVA allowed the researcher to test the main effect of both leadership style and gender on employee motivation. Additionally, an ANOVA allows the researcher to test if the interaction of variables is the same across the board. Unlike a *t-test*, an ANOVA examines whether or not the means of a population are the same by looking at the variances between groups; it was the best method of analysis for the current study. One

potential confounding variable was the gender of the employee, as there was the potential

for biases toward the gender of the leader. This bias was not detected in the analysis. In

addition, ethnicity may have influenced the outcome, as different cultural backgrounds

may perceive leadership style and motivation differently.

Instrumentation and Materials

Two instruments were used in the study: MLQ and WPI. The MLQ was used to

determine which type of leadership styles the leader most attributes. Because the current

study sought to identify one of three types of leader's style and the MLQ is one of the

most popular assessments that accurately measures which type of leadership style a

leader portrays (Avolio & Bass, 2004), it was found to be most applicable. A question

regarding the leader's gender was included in the demographic section. Other

demographic questions included length of employee's relationship with leader,

employees gender, and employee's tenure with the organization. The motivation

questionnaire was used to determine how an employee perceives his or her current state

of motivation. The MLQ, a well publicized and validated measurement tool, contains a

total of 45 items that assesses leadership style and effectiveness (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Specifically, it is broken down into four sections (1) leadership style, (2) extra effort, (3)

effectiveness, and (4) satisfaction. The three types of leadership the MLQ focuses on are

transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire. Using a point scale system, the anchors

used to evaluate factors of the MLQ are as follows: 0 = *not at all*; 1 = *once in a while*; 2 =

sometimes; 3 = *fairly often*; 4 = *frequently, if not always*. Participants were asked to select

one anchor for each question. Scores from each question on leadership style were

averaged to obtain an overall composite score. Essentially, higher scores on a particular

leadership style indicated a strong tendency toward that style of leadership (Avolio &

Bass). Because the MLQ utilizes a 360 Feedback system, it was deemed most appropriate

for the current study. The 360 feedback systems allow employees and employees to

provide feedback on their leaders via a less intimidating method. The scores from the

MLQ are meant to provide an idea of essential leadership and effectiveness behaviors

revealed in preceding research to be associated with both individual and organizational

success (Avolio & Bass).

A plethora of scholarly research has highlighted the MLQ's reliability and

constancy. Bass and Riggio (2012) assert that recent assessments of the MLQ

demonstrate a favorable internal consistency with an alpha of .80. Since its inception, the

MLQ has been used and substantiated by a number of researchers. Additionally, Avolio

and Bass provide extensive support for the MLQ's reliability and validity. Because of the

general makeup of the instrument, there was no apparent need to modify it for the present

study. Modifications included minor cosmetic clarifications of the MLQs instructions to

reflect the elements specific to this study. In that case, the validity and reliability of the

instrument did not pose any challenge.

The WPI, also used in this study, was developed by Amabile, Hill, Hennesy and

Tighe (1994). There are two versions of the WPI, a college student version and a working

adult version. The current study used the latter version. Both versions attempt to capture

the major components of (1) intrinsic motivation (autonomy, competence, task

involvement, pleasure, and curiosity) and (2) extrinsic motivation (concerns with

competition, evaluation, recognition for good performance, monetary incentives, and

constraint by others) (Amabile et al.,1994). Loo (2001) further researched the validity of

the WPI and suggested that developers have not only used the tool to highlight the

distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation but they have also identified the

key elements that underlie both types of motivation. Amabile et al. were able to identify

five elements underlying intrinsic motivation (self-determination, competence, task

involvement, curiosity, and interest) and five elements underlying extrinsic motivation

(evaluation, recognition, competition, monetary incentives, and a focus on

management/leadership). Unlike some of the other assessment tools that measure

motivation (i.e., The Motivation and Engagement Scale, The Work Engagement Scale

and The Work Climate Questionnaire), only the WPI is designed to assess an individual's

level of motivation. This study explored levels of motivation as a byproduct of leadership

style and a leader's gender, thus the WPI was the most applicable measurement tool. The

WPI is a 30-item scale that employs a four-point Likert scale response format (N = *Never*

or almost never true of you, S = *Sometimes true of* you, O = *Often true of* you, A =

Always or almost always true of you.

WPI scores can be used to evaluate behavioral measures of motivation.

Personality characteristics, attitudes, and behaviors are also measured through the WPI.

Similar to the MLQ, the WPI sustains a good test-retest reliability, strong internal

consistency and stability. Prior studies have validated the measures of the WPI.

