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Teacher Perceptions of Leadership Styles and the Relationship to Job Satisfaction in Adult Basic Education Settings

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Walden University
2020

Abstract

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MA, Boise State University, 2009

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Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

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Abstract

Adult basic education (ABE) teacher job satisfaction presents as a need for research to examine how the policy shifts to meet accountability requirements have influenced leadership styles in ABE settings. The study aimed to investigate the impact of leadership style (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) on job satisfaction of ABE teachers. Additionally, specific ABE teacher demographic variables that influenced the relationship between leadership style on teacher job satisfaction were examined. The theoretical framework applied to the study was the Transformational Leadership Theory. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) were administered to 137 ABE teachers from across the United States' Western region. Canonical correlation analysis (CCA) produced one statistically significant ($p < .05$) canonical root ($R_c^2 = .79$), showing a high degree of correlation between leadership styles and job satisfaction among ABE teachers. The CCA indicated that the transformational leadership style had the most significant variance partition. The findings from a series of multiple regression analyses highlight that there are meaningful relationships ($p < .001$) between the leadership styles and ABE teachers' overall job satisfaction. ABE leaders who practice transformational leadership behaviors, to the other leadership styles, had a moderate to strong positive relationship on the 6 facets of job satisfaction (supervision, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication). The implication for positive social change includes providing leadership information to ABE organizations to improve ABE teacher job satisfaction.

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Dedication

Dedicated to all of those who influenced my life: my wife, my daughter, my mother, my father, my fathers-in-law, my mothers-in-law, and all of the other people who have supported me throughout this process and forever be indebted.

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First and foremost, without my wife and daughter, this study would not have been possible. I am forever grateful for the continued support and patience throughout this journey.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

The field of adult basic education (ABE) has evolved over the years to provide adults, aged 16 years or older and not currently enrolled in high school, the basic academic skills and high-quality learning experiences to achieve economic mobility (United States Department of Education, 2019). Being an ABE teacher requires a skill set that involves applying interventions to the adult learners' self-concept, orientation to learning, level of readiness, and motivation, along with the understanding that adults are autonomous and self-directed learners (Knowles, 1975, 1989; Merriam, 2001). An ABE teacher must understand the adult learners developmental, contextual, and historical learning profile to attach the specific instructional support to optimize learning. Adult learners have different learning profiles about educational background, learning styles and interests, and motivational levels (National Research Council, 2012). ABE teachers must not only have the formal preparation and expertise but also cope with the complex realities of the field of ABE.

ABE programs and teachers are expected to improve adult basic literacy and numeracy skills; however, heterogeneous learning profiles coupled with no standardized curriculum framework and modest funding, the ability to transition adults into the labor market or vocational training or further education is significantly reduced (Bennett, 2007; Smith & Gillespie, 2007; Tighe, Barnes, Connor, & Steadman, 2013). These factors combined with the focus on strengthening accountability outcomes (Belzer, 2017), ABE teachers are under intense pressure, especially when the field lacks an infrastructure,

leading to decreased teacher job satisfaction (Belzer, 2013; Smith & Hofer, 2003). ABE leaders play a vital role in helping teachers cope with these factors to improve teacher job satisfaction; however, ABE leaders are overburdened with accountability standards and are underresourced (Belzer, 2017), making it challenging to improve working conditions and help ABE teachers flourish. Thus, leadership behaviors may be influenced by these conditions, leading to decreased teaching job satisfaction and attrition.

Many variables have been studied regarding teacher job satisfaction. Concerning ABE contexts, I found no available research on the topic of leadership styles and the effect on teacher job satisfaction. I explored the relationship between leadership style and teacher job satisfaction in ABE contexts. Further, the data provides a new layer to understanding as to what influences teacher job satisfaction and the willingness to stay committed to the profession and field of ABE. This chapter includes the background, problem statement, purpose statement, research questions, the theoretical framework of the study, the nature of the study, definitions, assumptions, scope, and delimitations, limitations, significance, and a summary.

Background

ABE teachers are leaving the field at high rates, impacting adult learning achievement (Sabatini, Ginsburg, & Russell, 2002; Smith & Gillespie, 2007Smith & Hofer, 2003). While national data is unavailable, it has been suggested that attrition remains high in ABE settings compared to traditional education settings (Smith & Gillespie, 2007). A study conducted by Sabatini et al. (2002) surveyed 423 adult teachers

and found that approximately 40% taught in the field for less than 5 years. Smith, Hofer, Gillespie, Solomon, and Rowe (2003) found that 18 months after the initiation of the study, out of 104 ABE teachers, 21% were no longer teaching ABE programs. A similar study by Smith and Hofer (2003) found that out of 87 ABE teachers, 13% of teachers in the sample left the field during the 18 months of the study. Belzer (2013) reported that more research is needed to understand the underlying mechanisms that influence ABE teacher stability and the significant phenomenon behind teacher turnover.

Researchers know in traditional education settings that many variables affect teacher stability to include collegial support, sufficient working conditions, salary, and accountability mechanisms impact teacher job satisfaction (Berryhill, Linney, & Fromewick., 2009; Guarino, Santibanez, & Daley, 2006; Guin, 2004; Ingersoll, 2001; Ingersoll, 2003; Ingersoll, Merrill, & May, 2016; Klassen & Chiu, 2010; Ryan, et al., 2017). Supportive administrative leadership is favorable at improving teacher stability and reducing attrition (Ingersoll, 2001). Administrative leadership must reshuffle their priorities by moving away from typical management operations to an emphasis that is placed on developing genuine trust, collaboration, coaching, and mentorship to enhance teacher job satisfaction (Menon, 2014; Nguni, Sleegers, & Denessen, 2006; Van Maele & Van Houtte, 2015).

Researchers have found a correlational relationship between teacher job satisfaction and leadership styles (Amin, Shah, & Tatlah, 2013; Barnett, Marsh, & Craven, 2005; Bogler, 2001; Braun, Peus, Weisweiler, & Frey, 2013; Griffith, 2004; Koh,

Steers, & Terborg, 1995; Leithwood, Harris, & Hopkins, 2008; Sayadi, 2016; Skaalvik & Skaalvik , 2011). Specifically, transformational leadership style has been found to be a significant predictor of teacher's job satisfaction (Bogler, 2001; Cogaltay, Yalcin, & Karadag, 2016; Dutta & Sahney, 2016; Hauserman & Stick, 2013; Kouni, Koutsoukos, & Panta, 2018; Nguni et al., 2006; Nyenyembe, Maslowski, Nimrod, & Peter, 2016). Although there has been empirical research about the relationship between the perceptions of leadership styles and job satisfaction among traditional teachers, I found no research that has examined this relationship in ABE settings. A gap exists in the literature that has not examined how stressors concerning the accountability standards have impacted the relationship between leadership style and teacher job satisfaction. Results from this study could potentially help ABE programs keep teachers more satisfied with their job by helping ABE leaders balance leadership styles and accountability systems to facilitate a positive impact on teacher job satisfaction.

Problem Statement

Leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) among public and private school administrators have been shown to be related to job satisfaction levels among teachers (Amin et al., 2013; Barnett et al., 2005; Bogler, 2001; Braun et al., 2013; Nguni et al., 2006; Nyenyembe et al., 2016; Sayadi, 2016). For example, given the findings that overall teacher job satisfaction (supervision, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication) is negatively influenced by poor organizational structure, unstable working conditions, high-levels of job-related

stress, modest financial compensation, and lack of professional development (Bogler, 2001; Kamrath & Gregg, 2018; Smith & Hofer, 2003; Udouj, Grover, Belcher, & Kacirek, 2017), it is not surprising that teacher satisfaction is positively influenced by administrative staff who exhibit a transformational leadership style, which includes charismatic leadership, inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation (Bogler, 2001; Kouni et al., 2018; Nguni et al., 2006).

Both ABE leaders and ABE teachers experience increased accountability and compliance with new recording systems due to mandates by the Workforce Investment ACT (Udouj et al., 2017; United States Department of Education, 2019). As a result, this accountability oversight has encouraged ABE leaders to focus more on documentation and less on teacher support (Belzer, 2003; Smith, 2009). In response, ABE teachers, whose role is to deliver public education instructional programming to individuals over the age of 16 so they can gain the necessary knowledge and skills to pass the General Equivalency Diploma (GED) exam and reach the level of college ready (United States Department of Education, 2019), have shown higher levels of stress and lower levels of morale, which may lead to higher attrition rates, resulting in the disruption of organizational growth and the efficacy of adult student learning (Kamrath & Gregg, 2018). Given ABE teachers receive less teacher support from their leaders and must comply with similar federal reporting guidelines, it is important to examine the relationship between leadership styles and job satisfaction within this population.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the relationship between leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) of ABE leaders (program director, program supervisor, development manager, coordinator, or master teacher) and ABE teacher job satisfaction (supervision, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication). The objective was to identify which leadership styles are effective in predicting measures of teacher job satisfaction. While many research studies have examined teacher perceptions of leadership styles in different settings and populations, no found studies have focused on the teacher perceptions concerning leadership styles in ABE settings and how these leadership styles may, directly and indirectly, influence or shape teacher job satisfaction. The findings from the study may provide insights into management practices, with the hopes of reducing teacher dissatisfaction leading to turnover and retention issues.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

RQ1: To what extent is adult basic education teachers' perceived leadership style of their leader (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire), as measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ; Avolio & Bass, 2004), related to teachers' self-perceived level of job satisfaction, as measured by the six factors or dimensions within supervision, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication by Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS; Spector, 1997)?

$H_0$1: There is no significant relationship between adult basic education teachers' perceived leadership styles of their leader and the teachers' self-perceived level of job satisfaction.

H_a1: There is a significant relationship between adult basic education teachers' perceived leadership styles of their leader and the teachers' self-perceived level of job satisfaction.

RQ2: To what extent is there a relationship between ABE teachers' perceived leadership style of their leader and the teachers' self-perceived level of job satisfaction after controlling for the effects of ABE teacher demographic characteristics?

$H_0$2: After controlling demographic variables (age, gender, years of service, and highest degree), there is no significant relationship between ABE teachers' perceived leadership styles of their leader and the teachers' self-perceived level of job satisfaction.

H_a2: After controlling demographic variables (age, gender, years of service, and highest degree), there is a significant relationship between ABE teachers' perceived leadership styles of their leader and the teachers' self-perceived level of job satisfaction.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical base for this study was the transformational leadership theory (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Burns (1978) conceptualized transformational leadership as leaders who inspire, support, and collaborate with followers to advance motivation and

moral positions. Bass (1985) and Leithwood (1994) extended the theory to outline its implication in the field of education to explain how school leaders' transformational leadership behaviors and activities influence organizational performance. The sociopsychological impacts of transformational leadership on the schools have the potential to result in organizational change and enhanced level of commitment and performance among the teachers to meet stakeholders' accountability demands (Anderson, 2017; Bass, 1985; Leithwood, 1994; Leithwood, Tomlinson, & Genge, 1996; Yammarino, Spangler, & Dubinsky, 1998). ABE programs are facing ever-increasing scrutiny, pressure, and accountability from stakeholders' relative to adult student performance (Smith, 2009), so the notion of transformational leadership practices is appropriate in ABE settings to build and strengthen organizational conditions and to abandon mindsets and beliefs that are ineffective to transforming the culture.