According to Amabile et al., (1994), the internal consistency reliabilities of scores for the

WPI were .78 and .79, slightly lower than the generally accepted .80 cutoff value.

However, Amabile et al assert that the test-retest reliabilities for periods from 6 to 54 months were quite high, mostly in the .70s and .80s.

Protection of Human Participants

Until the approval of Walden University's IRB, no data were collected or analyzed. An IRB application and approval addresses the potential risks regarding any psychological, physical, social, economical or legal harm to survey participants (Creswell, 2009). Electronic data collected from the survey website was stored in a secure manner and password protected. The name of the participants did not appear on the survey questionnaire and results did not refer to any particular individual or organization. Additionally, an implied consent was prepared prior to survey deployment. Therein, the researcher clearly acknowledged participant's rights and outlined methods in which those rights will be protected (Creswell, 2009). The following elements were included in the consent form:

1. Participation in the study is completely voluntary, and the option to withdraw at anytime is available.

2. An in depth description of the purpose of the study.

3. An in depth description of the procedures of the study.

4. An in depth description of the benefits of the study.

5. The right for participants to inquire about results and ask questions as necessary.

Role of the Researcher

The researcher was the sole collector of data in this study. As such, it was the researcher's responsibility to maintain the confidentiality of participant's responses. Survey questionnaires will be stored for a total of five years after publication and then proper protocol will be taken to securely destroy data. It is the role of the researcher to collect data in a nameless electronic form, which is designed to maintain confidentiality.

Conclusion

The purpose of this chapter was to provide an explanation of the specific methods that were used to answer the research questions in this study. The MLQ and WPI were utilized to gather data from participants. The collected data was scored according to the directions outlined by each instrument's authors and then analyzed with SPSS software. Pearson's correlation coefficients and a 2x3 ANOVA were used to support answering the research questions from the data collected. The remaining chapters will provide a description of the results of the collected data along with a graphical presentation of the data, followed by and in depth chapter that interprets the findings and provides implication for future research.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The purpose in carrying out this quantitative study was to determine whether and to what extent a leader's gender and leadership style influenced employee motivation in small organizations. The MLQ obtained employees' perceptions of their leader's specific leadership style. The WPI measured employees' levels of extrinsic motivation. Additional questions were included to gauge participants' gender, age, tenure with their organization, and other demographic information. The researcher used a variety of statistical analysis to answer the research questions including a Pearson correlation and a 2x3 ANOVA. In this chapter, further explanations of the data analysis procedures as well as overall study findings are presented.

Demographics and Sample Characteristics

The data collection process proceeded as described in Chapter 3, with the exception of the survey open period. Data were collected between April 2014 and October 2014 using Mind Garden's survey software, Mind Garden's software is designed to produce questionnaires in an online format such that researchers are able to collect participant responses and produce output. In addition to demographic questions, the survey consisted of the MLQ rater form and the WPI. Rather than the proposed 3-week timeframe, the survey was open for a total of 120 days in an effort to increase the overall response rate. A total of 258 individuals employed for at least 6 months at a variety of small organizations were invited to participate in this study.

Once the data collection phase concluded, the complete set of data were examined to remove any incomplete, corrupt, or inaccurate surveys from the data set. Following the data cleaning efforts, data were then uploaded and analyzed using SPSS, v21.0. Prior to gathering data, a power analysis was conducted using G Power 3 software. The recommended sample size for this study was approximately 135 total participants. Of the 258 invitations that were sent to prospective participants, responses were received from 186 employees, 8 of whom failed to provide consent. During the data cleaning efforts, these 8 responses were not included in the final analysis. The disqualification of these 8 surveys left 178 completed surveys, which yielded a response rate of 69%. Specific attributes of the respondents are described below (see Table 1).

Table 1

Frequencies and Percentages for Categorical Variables (N=178)

Variables	*Frequency*	*Percentage*
Race		
Hispanic or Latino	3	1.7
White	75	42.1
African American	77	43.3
American Indian	4	2.2
Asian	9	5.1
Biracial	7	3.9
Other	3	1.7
Gender		
Female	116	65.2
Male	62	34.8
Age		
Under 21	6	3.4
22-29 years	32	18.0
30-39 years	72	40.4
40-49 years	43	24.2
50-59 years	20	11.2
60 or older	5	2.8

Table 1 displays the frequencies and percentages for each of the categorical variables presented in the demographics portion of the study. The sample population contained a fair amount of diversity. Of the 178 leaders that information was obtained on, 100 were male (56.2%) while 78 were female (43.8%). Interestingly, 116 of employees participants (65.2%) were female while 62 were male (34.8%). While diversity among participants was solicited and highly encouraged, African Americans and Caucasians mostly represented the sample population at 43.3% and 42.1%, respectively.