Nature of the Study

The nature of the study was quantitative, nonexperimental, with a cross-sectional research design using two psychometrically valid measures to examine the relationships between constructs measured by the MLQ and the JSS. The MLQ measures the following constructs:

- Transformational leadership scales
    - Idealized influence (attribute)
    - Idealized influence (behavior)
    - Inspirational motivation

    - Intellectual stimulation
    - Individual consideration
- Transactional leadership scales
    - Contingent reward
    - Management by exception (active)
    - Management by exception (passive)
- Laissez-faire leadership scale
    - Laissez-faire

The JSS measures the following constructs:

- Supervision
- Contingent rewards
- Operating procedures
- Coworkers
- Nature of work
- Communication

The data pool was ABE teachers who provide direct instructional services in community colleges and local education agencies from the Western region of the United States (Idaho, Montana, Oregon, Washington, and Wyoming). G*Power calculated that approximately 135 participants are needed to find significance ($p < .05$) in the analysis (see Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009). Parameters entered into the G*Power

analysis for multiple regression included effect size ($f^2 = 0.15$), a generally accepted alpha level of 0.05, and a power of .80.

Definitions

Several terms are used throughout the study and are defined below to add clarity. In cases where standard definitions are not provided, the terms below are provided with operational definitions to assist the reader.

Adult Basic Education (ABE): A public education program designed to help those over the age of 16, not currently enrolled in any public high school, gain the necessary knowledge and skills in preparation to pass the GED and reach college-ready level (United States Department of Education, 2019).

Job Satisfaction: Job satisfaction is defined as a positive and pleasant state resulting from a person's level of engagement, appreciation, motivation, and reward that one finds in his or her job experience (Demirtas, 2010; Locke, 1976). Spector (1997) explained that job satisfaction is measured by three components: cognitive, emotional, and behavioral. These three components are indicators as to how a person evaluates job satisfaction

Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS): Developed Spector (1985, 1997), the JSS is a survey to assess job satisfaction on a continuum from low (dissatisfied) to high (satisfied). The instrument was originally developed for use in the human service sector, including public and private sectors (Spector, 1985, 1997). The instrument is broken into nine facets that are used to assess teacher job satisfaction.

Laissez-Faire Leadership: A type of leadership style that is more passive and reactive when it comes to managing associates (Bass & Avolio, 2004). This type of leadership style tends to de-emphasize motivation and innovation among the associates (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ - 5X Short Form): Developed by Bass and Avolio (2004) who expanded on the dimensions of leadership that measure leadership effectiveness on a continuum. The major leadership constructs include transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire, which are designed to measure lower and higher forms of leadership. The instrument has been used extensively in leadership research over the past 25 years, in several leadership contexts to measure a full range of leadership performance, characteristics, and behaviors (Bass & Avolio, 2004). The MLQ details five transformational, three transactional, one laissez-faire, and three subcomponent factors related to behaviors and tendencies that differentiate effective and ineffective leaders.

Transformational Leadership: Moving beyond the standards of self-interest to a leadership type that facilitates empowerment, collaboration, trust, and fostering of autonomy among the associates (Bass, 1999; Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Transactional Leadership: This type of leadership dimension is focused on roles and tasks to accomplish specific tasks (Bass & Avolio, 2004). A type of leadership style that functions on order, structure, and outcomes (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

Assumptions

There are several assumptions critical to this study. First, I assumed that all participants answered the survey questions honestly and correctly. As with all research instruments, there is a possibility that participants may inflate or suppress truthful responses, leading to an inaccurate reflection of leadership practices and job satisfaction. Therefore, to improve the accuracy of the self-report survey responses, instructions on how to complete the surveys were provided and an emphasis placed on confidentiality and anonymity. Second, I assumed that all participants were interested in and intrigued to learn how leadership practices may influence job satisfaction. Third, I made the assumption that the available participants have the required knowledge and experience to appropriately evaluate their leader's style of leadership and their own job satisfaction. The next assumption was that the participants, including the ABE leaders (i.e., program director, program supervisor, development manager, coordinator, or master teacher), were representative of the population of within ABE contexts. Fifth, based on the body of research, it was assumed that the survey instruments were valid and reliable in measuring the constructs of leadership performance and job satisfaction. Lastly, transformational leadership is a distinct leadership style that is complex, making this specific leadership style relatively rare that a leader demonstrates all aspects of the form. I assumed that ABE leaders would show at least some common elements of transformational leadership that could be observed and measured.

Scope and Delimitations

The study was focused primarily on ABE teachers in the Western region of the United States. The population of this study included only those who showed willingness and availability to participate in the study. The surveys used in the study were delimited to specific leadership dimensions and facets of job satisfaction as defined by the MLQ and JSS. The focus was not placed on other ABE programs that are situated in different contexts, such as correctional institutions and development centers. The primary setting for this study was university and community colleges and local education agencies. Therefore, the results may only generalizable to ABE programs located in distinct geographical locations and educational contexts established in this study.

Limitations

All research studies are subject to limitations, despite designs and measures that are implemented to maximize generalization. The results of the study were generalized to a small sample of ABE teachers from specific educational contexts and geographical locations. Data was collected from multiple organizational settings and geographic areas; therefore, internal and external differences may account for results other than the variables selected in the study. There are control variables that may influence the perceptions of ABE leadership and teacher job satisfaction not considered in the study. For example, ABE programs vary in class size, experience heterogeneous populations (including staff and students), and varied expectations and standards may influence the characteristics as to how ABE programs operate.

Significance

Most of the research literature on leadership styles and its influence on teacher job satisfaction has been conducted in traditional educational contexts, but not in ABE programs. Many research studies have demonstrated how leadership styles are the leverage points to cultivate a positive school culture that will impact teacher job satisfaction (see Cogaltay et al., 2016; Dutta & Sahney, 2016; Hauserman & Stick, 2013; Paletta, Alivernini, & Manganelli, 2017). Though, with the scant research on leadership styles in the field of ABE, it remained unclear as to the type of leadership style that can predict job satisfaction, which may predispose teachers to optimize their performance by managing increases in work demands and coping with new regulations. This, in turn, will positively impact student achievement (Anderson, 2017; Nguni et al., 2006; You, Kim, & Lim, 2017).

This study can lead to positive social change by providing leadership information to ABE organizations, including a roadmap for administrators to adopt leadership qualities that have been shown to predict ABE teacher job satisfaction in response to established United States Department of Education guidelines. By improving the quality of work environment for ABE teachers, the field will attract more qualified, experienced teachers to assist adult learners in their education. Providing adult learners with a learning environment to succeed will promote social mobility, personal development, and empower them to participate in their community in meaningful ways.

Summary

Providing effective leadership is a multifaceted endeavor, filled with complex tasks and many moving parts. In the ABE field, leaders are faced with less than optimal conditions to provide effective leadership, and this varies considerably from one facility to another. This is further compounded by increased accountability and reporting systems (United States Department of Education, 2019) impeding the ability to develop an organized instructional management system and a positive working environment more of a hurdle. Furthermore, as highlighted by Tighe et al. (2013), the ABE field lacks educational standards that provide a roadmap to guide the curriculum, instructional processes, and assessment procedures leading to a fragmented educational system. Despite a rapidly changing field in response to newly devised accountability measures and disunities of educational standards (Tighe et al., 2013), ABE program leaders play an instrumental role in developing a framework and set of standards to support ABE teachers in the classroom and putting the program in the best position to influence working conditions.

Leadership practices not only influence teacher instructional planning but also impact teacher satisfaction (Boyce & Bowers, 2018; Cameron & Lovett, 2015; Ilgan, Parylo, & Sungu, 2015; Sungu, Ilgan, Parylo, & Erdem, 2014; You et al., 2017). Despite extensive literature on leadership practices and the influence on teacher satisfaction, there is still a need to examine how leadership styles impact teacher satisfaction in ABE settings concerning the accountability systems. No such studies were found on the ABE

field, which is surprising given the widespread attention to reducing teacher turnover (see Smith & Hofer, 2003; Smith, 2009; Tighe et al., 2013). I examined how current ABE leadership styles influence teacher satisfaction, with the intent to provide a more comprehensive understanding as to the level of leadership performance that is being applied in the ABE field. In this next chapter, a detailed review of the research literature as it pertains to the framework of the study is provided.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between leadership styles (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire) of ABE leaders (program director, program supervisor, development manager, coordinator, or master teacher) and ABE teacher job satisfaction (supervision, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication). The objective was to identify which leadership style is most effective in predicting measures of teacher job satisfaction. While many research studies have examined teacher perceptions of leadership styles in different settings and populations, no found studies have focused on the teacher perceptions concerning leadership styles in ABE settings and how these leadership styles may, directly and indirectly, influence or shape teacher job satisfaction. The ABE teacher population is particularly noteworthy, given their extra workload due to responding to new United States Department of Education guidelines (Smith, 2009). It is expected that the findings from this study will provide insights into management practices, with the hopes of reducing teacher dissatisfaction leading to turnover and retention issues.

This literature review presents the origins of transformational leadership, key theorists, and the relation to education settings in general. Secondly, I investigate and synthesize the existing literature on leadership styles, namely the transformational leadership style, and how teacher demographic characteristics may impact many organizational functions within education settings, including teacher job satisfaction. Lastly, how the evolvement of accountability standards has influenced leadership in ABE

systems is discussed. By examining leadership styles employed in ABE settings, it will provide insight into the influence on teacher job satisfaction and ways that leadership can alter their approaches to improve teacher satisfaction.

Literature Search Strategy

The approach to the literature review framework involved a multistep process to include the following: (a) the identification of keyword terms; (b) an inclusion and exclusion criteria of empirical data helped minimize irrelevant search returns specific to the research question, and (c) a systematic review of the literature involved multiple databases and various online search engines in acquiring a meticulous summary of the data. Employing this multistep literature review structure effectively produced high-quality and relevant empirical data related to research questions.

The research used the following keyword search terms, accompanied by specific parameters to produce a focused result: *accountability, leadership, leadership styles, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire, job satisfaction, adult basic education, Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire,* and *Job Satisfaction Survey,* as well as Boolean Search operatives in relation to combinations of search terms. Peer-reviewed research articles, professional journal articles, along with dissertations, books, and conference papers, were chosen due to their relevance to the study topic. Databases, such as EBSCOhost, ERIC, Sage Premier, ProQuest, and Google Scholar were used to identify peer-reviewed journal articles, dissertations, books, and unpublished sources to collect additional references of articles were used in the study.

There is a paucity of research on the field of ABE, especially as it relates to teacher job satisfaction. Empirical data exists on traditional educational settings reveals a significant positive impact on leadership style on teacher performance, morale, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction (Anderson, 2017; Bogler, 2001; Cogaltay et al., 2016; Eyal & Roth, 2011; Hauserman & Stick, 2013; Nyenyembe et al., 2016; Saleem, Batool, & Khattak, 2017; Stewart-Banks, Kuofie, Hakim, & Branch, 2015). These constructs have not been empirically researched in ABE settings. With the limited research in the field of ABE, the database search was not limited to only the past 5 years to avoid overlooking pivotal research, such as journal articles, books, and dissertations applicable to the current study. Furthermore, the review combines research studies from traditional education contexts that have studied similar constructs and variables because they are germane to ABE settings. The applied literature search strategy turned up a large amount of empirical research to the keyword terms, methodology, and research questions to the topic.