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)

The MLQ rater form (Bass & Avolio, 1997) allows employees to rate their

leader's behavior. Researchers typically use the rater form instead of other versions of the

instrument when they do not require a leader's input (Bass & Avolio). Specifically, it

measures transformational leadership behaviors (including idealized influence, idealized

influence, individual consideration, inspirational motivation, and intellectual stimulation)

transactional leadership behaviors such as contingent reward, and laissez-faire leadership

behaviors. Because one of the primary focal areas was specific leadership style, I chose

not to analyze other contributing leadership behaviors assessed by the MLQ (e.g., active

and passive management, satisfaction, effectiveness and extra effort). Descriptive

statistics for employees' ratings of their leaders are displayed in Table 2.

Table 2

Employees' Ratings of Their Leaders' Styles (N=178)

	M	SD	SEM
Transformational			
Idealized influence (attribute)	2.19	.981	.073
Idealized influence (behavior)	2.18	.896	.067
Individual consideration	2.03	1.03	.077
Inspirational motivation	2.26	.980	.073
Intellectual stimulation	2.01	.940	.070
Transactional			
Contingent reward	2.24	.905	.067
Laissez-Faire	1.66	1.03	.077

Higher scores for each scale indicate more of a tendency to use a specific

leadership style. Amid the three main scales of leadership style, the transactional

leadership scale had the highest mean (*M* = 2.24, *SD* = .91), followed by the

transformational leadership scale (*M* = 2.14, *SD* = .89), with the lowest scores for the

laissez-faire leadership scale (*M* = 1.66 *SD* = 1.03). As assumed, the difference in mean

scores obtained from the MLQ suggests that respondents in the sample have leaders

exhibiting all three different leadership styles. Because a leader's gender was also an

independent variable, a comparison of leadership scores amongst male and female leaders

was considered. Female leaders were more likely to exhibit inspirational motivation (*M* =

2.19), which is a characteristic of transformational leadership style. Breakdowns of

leadership behavior scale scores for both male and female leaders are displayed in Tables

3 and 4.

Table 3

Employees' Ratings of Male Leaders' Styles

	M	*SD*	*SEM*
Transformational	2.21	.883	.088
Idealized influence (attribute)	2.27	.961	.096
Idealized influence (behavior)	2.20	.881	.088
Individual consideration	2.12	1.02	.101
Inspirational motivation	2.01	.947	.095
Intellectual stimulation	2.03	.936	.094
Transactional			
Contingent reward	2.30	.881	.088
Laissez-faire	1.68	1.01	.101

Note. N = 100

Contrarily, male leaders were more likely to exhibit contingent reward (*M* =

2.30), a characteristic of transactional leadership style. The dominant leadership style for

male and female leaders was difficult to detect as most leaders were observed as

demonstrating a hybrid leadership style consisting of behaviors from both

transformational and transactional leadership styles. As noted, however, laissez-faire

leadership style was the least observed amongst the genders.

Table 4

Employees' Ratings of Female Leaders' Styles

	M	SD	SEM
Transformational	2.06	.897	.102
Idealized influence (attribute)	2.07	1.00	.113
Idealized influence (behavior)	2.14	.919	.104
Individual consideration	1.91	1.05	.119
Inspirational motivation	2.19	1.02	.116
Intellectual stimulation	1.98	.950	.108
Transactional			
Contingent reward	2.15	.935	.106
Laissez-faire	1.63	1.06	.119

Note. N = 78

Work Preference Inventory Scale (WPI)

Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation each represents very diverse concepts. Having

the ability to examine the extent to which an individual's intrinsic and extrinsic

motivations are apparent and the extent to which individuals are different in their

responses to motivation provides the observer with the ability to predict motivational

behavior in a variety of socially related situations (Amabile et al., 1994). Because

leader's gender and leader's style of leadership are considered external factors, for

purposes of this research, data on extrinsic motivation is most relevant. Data about

motivation in the workplace was obtained in the current study by utilizing the WPI. The

WPI was scored according to detailed scoring instructions as provided by Amabile et al.

Amabile et al. (1994) ascertained that individuals with a high level of extrinsic

work motivation are more likely to have an interest in recognition and evaluation.

Moreover, these individuals are more likely to play up tangible incentives and remuneration that is associated with work they have performed. Scoring was based on a continuous scale, where a rating of 4 indicated that a participant was intrinsically motivated. The lowest score of 1 indicated that a participant was extrinsically motivated. Participants that chose a rating of 2 or 3 demonstrate a mix of both intrinsic and extrinsic motivational drivers.