Theoretical Foundation

Origin of Transformational Leadership

Downton (1973) first introduced the term transformational leadership. Downton presented the transformational and transactional dichotomy among political leaders by contrasting how political leaders use each construct to alter the political landscape. He distinguished the two constructs by studying the differences between rebellious, revolutionary, and conventional leaders (Downton, 1973). Although Downton cemented

the foundation of transformational leadership, the concept of transformational leadership remained unnoticed until Burns (1978) expanded the distinction of transformational and transactional leadership through a political, social, and psychological lens. Burns stated that most leadership models focused on contractual exchanges between leaders and followers. These models focused on contingent rewards and punishments that are based on performance expectations. Burns called this process transactional leadership, which is a balanced give or take approach.

Contrary to transactional leadership, Burns (1978) referred to transformational leaders as visionary change agents who set out to inspire and stimulate followers to transcend to higher significance or morality. Burns viewed that a transformational leadership model was linked to higher-order intrinsic needs and values that have the most significant potential to changing organizations. Burns' transformational leadership framework has theoretical underpinnings centered on Maslow's (1943, 1954) theory of human needs, a theory in psychology that helps explain human motivation. From his perspective, Burns believed that a leader who addressed the higher levels of self-esteem and self-actualization needs of the follower would achieve change in a positive manner. The higher range of needs as outlined by Maslow's model is what Burns described as the critical distinction between transformational and transactional.

Bass (1985) extended Burns' framework on transformational leadership by integrating a two-factor leadership model. Burns (1978) expressed a more dichotomous approach to leadership, a clear distinction between transformational and transaction that

cannot operate simultaneously because they are two very different complementary leadership styles. However, as presented by Bass, transformational and transactional leadership are complementary to each other and are not separate concepts, which broke away from Burns' seminal work on leadership. Bass explained that transformational and transactional were not mutually exclusive, and function on a continuum. Transformational leadership styles augment or amplify transactional leadership (Bass, 1985, 1998; Twigg, Fuller, & Hester, 2008). Additionally, Bass (1999) contended that a leader who commits to both leadership styles would be more effective. Several meta-analyses have demonstrated that transformational and transactional leadership are complementary constructs, but distinct, as both forms are required for organizational identification, structure, and effectiveness (see Dumdum, Lowe, & Avolio, 2002; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; Xenikou, 2017). Bass (1985) believed that a separate leadership style construct exists, a third dimension called laissez-faire, a type of leadership style to explain non-leadership practices. This form was added strictly as a reference point or anchor to compare and contrast leadership styles that are more active, constructive, value-driven, visionary, and transforming to inflict change and motivation (Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1985, 1998).

Transformational Leadership Model

Transformational leadership is composed of five factors: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Avolio, Waldman, & Yammarino, 1991; Bass & Avolio, 2004; Bass & Riggio, 2006).

The first factor being idealized influence is subdivided into two constructs: idealized influence attributed and idealized influence behavior (Bass & Avolio, 2004; Loon, Mee Lim, Heang Lee, & Lian Tam, 2012). Idealized influence is attributed to the degree to which leaders' model high ethical and moral behaviors (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Under idealized influence behavior, the transformational leader behaves in admirable, respected, and trusted ways to which the follower identifies and wants to emulate them. These leaders lead with interdependence, meaning that the leader and follower are mutually dependent on each other, to where the leader is enabled to lead with a stronger sense of purpose (Bass & Avolio, 2004; Loon et al., 2012). The second factor called inspirational motivation is the degree to which the leader articulates a clear and compelling vision of the future (Bass & Avolio, 2004). A leader communicates high expectations and standards, with outward enthusiasm and optimism to instill motivation in followers on wanting to succeed. Leaders communicate effectively with followers to stay connected with deeper values and one another (Bass & Avolio, 2004; Loon et al., 2012). Intellectual stimulation, the third factor, is the degree to which the leader challenges assumptions, biases, basic thinking, and thought patterns that may undermine the success of the organization and get followers to think in new ways (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Leaders model and stimulate followers' level of intelligence, creativity, and critical thinking skills to arouse thoughts and imagination to solve complex problems (Utami, 2013). The last factor called individualized consideration is the degree to which the leader understands the needs of their followers; they avoid error-detection modes and focus on

acknowledging progress, praise, encourage reflection, and champion followers' ideas (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Leaders act as a mentor, advisor, or teacher and treat each follower individually; they focus on interpersonal communication and uphold relational awareness with empathy to address follower's needs and concerns (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 2004). In essence, integrating all four dimensions of transformational leadership is a catalyst for promoting a culture of creative change and growth that goes against the grain of status quo mentality (Avolio et al., 1991; Bass & Avolio, 2004; Bass & Riggio, 2006).

As summarized by Burns (1978) and Bass (1985), transactional leadership is simply a contractual exchange between the leader and follower to complete tasks. The three factors of transactional leadership dimension include contingent reward, management-by-exception - active, and management-by-exception-passive (Bass & Avolio, 2004; Bass & Riggio, 2006). These factors can be examined through a positive and negative lens. The first factor called contingent reward is a contractual exchange between the leader and follower that is focused on reward and punishment, or a constructive transaction. The leader establishes expectations and, based on compliance with these expectations, the follower is recognized for efforts and rewarded (Bass & Avolio, 2004). The second and third factors, called management-by-exception (active) and management-by-exception (passive), are corrective transactions (Bass & Avolio, 2004). In management-by-exception (active), a leader monitors compliance or any deviations or irregularities from the expectations, rules, and standards established through

the transactional exchange. In management-by-exception (passive,) a leader will intervene when a set of objectives have not been met or when a problem has escalated to a level of seriousness. When a follower is found to be noncompliant with these expectations, a leader will take corrective actions to mediate, either actively or passively (Bass & Avolio, 2004; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Bono & Judge, 2004; Judge & Piccolo, 2004).

The final factor called laissez-faire, a nontransactional leadership approach, is a leadership style marked by a general avoidance or refusal to act (Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1998; Bass & Riggio, 2006). Leaders who align to nonleadership styles tend to avoid making decisions, choices, and offering rewards to followers, ultimately leading to dysfunction in the organization. Laissez-faire is closely parallel to management-by-exception (passive); however, a critical distinction between the two components is that a passive leader will eventually act if specific expectations and standards are not met, whereas a laissez-faire leader is nonattending. Therefore, laissez-faire should be treated as a separate construct and concept from the transactional leadership forms (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

Transformational Leadership and its Relation to Educational Leadership

During the 1980s, instructional leadership was the preferred leadership model to guide school organizations (Hallinger, 2003). Instructional leaders, designated to principals, recognize what students need academically, then work with teachers to modify their instructional management process to raise student achievement (Hallinger, 2003,

2005; Marks & Printy, 2003). Over time, it was realized that the instructional leadership model could no longer sustain the dynamic changes and meet the complex demands that occur within school contexts (Valentine & Prater, 2011). Bush (2014) claimed that instructional leaders focused too much on the direction of leaders' influence or authority, instead of how leaders' exercise influence on teachers to promote change. As a result, the concept of leadership evolved to where more emphasis needed to be placed on harmonious relationships between all stakeholders to address school priorities creating a shift from authority figures to building positive relationships (Bush & Glover, 2014).

During the 1990s, transformational leadership started to take shape in public and private school settings with a more focused place on school accountability and restructuring (Hallinger, 2003; Leithwood, 1994; Stewart, 2006). According to Marks and Printy (2003), transformational leadership framework emerged as a preferred model to lead schools through school reform and accountability. They explained transformational leadership provided intellectual direction and collaborative dialogue to solve organizational problems, and the ability to handle the continued upgrades to meet the demands of the changing landscape of school leadership (Marks & Printy, 2003). Transformational leadership practices provide educational leadership with a blend of personal humility and a moral compass to understand human needs and to become dynamic agents of social change (Stewart, 2006). Hallinger (2003) and Leithwood (1992) explained that transformational leadership has this unique ability to transform the school climate and culture through developing profound connections with all stakeholders to

shape the quality and character of a school. Transformational leadership avoids a cookie-cutter formula to help schools build a foundation for best practice methods to enhance the school's culture.

Empirical evidence has suggested that school leaders who practice transformational leadership behaviors improve the organizational processes and teacher commitment levels to the organization (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000; Nguni et al., 2006; Ross & Gray, 2006). Meyer and Allen (1991) explained that organizational commitment is an important aspect to study because it is a multidimensional psychological construct that describes the teachers' relationship with the organization. For example, Leithwood and Sun's (2012) meta-analysis provided a synthesis of 79 unpublished studies on the effects of transformational leadership in school settings and compared to recent studies. The results suggested that transformational leadership impacts organizational conditions with relationship building, staff development, and heightened levels of commitment to teachers. Mirza and Redzuan (2012) studied 268 school principals and 513 teachers in Iran found a direct relationship between the type of leadership style and teachers' commitment and trust in the organization. Specifically, leaders' who were perceived as transformational, teachers organizational trust and commitment were higher (r=.735, p<.01) compared to transactional leaders (r=-.475, p<.01). Similarly, Khasawneh, Omari, and Abu-Tineh (2012) conducted a quantitative analysis using the MLQ and Organizational Commitment Questionnaire using a sample of 340 teachers in Jordan. Based on the correlational study, total transformational leadership score and teachers'

organizational commitment scores were positive, statistically significant (r=0.50, p<.01; Khasawneh et al., 2012). Furthermore, the stepwise regression analysis showed that inspirational motivation, a component of transformational leadership, explained almost 18% of the variance in organizational commitment (Khasawneh et al., 2012). Transformational leadership has shown to have positive effects on teacher's commitment, motivations, and abilities to feel secure in their position.

McCarley, Peters, and Decman (2016) examined 399 teachers' perceptions of the degree to which their principal exhibited transformational leadership and the effects on the perceived school climate. The findings showed a significant relationship between the principals' transformational-orientated practices and the influence of the school climate as supportive, engaged, and frustrated. It was found that the attributes of transformational leadership are directly linked to supportive and engaged teacher behavior in school climate, but that transformational leadership has a direct, negative impact on the frustration level of teachers, thus undermining the success of developing a productive school climate (McCarley et al., 2016). It can be postulated that the frustration level of the teachers might result from leaders who target organizational processes such as policies and procedures, that teachers may not align or agree. Principal's use of transformational leadership behaviors may have an indirect effect on promoting positive emotional states among teachers.

Sun and Henderson (2017) examined transformational leadership and how organizational processes influence the utilization of performance information to improve

the decision-making process. The study of 300 New York City public high schools that involved 2007-2008 performance school data, 48,002 teachers, and 347,829 parents showed that transformational leadership promoted specific managerial arrangements – the ability to gain mutual support and engagement from external stakeholders served as a lever for positively impacting student performance. The study's outcome showed that transformational-orientated practices could foster a collaborative culture and influence organizational processes to affect student performance through mediating effects.

Several themes emerged from these research studies. Transformational leadership has a positive and direct effect on school climate, culture, and teacher practices. Several studies indicated that transformational leadership has an indirect bearing on student learning and outcomes. Transformational leadership can lead school organizations through ever-changing education policies and school restructuring (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000, 2005; Stewart, 2006).

Despite the evidence of transformational leadership ability to influence education contexts, the theory is met with criticism. Scholars, like Hallinger (2003), argued that too much emphasis is on shared or distributed leadership initiatives. Consequently, this educational leadership model would require accommodating leadership practices and leadership training for followers. Additionally, a bottom-up process would need to be stimulated to fully capture all the different nuances and practices of the model to promote success. Second, Marks and Printy's (2003) explained that transformational leadership does not place enough focus on the instructional leadership component. Their

quantitative, non-experimental study concluded that transformational leadership as a stand-alone model is not robust enough to influence teaching and student learning quality. They note that an integrated model inclusive of transformational leadership and shared leadership is more effective in addressing pedagogical quality and student learning. Urick and Bowers (2014) found that transformational leadership co-varies with other leadership models among principals across the US. In other words, school principals utilize multiple leadership styles to capture the full leadership tasks, as previously noted by Marks and Printy (2003). These studies raise questions about interpreting findings that transformational leadership may be augmented or subtly influenced by other leadership styles. Lastly, the conceptualization of transformational leadership and the different sub-components to measure transformational leadership are ambiguous (Berkovich, 2016; Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), the popular measurement tool of transformational leadership, research studies have indicated high intercorrelations of above .75 between dimensions (Hsiao & Chang, 2011; Lowe et al., 1996; Menon, 2014), meaning construct boundary issues and aspects being highly correlated to other forms of leadership (Berkovich, 2016; Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013).

Summary of Research on Leadership Styles

Non-effective leadership will not instill trust to inspire, motivate, and earn respect in facilitating effective collaboration and workplace environment to guide the employees, leading to positive change by fostering followers' commitment to the organization (Hao

& Yazdanifard, 2015). Teachers who perceive his/her leader as being committed to facilitating positive change within the organization, aligning resources with goals, and addressing school and teacher needs will stimulate behavior and attitude change among the teachers to enhance productivity (Bogler, 2001; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000, 2005; Stewart, 2006).

Research has shown that school leaders who address teachers' feelings of belongingness, psychological states, and working relationships will improve the working conditions; thus, improving teacher retention (Burkhauser, 2017; Leithwood et al., 2008; Skaalvik E. & Skaalvik S., 2011). Leaders that address these facets by applying the appropriate leadership styles, namely transformational leadership, will positively impact teacher job satisfaction (Baggett, 2015; Geijsel, Sleegers, Leithwood, & Jantzi, 2003; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000; Stewart, 2006). Teachers who have a more favorable perception of contextual factors such as leadership, staff relations, and working conditions are more likely to stay in the profession (Boyd et al., 2011). When school leaders carefully plan and monitor school contextual factors, teachers are more satisfied and committed to the profession leading to lower attrition (Boyd et al., 2011; Burkhauser, 2017; Skaalvik E. & Skaalvik S., 2011).

Transformational leadership is a significant predictor of teacher job satisfaction, in terms of a critical approach addressing underlying mechanisms that interplay with teachers' overall perception of job satisfaction. The research shows transformational leadership positively impacts job satisfaction, either directly or indirectly, or through

mediating pathways (Aydin, Sarier, & Uysal, 2013; Bogler, 2001; Griffith, 2004; Hariri, Monypenny, & Prideaux, 2016; Nguni et al., 2006; Nyenyembe et al., 2016). Transformational leadership acts as a buttress to job satisfaction. They inspire, stimulate, and motivate their subordinates, thus leading to higher job satisfaction (Crisci & Vinitwatanakhun, 2017; Haj & Jubran, 2016). School leaders who value and strengthen the interaction with subordinates and create a shared vision whereby subordinates are enlisted and engaged in cultivating a positive working environment.

Menon (2014) found that leaders who showed transformational leadership dimensions have a positive impact on teacher job satisfaction, including an increased level of commitment to the school in the Republic of Cyrus. In a similar vein, Aydin et al. (2013) found comparable positive effects that transformational leadership significantly influenced teachers' job satisfaction in Turkey. Additionally, they found that as the school leader shifted from transactional to transformational, teachers' job satisfaction and organizational commitment increased. A review by Leithwood and Jantzi (2005) found that transformational leadership positively and significantly impacted teachers' job satisfaction and commitment to the profession.

These findings demonstrate that transformational leadership is a practical approach to influencing change and movement within school organizations' complex, dynamic structures. Transformational leadership is instrumental in improving job satisfaction, minimizing stress levels, and increasing teachers' commitment levels. More importantly, the type of leadership employed plays a critical factor in shaping

organizational processes and contexts to handle high-stakes accountability initiatives. Finnigan (2010) explained that leadership matters under accountability movements. She had found that schools that faced sanctions exhibited less transformational leadership practices. In applying this to ABE contexts, the field is undergoing ubiquitous economic, policy, and social thinking changes due to the emphasis placed on accountability. Finnigan's (2010) study showed that the type of leadership practice would ascertain the specific mechanisms and shaping of contextual factors to guide the internal systems to ensure alignment to accountability measures. Moreover, stronger leadership, like transformational practices, teachers demonstrate higher expectancy due to the inclusive nature and decentralization of operations that transformational leadership encourages (Finnigan, 2010).

Literature Review Related to Key Variables

Transformational Leadership and Teacher Job Satisfaction

There are many definitions of job satisfaction explained in the literature. Defining job satisfaction is difficult to identify because of the interrelationship with emotions, values, and appraisal (Locke, 1969). Locke (1976) described job satisfaction as “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job and job experience” (p.1304). Job satisfaction can be described as cognitive and affective components to evaluative functions of job satisfaction (Spector, 1997). In general, as Spector (1997) defined, job satisfaction is related to a constellation of attitudinal variables of how one feels about his/her job. The existing literature confirms that the type

of leadership style exhibited by the school leader, namely transformational leadership, can impact the job satisfaction of the teacher (Bogler, 2001; Griffith, 2004; Korkmaz, 2007; Leithwood et al., 2008; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000; Menon, 2014; Nguni et al., 2006; Nyenyembe et al., 2016; Sayadi, 2016).

In contemporary literature, the most commonly cited leadership models often described in various educational contexts include servant leadership, authentic leadership, distributed leadership, instructional leadership, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership. Interest and attention have been devoted to transformational leadership. Transformational leadership has this unique ability to develop a strong bond between school leaders and teachers through the facilitation of trust, empathy, loyalty, needs exploration, and continuous communication and relationship-building to create a positive, collaborative culture with associated high levels of commitment (Khasawneh et al., 2012; Nguni et al., 2006; Ross & Gray, 2006; Silins, 1994). Transformational leadership is pivotal to providing high-quality teacher support and to ensure favorable organizational commitment (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000, 2005; Leithwood & Sun, 2012; Nguni et al., 2006; Ross & Gray, 2006).

A limited amount of research has examined the relationship between transformational leadership and teacher job satisfaction, as most of the research has occurred in other settings, not relevant to the school context. Moreover, the research that has been conducted mainly focused on the exogenous variables to include school leader's leadership style on decision-making aspects, organizational function, teachers'

commitment to stay, and teacher turnover (Bogler, 2001; Griffith, 2004; Koh et al., 1995; Korkmaz, 2007; Nguni et al., 2006), to include closely examining moderating effects associated to teachers' background variables (Bogler, 2001; Hariri et al., 2016; Nyenyembe et al., 2016). The available research has suggested a positive correlation between transformational leadership and teacher job satisfaction.

In their study, Koh et al. (1995) examined transformational leadership and the effects on teacher job satisfaction involving 846 teachers in 89 schools in Singapore using the MLQ. The regression analysis results indicated that transactional leadership was insignificant on the satisfaction with the leader variable. However, when transformational leadership factors were added, the regression results explained 26% of the variance ($R^2 = .30$, $F = 9.05$, $p < .01$). Transaction leadership was low and insignificant when the variable was added to an organizational commitment to the regression equation, indicating that none of the transactional leadership factors explained any significant variance in the variable. On the other hand, transformational leadership had significant effects on organizational commitment. It was found that adding transformational leadership to the equation, the results explained 17% of the variance ($R^2 = .20$, $F = 5.39$, $p < .01$). The findings included that transformational leadership had an indirect impact on student achievement, suggesting that increased teacher satisfaction mediates student outcomes.

Bogler (2001) used primary and secondary teachers in Israel to investigate principals' leadership styles and the effects on job satisfaction, teacher perceptions of the

principals' decision-making strategies, and teachers' occupation perceptions. The study's focus was placed more on observing teachers' perceptions of their principals than the actual behavior of his/her principal. From a sample size of 930 participants, 745 responded from 98 different schools in Israel, including diverse populations composed of urban, suburban, and rural school regions. The correlational analysis indicated that teachers' satisfaction was significantly correlated to transformational leadership and transactional leadership. There was a positive correlation between teachers' job satisfaction and transformational leadership (r = .56, p<.0001), and a negative correlation was reported in the case of transactional leadership (r =-.21, p<.0001). The study's most important finding is that teachers' occupation perceptions related to prestige, self-esteem, autonomy, and professional development significantly predicted job satisfaction (b = 0.51, p<.0001). In theory, transformational leadership positively impacts job satisfaction; therefore, altering occupational perceptions. Even though the study found a positive correlation between transformational leadership on teacher job satisfaction, a limitation to this study is that it lacked generalizability, as the data collection only focused on teachers in Israel. Therefore, any attempt to extend or generalize the findings needs to be interpreted with caution.

Griffith (2004) examined similar variables to the Bogler (2001) study that examined transformational leadership effects on job satisfaction. Though, Griffith added how the direct impact of transformational leadership affects school turnover, and how these two factors indirectly influence teacher job satisfaction. Griffith (2004) examined

117 elementary schools in a large metropolitan area within the United States to determine if principals' transformational leadership practices influenced teacher job satisfaction, staff turnover, and student achievement progress. Results showed that transformational leadership directly influenced teacher job satisfaction with a standardized regression coefficient of 0.88; however, there was a negative direction on teacher turnover (-0.41) and school achievement progress (-0.36). Teacher job satisfaction mediates, through indirect pathways, teacher turnover (negatively) and school-aggregated student achievement progress (positively). Griffith hypothesized that the inverse relationship between teacher job satisfaction and teacher turnover explained other factors might interplay with teacher turnover, not just job satisfaction.

Nguni et al. (2006) examined the effects of leadership styles on teacher commitment and teacher job satisfaction among 560 teachers from 70 schools in Tanzania using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ). Teacher commitment was measured by value commitment, commitment to stay, and organizational citizenship. The regression analysis showed that transformational and transactional leadership explained 39% and 28% of teacher commitment and 33% variance on teacher job satisfaction, respectively. Transformational leadership showed a moderate to a high amount of value commitment (18%), job satisfaction (15%), and moderate organizational citizenship behavior (12%), but low commitment to stay (3%). Transactional leadership explained a high variance of commitment to stay (18%), but a low value of job satisfaction (4%), commitment (1%),

and organizational citizenship (1%). Transformational leadership had a more significant and positive influence on the outcome variables, including overall job satisfaction, value commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior, compared to transactional leadership factors, which aligns with the Bogler (2001) and Koh et al. (1995) studies produced similar results. The study confirms that the type of leadership style used profoundly influenced teachers' job satisfaction. There is a lack of generalization of the study's findings because the sample population included only Tanzania teachers.