Inferential Analysis and Research Questions

The main premise of the present study was to examine whether and the extent to which leader's gender and/or leadership style contribute an employee's level of extrinsic motivation. The underlying research questions to be answered were: *Is there a statistically significant difference on employee motivation by either a leader's gender, a leader's style of leadership style, or an interaction of the two?* It was hypothesized that (1) a leader's gender impacts employee motivation; (2) leadership style impacts employee motivation; and (3) the interaction of both leadership style and a leader's gender impacts employee motivation. The data collected for each participant was his or her overall extrinsic motivation score on the WPI. A 2x3 ANOVA was performed to evaluate the research questions. Unlike a one-way ANOVA, a 2x3 ANOVA allows the researcher to test multiple hypotheses at the same time. The 2x3 ANOVA assumes that the dependent variables will be represented on a continuous scale, while the independent variables will be categorical. Additionally, it assumes that data are normally distributed and the variance between groups is homogenous. Levene's test of equality was able to confirm this assumption $F(5,172) = 1.039$, $p = .397$.

Figure 1 displays a plot of mean scores of motivation and indicates that female leaders who displayed laissez-faire leadership styles had employees with higher motivation scores (*M*=2.67, *SD* = .382) when compared to their male leader counterparts (*M* = 2.53, *SD* = .376). Contrarily, male leaders who demonstrated transactional leadership behaviors had employees with higher motivation (*M*= 2.54, *SD* = .323) when compared to their female counterparts (*M*= 2.46, *SD* = .299).
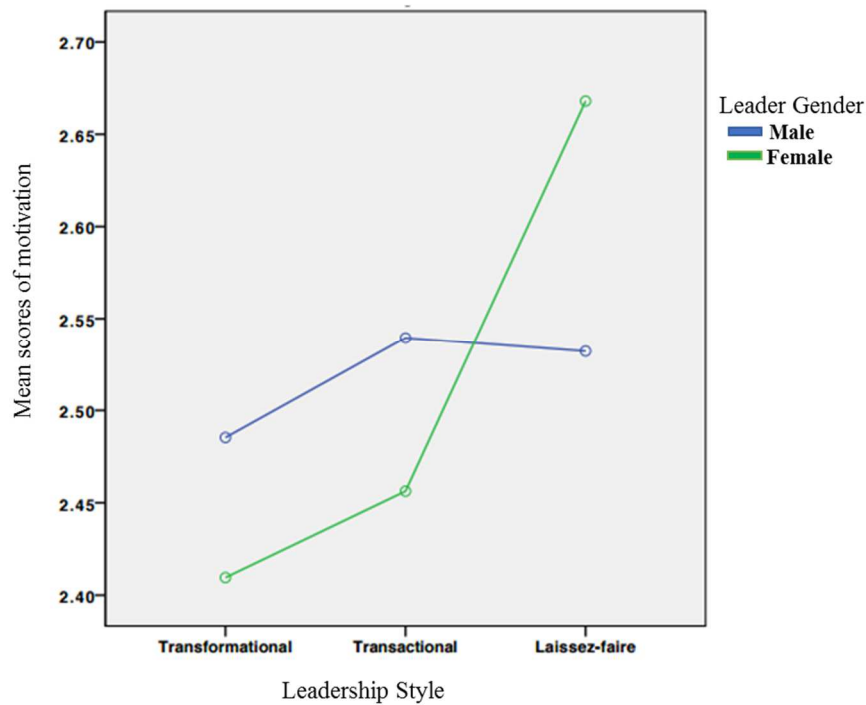

Figure 1. Plot of mean motivations scores, by leadership style, for both male and female leaders. Graph demonstrates that transformational leadership style, regardless of gender, contributes to lower motivational scores.

Because employee motivation was a key variable, correlations between each of the leadership scales (i.e., transformational, transactional and laissez-faire) from the MLQ

and extrinsic motivation scores from the WPI were also analyzed. The results are

presented in Table 5.

Table 5

Correlations between MLQ Leadership Scales and Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation Scales

	Extrinsic Motivation	*Intrinsic motivation*
Transformational	.07	.24
Transactional	.10	.27
Laissez-faire	.23	-.12

Neither the transformational leadership scale nor the transactional leadership scale had a statistically significant relationship with extrinsic motivation, $r(176) = .07$, $p = .352$ and $r(176) = .10$, $p = .184$, respectively. These correlation scores indicate that leaders, who are more inclined to exhibit transformational or transactional leadership, have the least impact on employee's extrinsic motivation.