Korkmaz (2007) examined the effects of transformational and transactional leadership styles on teacher job satisfaction and overall organizational health. The study involved 635 teachers working in 46 Turkish high schools. Path analysis findings indicated that transformational leadership strongly affected teacher job satisfaction ($b=.56$, $p<.05$) and overall school health ($b=.46$, $p<.05$). Transformational leadership directly influences teacher job satisfaction while, at the same time, indirectly affects the organizational school climate. It was found that principals who exhibited transactional leadership features negatively impacted school health ($b=-.16$, $p<.005$), explaining approximately 64% of the model's total variance. This study suggested that the transformational leadership style had a profound impact on teacher job satisfaction. Additionally, the study's outcome contradicts Bogler's (2001) and Nguni et al.'s (2006) studies that explained the integration of both transformational and transactional is the preferred leadership approach.

In a more recent study, Nyenyembe et al. (2016) examined the relationship between transformational leadership and transactional aspects of the effects of teacher job satisfaction while controlling for teacher characteristics. The study consisted of 180 teachers from 10 secondary schools in Tanzania. Regression analysis showed that both transformational and transactional leadership were neutral with teacher job satisfaction. The study found that both leadership styles were positively correlated to teacher job satisfaction; however, they differed in magnitude and sign. Teacher job satisfaction is significantly positively related to charismatic leadership (r=.73, p<.001), individualized consideration (r=.68, p<.001), intellectual stimulation (r=.46), contingent reward (r=.46, p<.001), and active-by-exception (r=.37, p<.001). Passive management-by-exception (r=-.51, p<.001) and laissez-faire leadership style (r=-.40, p<.001) were negatively correlated to teacher job satisfaction. It was revealed that teachers who have higher educational attainment, such as a master's degree, and who are male, experience lower levels of job satisfaction. The study's outcome challenged the notion that effective leaders encompass transformational aspects, but the study suggested that both transformational and transactional dimensions demonstrate good leadership.

Similarly, Hariri et al. (2016) investigated teachers' perceptions of leadership style and decision-making styles to teachers' job satisfaction while controlling teachers' personal characteristics in Lampung Province, Indonesia. A total of 475 teachers from six different geographic districts participated in the study. The descriptive analysis found that most principals exhibited transformational leadership and rational decision-making style

compared to other forms of leadership and decision-making styles. Additionally, the majority of teachers', in general, perceived their job satisfaction as high. The regression analysis found that transformational leadership and rational decision-making styles contribute the highest to teacher job satisfaction, specifically in terms of leadership style and job satisfaction, which is consistent with Bogler (2001), Nguni et al. (2006), and Griffith (2004). The result showed that transformational leadership (b=.263, p<.001) and rational decision-making (b=.0257; p<.001) are the best predictors to impact teacher job satisfaction positively; whereas laissez-faire (b=-0.121, p<.001) and intuitive (b=-0.131, p<.001) and avoidant (b=-0.234, p<.001) decision-making styles contribute negatively to teacher job satisfaction after controlling for teachers' demographic characteristics.

Sayadi (2016), with a sample size of 387 teachers, surveyed teachers to examine leadership styles' effects on job satisfaction and organizational commitment in Iran. Results showed both transformational and transactional positively affected teacher job satisfaction and organizational commitment. However, more specifically, charismatic leadership had a more substantial effect on teacher job satisfaction (b=0.38, p<.05) and value commitment (b=0.52, p<.01) compared to the other dimensions of transformational leadership, though, charismatic leadership had no significance on the teacher's commitment to stay. Moreover, charismatic leadership was the only variable that predicted job satisfaction and value commitment. In contrast, laissez-faire or non-

leadership served as a significant (negative) predictor of commitment to stay (b=-0.40, $p<.01$).

Teacher Demographic Effects on Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction in education has been studied extensively, often being studied from multiple angles to uncover factors that contribute to teacher job satisfaction, including gender, years of experience, age, and educational level. This study will examine specific demographic variables that may affect the strength of the relationship between leadership style on job satisfaction. The demographic variables such as gender, years of experience, age, and educational level will be used in the statistical models.

Several studies have examined gender as a determinant to influence teacher job satisfaction. Liu and Ramsey (2008) used similar variables examined 4,952 teachers' job satisfaction from the National Center for Education Statistics Schools and Staffing Survey from 1999-2000 and Teacher Follow-up Survey from 2000-2001, found that women exhibited lowered job satisfaction compared to men, especially from the working conditions of the school, possibly due to induced stress levels (Antoniou, Polychroni, & Vlachakis, 2006; Chaplain, 2008). Another study by Klassen and Chiu (2010) showed that female teachers had 13% and 8% more workload stress and classroom stress, respectively, and had 5% less classroom management self-efficacy compared to males, possibly contributing to decreased job satisfaction. In contrast to these findings, other studies have found no significant differences between gender as it relates to job

satisfaction (Bishay, 1996; Bolin, 2007; Saiti & Papadopoulos, 2015; Singh & Kumar, 2016). Therefore, gender as a predictable determinant of job satisfaction is mixed.

Similarly, there is mixed evidence concerning the relationship between the length of service and teacher job satisfaction. Bolin's (2007) study showed the length of service teaching was significant to teacher job satisfaction. Liu and Ramsey's (2008) study concluded that teachers' job satisfaction increased as they gained more teaching experience, producing similar results as Bishay (1996). Oshagbemi (2000) found a positive linear relationship between years of experience and teacher job satisfaction, but the teacher must remain at the current institution to reap the benefits. It can be hypothesized that as teachers gain classroom experience, they concurrently develop coping mechanisms to handle work-related activities or adapt to the working conditions. Ferguson, Frost, and Hall (2012) examined psychological factors (e.g., depression, anxiety) and effects on occupational stress and job satisfaction. Years of experience were a positive, significant predictor of job satisfaction. For every one-unit increase of years of experience, it was found that a .08 ($p<.05$) unit increase in teacher job satisfaction. This suggests as teachers mature in their profession, they develop the skills and efficacy to handle hygiene factors related to classroom management, student behavior, and workload. Menon and Athanasoula-Reppa (2011) found that experienced teachers reported higher job satisfaction levels than non-experienced teachers. Ilgan et al. (2015) found comparable results that experience level influenced teacher job satisfaction, based on principals' instructional supervision behaviors. Specifically, there was a statistically

significant difference between teachers with 21 or more years of teaching had higher levels of job satisfaction compared to 6-10 years of teaching (F (5,627) = 3.07; p<0.05). Additionally, it was found that teachers with 21 years or more teaching experience had higher levels of job satisfaction compared to 1-2 years, 3-5 years, 11-15 years, and 16-20 years; however, the difference was not statistically significant. It can be postulated that the longer the teacher stays in the field, they view their principals' instructional supervision more positively; therefore, impacting their overall job satisfaction.

Contradictory evidence exists that teacher experience or length of service does not correlate to teacher job satisfaction. Crossman and Harris (2006) examined 233 teacher satisfaction level in secondary schools in the UK. Results showed the length of service was not significant with teacher job satisfaction (p=.546). Additionally, job satisfaction and length of service indicated a curvilinear relationship, meaning that job satisfaction is high at the beginning of his/her career, decreases a mid-point, and increasing towards the end of a teaching career. Gosnell (2000) and Sargent and Hannum (2005) found no negative correlation between years of experience and teacher job satisfaction. Gosnell (2000) found a negative relationship between the two variables. A similar study by Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2009) found a weak negative correlation to job satisfaction (r = -.24, p<.05). This suggests that as teachers become more experienced, they become more dissatisfied with working as a teacher. Reilly, Dhingra, and Boduszek (2014) studied 121 primary school teachers in Dublin, Ireland; findings are in accordance with Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2009), that years of teaching had a weak negative relationship with job

satisfaction, indicating that increased number years of teaching does not increase job satisfaction (r = -.28, p<.01).

The varied response of years of teaching experience and job satisfaction is threefold. First, as Reilly et al. (2014) suggested, entry-level, less experienced teachers to the field of education experience a "honeymoon period." This theory implies that when new teachers enter the field, they embrace the challenges and opportunities, and have strong teaching emotions, manifesting higher job satisfaction. Second, Klassen and Chiu (2010) explain a link between self-efficacy, years of experience, and psychological factors to job satisfaction. The study showed that teachers' years of experience showed a non-linear relationship with self-efficacy: a steady positive trajectory between beginning to mid-career and then declining. The results suggest as teachers gain the necessary teaching skills and confidence to engage students, manage student behavior, and apply effective instructional strategies early in their careers, this may decline as they become more experienced. As teachers gain more experience, Klassen and Chiu (2010) reported, teachers transition from stages of confidence and serenity to periods of disengagement and declining motivation, leading to psychological states of disappointment and bitterness. Green and Muñoz (2016) explained teachers enter the field with the expectation, as they become more experienced, salary increases; however, the growth of financial compensation in the field of education is slow compared to other fields of work. Yet, contrary to this finding, researchers have found teacher compensation, including salary, benefits, and other opportunities for income within the school, is irrelevant or

shows minimal association to teacher job satisfaction (Perie & Baker, 1997; Perrachione, Rosser, & Petersen, 2008).

Age has shown to affect teacher job satisfaction. However, the relationship between age and teacher job satisfaction has been met with mixed evidence. Most research studies have identified either a linear or curvilinear relationship between age and teacher job experience (Hickson & Oshagbemi, 1999; Oshagbemi, 1997, 2000; Reilly et al., 2014; Zembylas & Papanastasiou, 2004). In contrast, there is evidence to suggest that a U-shaped or non-significant relationship between age and job satisfaction does exist in several studies (Crossman & Harris, 2006; Mertler, 2002; Perrachione et al., 2008).

Educational attainment has been shown to be related to job satisfaction. Researchers have found a significant relationship, albeit a negative correlation, between educational attainment and job satisfaction (Akiri, 2014; Gosnell, 2000; Meek, 1998; Sargent & Hannum, 2005). Results confirmed, the higher the educational attainment, the lower the teacher job satisfaction becomes. Conversely, Meek (1998) found that teachers with more advanced degrees were more satisfied with their job. In contrast, Perrachione et al. (2008) found no significant difference between a degree earned and teacher job satisfaction.

Evidence on teacher background characteristics, including gender, years of experience, age, and educational level, have been mixed, as described above. Workload stress and work conditions appear to affect teacher job satisfaction. This suggests that teacher job satisfaction is a dynamic, multifaceted construct, as validated by the empirical

research discussed above in traditional educational settings. These factors have yet to be examined in adult basic education settings.

Adult Basic Education Programs – The Evolution of Accountability and the Impact on Leadership Behaviors and Teacher Well-Being

ABE has evolved from a state of crisis in the early 1990s to an educational program that is further developing through theory, legislation, and innovative practices. Compared to other federally funded and state-administered traditional educational programs, ABE continues to be undervalued and experience limited attention (Bennett, 2007). ABE programs are still underfunded and inferior to the traditional educational systems such as K-12, though, this is changing because of legislation to enhance the quality of ABE programs (Belzer, 2017).

In today's age of increased accountability, a shift in ABE programs has unfolded. The accountability movement has created a data-driven dialogue between stakeholders, leaders, and teachers to radically improve program performance and its influence on student outcomes (Belzer, 2007, 2017). Workforce Innovation and Opportunity Act (United States Department of Labor, 2014b) is a landmark legislation initiative designed to strengthen public workforce systems. The WIOA supersedes the Workforce Investment Act of 1998 and amends the Adult Education and Family Literacy Act, to where more emphasis is put on reducing barriers to employment and high-quality jobs by helping adults seek education and the necessary training to compete in the global economy (United States Department of Labor, 2014b).

Today, the federal government has taken a more active role in how ABE programs perform. ABE programs accept federal money to support the provisions of the program (Belzer, 2017). Not only does the federal government allocate funds to ABE programs, but it has also developed guidelines to standardize practices to improve the quality of services. In recent years, the federal government established a new accountability and reporting system called The National Reporting System (NRS) for adult education (United States Department of Education, 2019). Once adopted by the state, it would hold each state's ABE program responsible for meeting performance standards (United States Department of Education, 2019).

With the inception of the NRS, teachers and program staff are responsible for providing quantitative data about each adult learner's ability to meet the specific educational, employment, and societal goals (Smith, 2009). The new accountability system intends to develop a method to increase the survival of the ABE programs (Belzer, 2017). As a result, more focus has been placed on ABE programs' effectiveness in terms of the degree of efficiency in meeting performance indicators (Udouj et al., 2017).

While the performance indicators outlined by the NRS is useful in measuring adult learner success and holding ABE programs accountable, they do not manage the program systems involved to ensure learner success (Udouj et al., 2017). Meeting the criteria outlined by the NRS, the responsibility is left to the administrators of the program to develop effective programs and support the ABE teachers to tailor instructional

modalities in the classroom. ABE programs must create a robust organizational structure with checks and balances to ensure efficiency. There is a degree of 'competing' between ABE instructional-focused development and accountability-focused initiatives among teachers (Smith, 2009). ABE programs are placing more emphasis on providing quantifiable information instead of the professional development of ABE teachers' abilities in providing effective classroom processes such as instructional modalities to meeting diverse adult learning styles (Smith, 2009). Not all ABE programs feel that educational accountability policies are the right thing due to ABE programs' variations.

Ardent critics like Merrifield (1998) argue accountability systems place an over-reliance on "return on investments" (p. 7). Merrifield stated that ABE programs have an undeveloped infrastructure, and fragmented systems make it challenging to have the capacity to develop an accountable management system to perform. For Merrifield, accountability systems shift the focus to an outcome-based system without considering the process to create effective ABE programs, such as how to measure student performance. Approaching ABE programs' educational accountability policies through a narrow lens will undercut the purpose, value, and benefits of accountability systems. Broadening one's understanding and intent focus on interdependent efforts among all stakeholders, including teachers, will allow a proactive response to significant shifts in educational policies related to restructuring efforts centered on accountability.

Merrifield (1998) does provide valid concerns regarding accountability regarding how to measure performance and the mismatch of goals between policymakers and ABE

programs. Condelli (2007) echoes these same concerns but explains that states and program leaders can use the accountability system as a tool to influence quality to build the infrastructure, systems, and training aspects to improve the overall function of ABE programs. The program must take the lead. We are in the age of accountability now, so leadership must become "ecological system thinkers," a term coined by Squire and Reigeluth (2000, p.145). When program leaders think systematically, shifts in perceptions among ABE leaders and teachers will emerge, allowing ABE programs to think in terms of relationships, connectedness, and contexts to handle the more extensive accountability system that evolves on a continuum.

How ABE school directors and leaders position themselves in response to performance accountability policies will set the tone for how teachers adjust to these policies (Belzer, 2007). Belzer (2003) examined how agency leadership practices mediate between policy initiatives and program success in building an infrastructure to sustain educational reforms. Program leaders tended to place more emphasis on testing and documentation than working with teachers on how to implement the changes accordingly, rather than involving teachers in the process of modifying classroom processes. These changes placed additional stress on the teachers.

A later study by Belzer (2007) found ABE leaders' who were more proactive and established a collaborative culture were more effective in handling accountability measures. In other words, leaders' who put in systems and demonstrated a coherent vision and facilitated dialogue to where ABE teachers understood the new policies and

"felt connected" to increased accountability showed better results when the NRS was implemented. ABE school leaders' who had a more laissez-faire approach to the new educational accountability policies, or were complacent, failed to develop a coherent system and support mechanisms to where team members could traverse the new accountability measures. Mostly, these programs felt ill-prepared and "bitter" about the new education reform. The common theme in Belzer's studies (2003, 2007) is that while accountability requirements may raise expectations for ABE teachers, the type of leadership practice and support provided allowed teachers to meet these expectations better. While at the same time, the regulatory framework consists of the policies and directives of the accountability requirements added an extra burden to program leaders who were already over-taxed, impacting leaders' ability to deliver a new framework that emphasizes cohesion and a sense of direction.

The Impact on Adult Basic Education Teachers

ABE teachers help adult learners develop the basic literacy and numeracy skills to pass the GED and transition into vocational training or higher education. Despite the critical role ABE teachers play in adult student outcomes, little is known about how the ABE teaching profession's modifications have impacted teaching. Over the past 20 years, the ABE teaching profession has experienced significant disruptions and reconfigurations that have affected the ability to deliver effective education to adult students. The most significant change has been the newly adopted accountability reporting system's emphasis on tracking individual student outcomes (Belzer, 2007; Condelli, 2007; Smith,

2009). ABE program funding is tied to demonstrable outcomes reported to each state's accountability reporting system (Cronen, Yin, & Condelli, 2015). Thus, with the WIA's increased accountability, ABE programs are under increased pressure to meet the demands to ensure funding does not dissolve (Smith, 2009). The added accountability pressure compounded by the lack of training and professional development has made it very challenging for ABE teachers (Cronen et al., 2015). ABE program leaders often struggle to balance meeting the accountability demands and providing educational leadership to support teachers (Belzer, 2003; Smith, 2009).

A faulty conception of educational accountability policies is they will intrinsically improve instructional-based practices in the classroom. ABE program leaders have placed greater emphasis on outcome-based performance as opposed to the reform of teaching methodologies, professional development activities, and the structural constraints related to working conditions (Belzer, 2003; Smith, 2009). Addressing pedagogy practices and professional development activities that better align with ABE teacher professional growth and student needs will have a higher chance of meeting accountability requirements (Belzer, 2017; Smith & Gillespie, 2007). Increasing accountability-focused professional development undermines the success of student learning (Smith, 2009). When ABE leadership's primary mechanism is focused on high-stakes accountability assessments (Smith, 2009), this focus will affect the retention of ABE teachers. Several studies have found the increased focus on accountability has negatively influenced teacher retention in traditional education settings across multiple

states (Darling-Hammond & Sykes, 2003; Ingersoll et al., 2016; Ryan et al., 2017; Tye & O'Brien, 2002). Similarly, in ABE contexts, the Smith et al. (2003) study showed that many of the ABE teachers felt detached from school leadership because ABE leaders focused primarily on accountability standards. These findings indicate that ameliorating the effects of accountability--concentrate on the ABE teachers through responsive and supportive leadership styles, namely transformational leadership, has a higher propensity to improve teacher satisfaction and retention (Bogler, 2001; Griffith, 2004; Menon, 2014; Nguni et al., 2006; Nyenyembe et al., 2016).

For programs and states to meet accountability goals, there need to be new policies, funding, and training programs for ABE programs, administrators, and teachers to provide programming for adult students to reap full benefits from participating in ABE (Smith & Gillespie, 2007; Smith et al., 2003). What remains transparent is that more research needs to be implemented to fully understand how ABE programs support teachers to meet adult learners' needs effectively. Presently, there are leadership concerns in ABE settings because the primary focus has been performance accountability as opposed to advocacy, providing meaningful feedback schemes, and targeted coaching to teachers, thus leading to ABE teachers feeling isolated and decreased access to decision making (Smith & Gillespie, 2007; Taylor, Smith, & Bingman, 2005).

Accountability Requirements and the Impact on Adult Basic Education Leaders

The role of the ABE leadership has evolved over the years, becoming a more balanced approach between managing fundamental system processes (e.g., policies,

structure, financial management) to concentrating on accountability measures and working conditions of the program (Comings & Soricone, 2007; Smith et al., 2003; Udouj et al., 2017). ABE leaders today face unique challenges compared to K-12 system principals because of the ABE structure, policies, and external forces (Belzer, 2007; Smith & Hofer, 2003). ABE leaders face unpredictable funding that is provisional on the performance indicators outlined by the federal and state performance accountability standards (Belzer, 2007; Smith, 2009). Additionally, ABE leaders are under intense scrutiny and pressure by federal, state, and private stakeholders who question programming abilities to provide the necessary program development for teachers and workforce development and prevent adult student dropout (Belzer, 2007). Consequently, the ABE program's ability to handle performance accountability rests on the shoulders of leadership.

ABE leaders must exercise the skill sets to manage critical management system functions while concurrently building a supportive foundation for effective instructional support systems, professional development, and school culture (Comings & Soricone, 2007; Smith & Hofer, 2003; Udouj et al., 2017). The performance of how leaders can successfully command academic structures and processes and stay committed to improving the program's capacity for improvement is a significant indicator of teacher job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Burkhauser, 2017; Cogaltay et al., 2016; Nguni et al., 2006). ABE programs are discovering the critical link between ABE leadership style, balancing the waves of accountability reforms, and the impact on teacher

job satisfaction and attrition. Consequently, the ABE program's ability to handle performance accountability rests on the shoulders of leadership.

The arbitrary and single-measure scores of outcome-based accountability systems mandated by the Workforce Investment Act (WIA) create feelings of satisfaction or heightened discomfort, conflict, and blame among ABE program leaders (Belzer, 2007, 2017). There is an emotional involvement among program leaders that may influence how they lead their program. The newly established accountability guidelines may alter leadership styles due to trying to strike a balance between performance data or to provide teacher growth and development. A leader focused on policies and measurable academic goals, giving teachers limited flexibility to have the propensity to induce occupational stress, disengagement, and burnout among teachers (Sayadi, 2016; Tahseen, 2010). There must be mutual collaboration around numerical outcomes and without compromising teacher satisfaction. Implementing a type of leadership style that creates a culture of collaboration and problem-solving and professional development goes against traditional leadership styles, is ideal in ABE programs. This approach will provide effective leadership while balancing the practice of forcing out numerical data and increasing teacher job satisfaction. A leader that knows how the stressors of accountability systems affect the relationship between the type of leadership style and ABE teachers' job satisfaction is critical.

Performance Accountability Effects on Adult Basic Education Programs

ABE programs are still in their infancy stage to develop a standardized curriculum framework that better aligns with student learning to meet accountability goals. Planting a K-12 system framework to ABE classrooms do not work, nor does expecting ABE program leaders and teachers to enhance student learning without developing a system that supports professional development, training, and administrative support (Smith, 2009). ABE programs serve as gateways to economic prosperity for adult learners, but ABE teachers need support, guidance, and recognition to help them become successful educators in the classroom; thus, impacting teacher job satisfaction. St. Clair and Belzer (2007) explain that ABE systems are similar to the broader field of traditional education contexts, in terms of performance standards and accountability standards; however, there needs to be more policy design and adopting a curriculum framework that is in unison to the heterogeneity adult learning profiles.