The opposite was found for intrinsic motivation. Leaders who exhibit either transformational or transactional leadership style do have a mild statistically significant relationship with employees intrinsic motivation scores, $r(176) = .24$, $p = .001$ and $r(176) = .27$, $p = .000$, respectively. Laissez-faire leadership style, however, was not found to have a positive statistically significant relationship with intrinsic motivation, $r(176) = -.12$, $p = .122$. Intrinsic motivation refers to engaging in something simply because one finds it enjoyable. More specifically, leaders who exhibit a laissez-faire leadership style tend to have a higher impact on employees' extrinsic motivation while leaders who exhibited transformational and transactional leadership style have a higher

impact on employees' intrinsic motivation. For example, a leader who is considered much more effective (i.e., a transformational or transactional) provides employees with a sense of autonomy, which could stimulate one's intrinsic motivation.

To assess the effect of a leader's gender and leadership style, WPI scores were analyzed using a 2x3 independent ANOVA. The first factor was leader's gender (male vs. female), and the second factor was leadership style (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire). Table 6 provides a summary of these results.

Table 6

2 X 3 ANOVA: Leader's gender and leadership style impact on employee motivation

	SS	df	MS	F	p
Leader gender	.003	1	.003	.022	.883
Leadership style	.640	2	.320	2.73	.068
Leader gender * leader style	.429	2	.215	1.83	.163
Error	20.15	172	.117		

Note. N = 178

Overall, findings depict no statistically significant difference in mean motivation scores between male and female leaders $F(1,172) = .022$, $p = .883$. Additionally, there was no statistically significant difference in mean motivation scores among the different leadership styles $F(2, 172) = 2.73$, $p = .068$. The interaction of these two independent variables was also not statistically significant, $F(2, 172) = 1.83$, $p = .163$. These results suggest that the null hypothesis fail to be rejected. There is no statistically significant difference between the interaction effects of leadership style and gender on employee motivation. The nature of this interaction seems to be that leadership style has an

important influence on motivation, depending on whether or not the leader is male or female. This may explain why there is no main effect found for leadership style overall. Essentially, the effect is different for the two genders therefore no effect is seen.

Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to provide the analysis of the data collected. A quantitative approach that surveyed current employees of small organizations about their perceptions of leadership and individual levels of motivation was conducted. A 2x3 ANOVA was used to explore the relationship between leader's gender and employee motivation, the relationship between leadership style and employee motivation, and the interaction of both gender and leadership style on employee motivation. The findings of this study demonstrate a slight relationship between leadership style and employee motivation. However, the findings did not support a significant relationship between a leader's gender and employee motivation.

The significance of the aforementioned findings is discussed in Chapter 5. Additionally, conclusions from the results of the correlation and 2x3 ANOVA analysis performed are presented with recommendations to organizations that may benefit from this study's findings. The succeeding chapter discusses limitations and implications for future research as well as an overall summary of the results, including benefits that may have surpassed the study's original purpose.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Recommendations and Conclusions

Introduction

Understanding the impact of leadership can be challenging for both individuals and organizations. Individuals typically focus on becoming more effective leaders while organizations focus on identifying the best leader to enhance overall organizational performance (Pasmore, 2014). Kotter (2001) notes that being a leader means having the ability to lead through unprecedented changes and being able to influence others. As organizations continue to seek out methods to increase performance, enhance employee motivation, and simply be recognized as effective, they may find it advantageous to examine the extent to which leadership is influential in the workplace.

Contrary to Eagly's (2007) assertions, the data reveal that a leader's gender may not impact employee motivation to a great extent. Perhaps, employee motivation is more impacted by leadership style alone. These findings slightly differ from the idea that transformational and transactional leadership styles are more likely to influence workplace behaviors, including motivation than laissez-faire leadership style (Spinelli, 2006; Tims, Bakker & Xanthopoulou, 2011). Additionally, the minor statistically significant interaction with laissez-faire leadership and extrinsic motivation indicates that leaders who are more inclined to practice laissez-faire leadership have more of an impact on an employee's extrinsic motivation than those using transformational and transactional styles. This finding may result from smaller organizations possibly offering employees more autonomy, which increases employees' motivation.

Conceptually, this study was based on leadership theory and social role theory. The intent was to identify and explain the relationship between leadership in the form of transformational, transactional, or laissez-faire styles (Avolio & Bass, 2004) and the extent to which employees were extrinsically motivated while employed at small organizations. A primary goal of this study was also to examine the impact of a leader's gender and how this, too, impacts employee motivation. Quantitative data were gathered in an effort to explore the relationship between leadership style, a leader's gender, and employee motivation using two different instruments, the MLQ developed by Avolio and Bass (1995) and the WPI developed by Amabile Hill, Hennessey and Tighe (1994). Add concluding sentence.

This study provides an opportunity to explore the impact of leadership style in the workplace, specifically in small organizations, which researchers have not previously examined to a great extent. In this chapter, a summary and discussion of the results, a review of conclusions, and recommendations for leaders of small organizations and organizations in general is also included. The possible implications of my study for social change future research are also considered.

Interpretation of Findings

Based on a review of the literature, it was deemed relevant to determine the link between leadership style and gender in small organizations and the impact on employee motivation. Because previous researchers have not found a distinct difference in leadership at small and large organization, this study sought to explore one of these

environments. The findings, as discussed in Chapter 4, support the application of Avolio and Bass' (2004) full range of leadership model to any organization, regardless of its size.

Bass and Avolio (1997) suggest that a transformational leader works closely with his or her employees in an effort to meet employees' higher level needs in areas such as achievement, motivation, and self-esteem. Additionally, transformational leaders are more likely to develop an environment that produces and encourages a good relationship with their employees. A leader who displays more transformational leadership attributes can be quite successful in breaking the traditional cultural norms that may divide employees, including gender, ethnicity and skillset (Bass & Avolio). These types of leaders are able to bring employees to a common mindset such that all are able to understand the mission of the group and collectively move to meet the mission.

A transformational type of leader's charismatic behavior is much more likely to motivate employees to look beyond their own self-interests for the good of the group (Bass & Avolio). I found that this might be more applicable to males in leadership positions in small organizations as data revealed a higher mean score than did their female leader counterparts in transformational leadership. Female leaders, however, were more likely to exhibit inspirational motivation. These findings are similar to past researchers (Bodla & Nawaz, 2010; Kaminski & Yakura, 2008; Shinnar, Giacomin, and Janssen, 2012) who also used the MLQ to explore gender differences in perceptions of leadership. Data also revealed that employees rated female leaders with transformational leadership traits slightly higher than their male leader counterparts. That is, despite

Eagly's (1987) findings, female leaders were more likely to exhibit transformational leadership characteristics.

Findings from this study revealed no significant relationship between leadership style and motivation. My findings are contrary to prior research that also explored workplace attitudes and behavior (Afolabi, Obude, Okediji, & Ezeh, 2008; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Khan, Aslam & Riaz, 2011). For example, Khan, et al (2011) also utilized the MLQ to assess leadership styles and creativity as it relates to work behavior in bank managers in Pakistan. They found that of the three types of leadership, transformational leadership was the most prominent predictor of innovative work behavior. Additionally, employees of transformational leaders are more likely to engage in organizational behaviors and demonstrate high levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Khan et al). Both transformational and transactional leadership and motivation seemed to have only a minimal relationship, which is similar to past research (see Khan et al., 2011; Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Laissez-faire leadership style in my findings, on the other hand, demonstrated a slight influence on employee motivation. This is similar to Goodnight's (2004)'s research on assessing the impact of laissez-faire leadership. It could be argued that the lack of correlation between leadership styles and extrinsic motivation in the current study may be due, in part, to the organization's size. Small organizations may not be as impacted by leadership style as a larger organization because of its already assumed cohesiveness and family like structure.

Perhaps, employee motivation is more impacted by leadership style alone. These findings validate the theory that leadership styles like transformational and transactional

are more likely to influence workplace behaviors, including motivation. Contrarily, the laissez-faire leadership scale had a minor statistically significant interaction with extrinsic motivation, $r(176) = .23$, $p = .002$. This finding indicates that leaders who are more inclined to deploy laissez-faire leadership characteristics have more of an impact (compared to the aforementioned leadership styles) on an employee's extrinsic motivation.

Current findings also revealed that, contrary to previous research, a leader's gender, as the sole contributing factor, does not strongly influence the level of motivation that an employee may have. Instead rather, the combination of a leader's gender and type of style may be more influential. While the current study could not validate Grissom, Nicholson-Crotty and Keiser's (2012) findings, as no main effects were found between gender and leadership style, there was a positive relationship between transactional leadership style and employee extrinsic motivation. Because of these findings, it is fair to assume that employees may work better and more willingly when their leaders display constructs of transactional leadership.

The results of this study also contribute to the body of literature regarding leadership and gender, and how employees perceive each in the in the workplace (see Avolio & Bass, 2004; Eagly & Sczesny, 2009; Elsaid & Elsaid, 2011). As workplace relationships continue to be a prevalent topic in organizational psychology, understanding that leaders are responsible for developing relationships with employees at all levels of the organization is critical to organizational success (Wikstrom & Dellve, 2009). By exploring the relationship between leaders of small organizations, their gender and their

employees, this study adds a fresh element to the gap of literature and provides a view that slightly differs from Bem's (1981) social role theory in that gender does not necessarily impact the ways in which leaders lead. However, it validates House's (1971) path-goal theory in the sense that leadership style does impact employee motivation. Additionally, this study sets the way ahead for future research including more detailed studies on leadership and working relationships in small organizations.

Implications for Social Change

As a result of the current study, the most relevant implications of social change include a more in depth understanding of the comparatively underexplored domain of leadership in small organizations. This study contributes to the body of literature regarding the relationship between leadership styles, gender leader and employee motivation in the workplace, by indicating that there was a slight positive link between all three variables. Further, this positive link extends towards the examination of the impact leadership style can have on employee's overall well being, which in this case includes motivation.

The implications for social change suggest that leaders in the workplace must be willing to develop more personal relationships with their employees in an effort to investigate what is important to them in an organizational setting. Having a genuine understanding of employees, leaders may be more likely to ensure long-term success for both the employee and the organization. Bass (2003) suggests that more often than not, employees want a leader who is trustworthy, effective, and understands his/her individual values all while promoting organizational success. Additional research suggests that the

type of leadership style one portrays can be quite effective in giving the organization the success it desires; in many corporate organizations, regardless of size, there is a high demand for credible leadership that is able to keep employees motivated enough to achieve goals (Lai, 2011; Lockwood, 2010; and Tims, Bakker & Xanthopoulou, 2011). Thus, understanding what type of leadership style is most influential in maintaining (or increasing) levels of motivation amongst employees would be essential for organizations.

A variety of organizations may be able to use the results collected from the current study to bring awareness to leaders of how influential they may be to their employees, and where applicable, adjust their leadership styles to be slightly more effective. These findings may also encourage training and mentoring within small organizations for leaders.

Implications and Recommendations for Future Research

It is important to acknowledge that although this study has disclosed some slightly significant results, it is recommended that further research be conducted to explore both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in the workplace. It may also be more powerful to look at large organizations (greater than 100 employees) as part of the population and how different the impact of leadership may be in an organization of varying size. The extent to which leadership style and the size of the organization attribute to employee motivation, if at all, would also provide a different set of results.

In the future, it may be ideal to explore a variety of industries. For example, exploring the difference between the way clerical personnel, medical personnel (technicians and nurses), information technology personnel and human resources

personnel feel about leadership styles and motivation may also provide varying results. This is a question that remains to be answered. Therefore, it is recommended to extend future studies to include questions to a wider group of organizations in varying locations. If organizations seek to enhance the congruence between leaders and employees, leaders must be concerned, involved and motivated, in addition to sharing similar values that increase organizational success (Avolio & Bass, 2004). When each stakeholder (i.e., employee, leader and organization) is fully engaged and committed in the process of creating organizational success, the end result is a mutually beneficial relationship to all parties involved. With such a small representation of small organizations in the current study, the full effect of gender and leadership style phenomena may not have been explored. In future studies, it is hoped that the scope can be expanded to include a variety of organizations, by type and size, such that additional information will produce varying results.

Limitations of the Study

The results of this study were highly contingent upon participants' ability to honestly report on their leaders' leadership skills and behaviors. Employees' thoughts and attitudes on the day the survey was completed could have negatively impacted their responses to the survey. Thus, it is assumed that participants were providing the most accurate information in their responses to the MLQ. There were some minor technical difficulties for a few of the participants regarding access to the survey questionnaire, but issues were quickly resolved and only occurred due to duplicative survey access licenses on computers.

Another possible limitation of the current study is common method bias, which is most likely present when participants answer questions related to two different variables during the same questionnaire (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee & Podsakoff, 2003). Podsakoff et al. suggested mono-method bias may contribute to inflated correlations, in this case, between each leadership style and how employees feel about motivation as "…raters strive for cognitive consistency in their responses to the dependent and independent variables" (p. 891).

Finally, the current study took place via an online survey platform where participants were conveniently recruited for participation. Because of that, the type of organizations, other than the fact that they were considered small, was quite varied. As a result of this limitation, there was no way to compare one type of organization and/or industry against another. Although demographic information such as race and gender was collected during the study, no trend data was analyzed or reported. While there was a requirement that participants had a working relationship with their leaders for at least six months, no information was collected or reported on how long leaders were in their current positions; this may have affected the type of leadership style they portrayed.

Conclusion

The results provided within this study displayed the variety of leadership styles prevalent in small organizations. Through this study and analysis, the importance of leadership, generally speaking, has emerged. Overall, there was a deficiency of empirical research available on leadership style and its relationship to a leader's gender and employee motivation in small organizations. What was not known is that (a) there is an

apparent difference between leadership style, (b) women and men lead differently based on their innate makeup, and (c) either separately or dichotomously, both might affect employees in the workplace. The sole intent of the present study was not simply to explore the relationship between leadership style and a leader's gender and the impact to their employees. Rather, the intent was also to permeate a major gap in the literature by quite possibly serving as a catalyst for further studies on the workplace relationships between leaders and employees in small organizations. Notably, employees are the foreground to the success of most organizations, regardless of their size. The key to the success of organizations in corporate America is not only monetary growth, but it is also empiricism; without it, leader acknowledgement and support, employees' motivation to work, and the leader's ability to effectively lead may become more difficult to manage.

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Appendix A: Permission to use the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

Third Edition
Manual and Sample Set

Bruce J. Avolio and Bernard M. Bass
University of Nebraska and SUNY Binghamton

Contributions by:
Dr. Fred Walumbwa
Weichun Zhu
University of Nebraska—Lincoln
Gallup Leadership Institute

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www.mindgarden.com

Appendix B: Permission to use the Work Preference Inventory (WPI)

RE: Permission to use the Work Preference Inventory (WPI) in Dissertation Research   Inbox   x

Kang, So Young   1/6/14
to me

Dear Kristin,

Teresa Amabile appreciates your interest in the WPI. You have permission to use it, for research only. The relevant documents are attached. Please refer to the attached JPSP (1994) article reporting the original research on the WPI, because it corrects two serious typos that appeared in the originally published version.

Best wishes,
So Young Kang

So Young Kang
Assistant to Teresa Amabile, Tom Eisenmann, Frank Cespedes
Harvard Business School | Rock Center 120C

> **From:** "Kristin Walker"
> **Date:** December 16, 2013 at 12:43:00 PM EST
> **To:**
> **Subject: Permission to use the Work Preference Inventory (WPI) in Dissertation Research**
> **Reply-To:**
>
> Ms. Amabile,
>
> I hope this message finds you well. I would first like to say your track record of research in the workplace is quite impressive - I can only aspire to have such a background.
>
> As the subject of this email implies, I am a doctoral candidate currently in the dissertation phase. Simply put, I am exploring the impact of a leader's style and gender on an employee's level of motivation. While I plan to measure leadership style using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), I was hoping to use the Work Preference Inventory to measure intrinsic and extrinsic motivation among employees. Is there any specific

Appendix C: Implied Consent Form

IMPLIED CONSENT FORM

Greetings! You are invited to take part in a research study on the impact of leadership style and leader gender on employee motivation. The researcher is inviting individuals employed at small organizations (less than 100 employees) and have been supervised by their current leaders/managers for at least 6 months to participate in the study. This form is part of a process called "implied consent" and allows you to understand this study before deciding whether to take part.

This study is being conducted by Kristin Walker, a doctoral student at Walden University. Your participation is greatly appreciated!

Background Information:
The purpose of this study is to gain an understanding of leadership behaviors and their relationship to employee motivation. Additionally, it will examine what relation a leader's gender has to motivation.

Procedures:

- You will be asked to give your opinion of your leader's leadership style.
- You will then be asked to rate your level of motivation.

If you agree to participate, the survey will take approximately 25-35 minutes to complete and there is no compensation for taking part in this study.

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 Walden University or your current 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 as you may opt out at any time.

Risks and Benefits of Being in the Study:
Being in this study will not pose any risk to your safety or wellbeing. The benefit is contributing to the body of research on leadership and employee motivation.

Privacy:
Any information you provide will be kept confidential. In any type of report that might be published, the researcher will not use your personal information for any purposes outside of this research project. Research records will be kept in a secure file and only the researcher will have access to the records. Additionally, data will be kept for a period of at least 5 years, as required by the university.

Contacts and Questions:
If you have any questions you may contact the researcher via phone at ▮▮▮▮▮▮▮ or via email at ▮▮▮▮▮▮▮ If you prefer to talk privately about your rights as a participant, you can call Dr. Leilani Endicott. She is the Walden University representative who can discuss this with you. Her phone number is ▮▮▮▮▮▮ Walden University's approval number for this study is 04-03-14-0123747 and it expires on April 2, 2015.

Please print or save this consent form for your records.

Statement of Implied 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.

This has been approved by the
Institutional Review Board of
WALDEN UNIVERSITY
as acceptable documentation of the
informed consent process and is valid
for one year after the stamped date.