Debates have permeated throughout ABE programs centered on the policy accountability dynamics and the effects on program quality. For example, since the WIA's implementation of accountability standards, ABE programs have seen mixed results, ranging from professional development to teacher attrition. For instance, about professional development aspects, Smith's (2009) study declared the changes in professional development offerings had been met with mixed effects. A greater focus has been placed on "teaching to the test," and that teachers have consumed the majority of the responsibility of administering, analyzing, and developing an instructional plan based on

the test results. On the positive side, increased accountability has refined and improved professional development activities and improved its quality. Smith (2009) highlighted the significant implication that ABE programs must balance accountability and assessment with professional development and curriculum and instructional activities. This balancing act is complicated, where many ABE teachers lack a formalized education and specialized education in adult education with less access to high-quality professional development opportunities (Smith, 2009; Smith & Gillespie, 2007; Smith & Hofer, 2003).

Teachers must be adequately trained and supported to meet adult learners' unique learning styles and a wide range of abilities. Smith et al. (2003) completed a longitudinal study over three years; collected data at three different time points to examine the professional development aspect of 100 ABE teachers in three New England states from 1998 and 2000. The outcome of the study was alarming. The study uncovered that ABE teachers lack the formal training to address adult learner needs, limited professional development opportunities, suboptimal working conditions, the structure on how to access the standardized curriculum and access progress, and inconsistent policies and procedures organization. A mixed-method study completed by Kamrath and Gregg (2018) discovered three common themes related to ABE teacher turnover in one correctional facility (a common setting where ABE is delivered) that arose: (1) perceived lack of administration support created displeasure, (2) teachers felt that a lack of recognition and professional development contributed to feeling dissatisfied, and (3)

financial compensation does play a role such as developing built-in financial incentives to promote longevity. Addressing these internal and external factors may reduce teacher turnover and the retention of qualified teachers.

With the feelings of isolation, inadequacy, and stress combined with the ABE field's policies and structure, such as how to organize instructions, assess progress and develop curriculum, it is not surprising that ABE leaders are overwhelmed. Teachers resign from their job or leave the profession altogether due to low job satisfaction (Smith et al., 2003). Researchers suggest schools, in particular, the school leaders, should give more attention to teacher job satisfaction (Bogler, 2001; Kouni et al., 2018; Nguni et al., 2006). ABE teachers who are not satisfied in their positions may struggle to handle the demands and pressures of the position and perform at optimal levels necessary, stifling adult learners' learning process.

There is sufficient evidence in the K-12 system that has described individual factors (e.g., burnout, qualifications) and contextual factors (e.g., working conditions) associated to teacher turnover and attrition (Borman & Dowling, 2008; Clandinin et al., 2015; Ingersoll, 2001, 2003); however, with ABE programs, little evidence is known regarding teacher turnover (Belzer, 2007), but it is assumed that turnover is similar to specific underlying factors. When teachers are provided strong leadership support and improved working conditions, turnover is reduced significantly, as evidenced by K-12 research (Borman & Dowling, 2008; Ingersoll, 2001). Do these same factors apply to ABE programs to reduce teacher attrition?

That remains unknown. What is known on the limited research conducted in ABE to gauge actual turnover rates, the majority of ABE teachers have taught in the field for less than three years (Young, Fleischman, Fitzgerald, & Morgan, 1994) and that approximately 40% of teachers have been in the field for less than five years (Sabatini et al., 2002). Improving teacher job satisfaction is a pathway to reduce attrition rates by encouraging ABE teachers to remain in the field. Identifying the predictor factors that may influence job satisfaction is an essential task that ABE research needs to undertake, focusing on leadership styles.

Summary and Conclusions

Several variables have been investigated to determine their impact on teacher job satisfaction, including gender, years of experience, age, and educational level. Although previous research has shown mixed evidence that these variables impact job satisfaction in various education settings, they have not been investigated in ABE. Additionally, leadership styles and the influence on teacher job satisfaction has been explored in traditional education settings, not in adult basic education settings. Empirical evidence has suggested that transformational leadership is the most effective leadership style to influence teacher job satisfaction, with transactional leadership being ideal, depending on the context. This study plans to add to the existing research by adding another dimension by examining leadership styles and the effects on teacher job satisfaction in ABE settings.

Chapter 3: Research Method

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) of ABE leaders (program director, program supervisor, development manager, coordinator, or master teacher) and ABE teacher job satisfaction (supervision, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication). The objective was to identify which leadership style is most effective in predicting measures of teacher job satisfaction. While many research studies have examined teacher perceptions of leadership styles in different settings and populations, I found no studies that have focused on the teacher perceptions concerning leadership styles in ABE settings and how these leadership styles may, directly and indirectly, influence or shape teacher job satisfaction. The ABE teacher population is particularly noteworthy, given their extra workload due to responding to new United States Department of Education guidelines (Smith, 2009). It is expected that the findings from this study will provide insights into management practices, with the hopes of reducing teacher dissatisfaction leading to turnover and retention issues.

This chapter will present the research methodology including a definition of the target population, a data acquisition strategy, a detailed description of the instruments to be used, and the sequence of statistical analyses that tests the experimental hypotheses. The limitations of generalizability are also be presented.

Research Design and Rationale

This study was a quantitative, nonexperimental, cross-sectional, correlational survey design. A quantitative approach offers the ability to make predictions and generalizations about the beliefs and attitudes of ABE teachers based on statistical analyses of empirical data collected from a sample drawn randomly from a population of ABE teachers (see Creswell, 2014; Yilmaz, 2013). ABE teachers provided multiple measures of leadership style and job satisfaction, along with relevant demographic information.

Independent variables in this study include three leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire), as measured by the MLQ (5x – Short Form). A score for each variable was based on composite scores using combinations of nine MLQ subfactors related to behaviors and tendencies that differentiate between effective and ineffective leaders. Dependent variables included six measures of teacher job satisfaction (supervision, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication) as measured by the JSS. The demographic variables included gender, age, educational level, years of experience, and type of education setting (see Appendix A). The measures of leadership were related to measures of job satisfaction by using canonical correlation analysis, followed by a series of multiple regression analyses using leadership styles as predictor variables, with specific measures of job satisfaction as outcome variables. Additional multiple regression analyses were

conducted to assess the effects of the demographic variables on the relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction.

Methodology

Population

The target population for this study was ABE teachers from the Western region of the United States, which includes Alaska, Arizona, California, Colorado, Hawaii, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, Oregon, Utah, Washington, and Wyoming. ABE services are situated in a variety of contexts, typically delivered in correctional educational institutions, community colleges, universities, libraries, community-based organizations, and the private sector (Tamassia, Lennon, Yamamoto, & Kirsch, 2007). For this study, only ABE teachers who provide direct instructional services in community colleges and local education agencies were eligible to participate. The objective was to identify primary settings for adult learners, and according to Tamassia et al. (2007), the largest providers of adult basic education are local education agencies and community colleges.

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS; 2018), the population of adult basic and secondary education and literacy teachers and instructors in the United States is estimated to be 68,200. In the Western region, there are approximately 3,125 adult basic and secondary education and literacy teachers and instructors (BLS, 2018). There are approximately 175 ABE institutions that provide direct instruction to adult learners across the Western Region.

Sampling and Sampling Procedures

For this study, I used a nonprobability, purposive sampling strategy (Etikan, Musa, & Alkassim, 2016; Patton, 2002). Purposive sampling helped secure specific sample characteristics (i.e., job title, professional experience, educational level, and the settings/contexts of ABE programs). To participate in the study, the participant was employed as an ABE teacher in the Western region of the United States and met all of the following criteria:

- Currently providing instructional services in local education agencies and community colleges.
- Has obtained the specific education requirements, such as a bachelor's degree or higher.
- Is currently being supervised by either a program director, program supervisor, development manager, coordinator, or a master teacher.
- Has at least 3 months or longer working relationship with their current supervisor
- Has at least 1 or more years of teaching experience.

To determine the appropriate sample size, a power analysis was conducted by using G*Power (see Faul et al., 2009). Parameters entered into the G*Power analysis for multiple regression included effect size ($f^2 = 0.15$), a generally accepted alpha level of 0.05, and a power of .80. As a result, the minimum sample size of at least 135 participants was required.

Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection

The recruitment and data collection process involved a series of steps.

Step 1. I sent a recruitment letter (see Appendix B) to key administrators of eligible ABE institutions in the Western region, asking for permission to survey their ABE teachers. Administrators were provided with an overview of the purpose of the study, as well as a detailed description of the recruitment process, experimental design and implementation, and the benefits of participation to ABE teachers and administrators. A letter of cooperation (see Appendix C) from each administrator to ABE teachers were provided for the administrator's approval, to establish credibility for the study and demonstrate their commitment to the process.

Step 2. The administrator of each site provided a list of names and email addresses for ABE teachers who were contacted twice by email. The first email that I sent included an invitation letter (see Appendix D), their administrator's signed letter of cooperation, a general description of the purpose of the study, steps taken to maintain confidentiality, and an internet link to SurveyMonkey, an online web-based commercial platform, where each participant accessed the MLQ and JSS.

Step 3. Participants followed the link to the survey site where the informed consent was provided. The informed consent delineated a clear purpose of the study, its background, the role of the participants, risk/benefits of participating, the study's procedure, and the steps involved that I included to safeguard participant information and names to ensure that each participant received sufficient information to decide whether or

not to participate in the study, without coercion or the provision of misinformation. The consent form page included a button that participants clicked “Yes” to participate in the study. Once the participant clicked on the “start” button, they completed the MLQ and JSS. Instructions on how to complete the MLQ and JSS were provided. A "Thank You" page was generated at the end of the survey thanking each participant for participating and letting them know that their responses have been collected.

Step 4. The MLQ and JSS were available for 30 days. After ten days, I sent a second email to each ABE teacher, reminding them to participate (see Appendix E).

Step 5. The process of contacting ABE administrators to recruit additional ABE teachers continued until I collected an adequate sample size of 135 participants.

Step 6. Once 135 participants completed the MLQ and JSS, the data was made available through SurveyMonkey, who compiled all responses and created a CSV file made available for analysis using SPSS version 24.0.

Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs

Two instruments were used in the study. Permission to use the MLQ (see Appendix H) and JSS (see Appendix I) was requested and granted. The first instrument is the MLQ (Bass & Avolio, 2004) to measure leadership styles. The MLQ consists of 36 items on leadership styles. The questionnaire takes about 15 minutes to complete. The MLQ measures five transformational leadership dimensions, three transactional leadership dimensions, and one nonleadership dimension called laissez-faire leadership. Each dimension is delineated into subscales, with behaviorally anchored items. The

MLQ-5X rater form was used to determine the ABE teachers' perceptions of leadership behaviors. For each item on the MLQ, ABE teachers were asked to rate their leader's leadership style on a Likert scale with the scores, for example, 0=not at all, 1=once in a while, 2=sometimes, 3=fairly often, 4=frequently, if not always. Scale statements include items such as, "Talks optimistically about the future" or "Spends time teaching and coaching." The MLQ is not designed to label the leader a specific leadership style; instead, it is more appropriate to determine if the leader has a high, average, or low level of particular leadership style (Bass & Avolio, 2004). For example, a leader with higher scores in the transformational leadership domain would indicate that the leader exhibits transformational behaviors "more frequently than the norm." Higher scores on a leadership scale indicate a greater frequency of exhibiting behaviors that correspond to that particular leadership style (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

The MLQ factor scores measured specific characteristics or behaviors of the ABE leader. These characteristics fall into the categories of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Transformational leadership consists of five scales that include idealized influence (attributed), idealized (behavior), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Transactional leadership consists of three scales that include contingent reward, management-by-exception (active), and management-by-exception (passive; Bass & Avolio, 2004). Laissez-faire measures nonleadership behaviors for which only one scale is measured, the laissez-faire or nonleadership style score (Bass & Avolio,

2004). Each of the nine leadership scales consists of four items, and the scores from each leadership scale will be summed and averaged. Leadership scale and style scores have a range of 0 to 4. Higher leadership style and scale scores correspond with a participant's stronger perception of their leader as exhibiting that particular leadership style, and behavior or characteristic (see Table 1).

Table 1

Mean Score Range of Adult Basic Education Leaders Leadership Behaviors

Mean Score	Behavior or Style Used
0.0 to 1.0	Minimally to Never
1.0 to 2.0	Once in A While to Sometimes
2.0 to 3.0	Sometimes to Fairly Often
3.0 to 4.0	Fairly Often to Frequently, if not Always

Note. From "Avolio, B. J. & Bass, B. M. (2004). *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*. *Manual and sampler set*. (3rd ed.) Redwood City, CA: Mind Garden."

Bass and Avolio (2004) have established the reliability of the MLQ through repeatability measures to assess internal consistency. They reported that the scales' reliabilities have been generally stable, in referencing Cronbach's alpha test, using a sample size of 27,285, the scales ranged from 0.74 to 0.94, which corresponds to levels of fair to excellent/strong. A study by Avolio et al. (1999) included 14 independent samples with a total of 3,786 respondents to re-examine the factor structure of the MLQ by using the rater evaluation form only. The results showed that intercorrelation ranged from .63 to .92. A meta-analysis review by Dumdum et al. (2002) revealed that the transformational leadership scale exceeded the internal consistency of .70. The transactional leadership scale dimensions all had internal consistency reliabilities

exceeding .70, except for the dimension that measures the management-by-exception passive scale showed a .69 reliability rating (Dumdum et al., 2002). These results conclude that the MLQ instrument is a reliable measure.

Studies conducted by Hunt (1991), Yukl (1994), and Smith and Peterson (1988) questioned the psychometric properties and the initial conceptualization of the MLQ, due to the high correlations measures of the transformational scales, as well the overlap between transformation scales and contingent reward subscale (see Bass & Avolio, 2004). Acknowledging the MLQ criticism, Bass and Avolio (2004) made refinements to the MLQ to improve the convergent and discriminant validity of the instrument. After a series of factor analyses, literature suggestions, and support from scholars in the field of leadership, it was determined that the factor structures of the MLQ needed modifications to improve the validity. Subsequently, new items were developed, and the factor structure of the MLQ was refined using a previous data set and a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to replicate the sample set to determine the validity of the revised model (Bass & Avolio, 2004). The new scale, called the MLQ 5X survey, was validated. The new scale revisions have been tested against other conceptual models, and factor analyzed confirming a six-factor model of leadership. The results led to a more comprehensive range of leadership factors tapping into a more validated instrument (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

Many studies have been shown to reinforce the validity of the MLQ. Lowe et al. (1996) conducted a meta-analysis review of 2,873 to 4,242 public and private sector

respondents showed the correlation between each component of the MLQ to be consistent with the model. Antonakis, Avolio, and Sivasubramaniam's (2003) study sampled a homogenous profile of business organizations inclusive of 2,279 males and 1,089 females. They found evidence of psychometric soundness confirming the validity of the MLQ. In a similar vein, Judge and Piccolo (2004) completed a comprehensive meta-analysis that examined the validity of the MLQ, which the results showed an overall validity coefficient of .44 regarding the predictive validity of transformational leadership to the followers' job satisfaction, effectiveness, and performance. Moreover, Muenjohn and Armstrong (2008) completed a CFA by using a multisource of 138 cases that illustrated the version MLQ 5X had adequately captured the full range of leadership styles. The Cronbach alpha level of 0.86, well above the .70 threshold, indicated an acceptable level (Nunnally, 1978).

It is important to note, however, that Avolio (1999) mentioned that leadership might be contextualized, meaning that there may be theoretical shortcomings and limitations based on contextual factors in using the MLQ. For example, Leong and Fischer (2011) conducted a meta-analysis review that focused on cross-cultural differences in transformational leadership style. They examined articles from 54 independent samples from 18 nations, published between 1985 and 2006 using the MLQ. The results of the review showed cross-culture variations of transformational leadership due to cultural norms and values (Leong & Fischer, 2011). It was found that transformational leadership aligns closely to hierarchical cultures compared to egalitarian

culture dimensions. Antonakis et al. (2003) discussed that using non-homogenous samples may result in inconsistent findings when using the MLQ due to contextual factors. The validity of the MLQ is enhanced when homogenous samples are tested.

The second instrument is the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS; Spector, 1985, 1997) to measure overall job satisfaction. The JSS has 36 items, consisting of nine subscales designed to assess how people feel about their job related to the constellation of cognitive engagement, emotional stability, and how well they perform (Spector, 1997). The questionnaire takes about 15 minutes to complete. The nine subscales include pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication (Spector, 1997). The subscales used in this study included the following: supervision, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication. These subscales of the JSS are most relevant to the study to examine the relationship between leadership styles and teacher job satisfaction. Several subscales of the JSS were removed from this study as they do not apply to teachers' overall job satisfaction. For example, although fringe benefits may play a role in teacher satisfaction; however, there is no direct relationship when conceptualized concerning leadership styles. Other scales removed include pay and promotion as they do not apply to measure leadership styles.

The JSS assesses job satisfaction on a continuum from low (dissatisfied) to high (satisfied) using a summated rating scale, with six choices per item, ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." Scale statements include, "When I do a good

job, I receive the recognition for it that I should" or "I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated." Each subscale includes four items are written in each direction (positive and negative wording), a total of 24 scoring items. Each item is scored from 1 to 6, meaning that each subscale can provide a range score from 4 to 24, and a sum score of all subscales can range from 24 to 144. The participant's total JSS score will be computed by summing the totals of each of the six subscales. It is important to note that scored items are negatively worded, meaning that items must be reversed before summing with the positively worded items into facet or total scores. Spector (1999) reported that if any scoring items are missing, an adjustment must occur to prevent the mean total from being too high or low. The recommended procedure is to compute the mean of the participant's total responses and substitute that mean for the missing item(s) (Spector, 1999).

There is strong evidence of the reliability and validity of the JSS tool. The JSS is a well-established instrument that has been repeatedly examined for reliability and validity across various sample norms, including public and private organizations. To measure reliability, Spector (1985) measured internal consistency and test-retest reliability of the JSS. The coefficient alpha determined internal consistency on each facet or subscale on a sample of 2,870. Each subscale was above .70, except for operating procedures (.62) and co-workers (.60). The total scale coefficient alpha measured at .91. Test-retest reliability of the JSS was measured 18 months apart, leading to surprisingly high correlation coefficients, which the JSS subscales ranged from .37 to .74 and the entire scaled measured at .71 (Spector, 1985). To measure the construct validity of the

JSS, Spector (1985) used the subtypes discriminate and convergent validity, by providing a multitrait-multimethod analysis. The multitrait-multimethod analysis concluded that the validity correlations were of reasonable magnitude, .61 to .80, along with moderate intercorrelational rates, a range between .11 to .59 with a median correlation of .35 (Spector, 1985). Many studies have conducted reliability and validity analysis on its psychometric properties to effectively measure job satisfaction that have concluded a valid and reliable tool (Batura, Skordis-Worrall, Thapa, Basnyat, & Morrison, 2016; Gholami, Talebiyan, Aghamiri, & Mohammadian, 2012; Ogunkuade & Ojiji, 2018; Tsounis & Sarafis, 2018).

The MLQ and JSS have not been tested in an ABE setting. However, the MLQ and JSS have been validated across various education environments, with different populations, suggesting that the instruments will correspond accurately to ABE settings. Therefore, to a certain extent, this gives a level of confidence that the MLQ and JSS are varied and robust enough to measure leadership styles and job satisfaction in ABE contexts when sampling profiles are homogenous.

Data Analysis Plan

Data collected from the MLQ and JSS was made available through SurveyMonkey. The downloaded data was cleaned and imported into SPSS version 24.0 to run descriptive statistics, canonical correlation, and multiple regression to report significant findings with regard to determining the relationship between the perceived leadership style of the ABE leader and ABE teacher job satisfaction. A p-value is a

probability associated with obtaining a particular test statistic, such as *t, r,* F, etc. In this study, an alpha level will be set at .05, which means that any p-value associated with a test statistic that is less than .05 will be evidence to reject a null hypothesis. The following section presents the statistical tests used to answer the following research questions:

RQ1: To what extent is adult basic education teachers' perceived leadership style of their leader (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire), as measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ; Avolio & Bass, 2004), related to teachers' self-perceived level of job satisfaction, as measured by the six factors or dimensions within supervision, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication by Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS; Spector, 1997)?

$H_0$1: There is no significant relationship between adult basic education teachers' perceived leadership styles of their leader and the teachers' self-perceived level of job satisfaction.

H_a1: There is a significant relationship between adult basic education teachers' perceived leadership styles of their leader and the teachers' self-perceived level of job satisfaction.

RQ2: To what extent is there a relationship between ABE teachers' perceived leadership style of their leader and the teachers' self-perceived level of job satisfaction after controlling for the effects of ABE teacher demographic characteristics?

$H_0$2: After controlling demographic variables (age, gender, years of service, and highest degree), there is no significant relationship between ABE teachers' perceived leadership styles of their leader and the teachers' self-perceived level of job satisfaction.

H_a2: After controlling demographic variables (age, gender, years of service, and highest degree), there is a significant relationship between ABE teachers' perceived leadership styles of their leader and the teachers' self-perceived level of job satisfaction.

To answer research question #1, a canonical correlational analysis was performed when the goal is to evaluate the interrelationships between multiple independent and dependent variables, according to Thompson (2000). Canonical correlation is a multivariate extension of multiple regression (Knapp, 1978). Performing a series of multiple regressions to examine each variable set separately runs the risk of increasing the Type 1 error rate, a counterproductive analysis. Due to the Type 1 error increase, it will be challenging to identify which variables reflect a true relationship (Sherry & Henson, 2005). Therefore, a canonical correlation statistical analysis was performed to reduce the Type 1 error rate to measure the relationship between leadership styles and teacher job satisfaction.

With this question, the canonical correlation analysis estimated the strength and nature of the relationship between two sets of variables (dependent and independent). The independent (predictor) variable set included ABE teachers' perceived leadership style of

their leader measured on the MLQ (Bass & Avolio, 2004), and the dependent (criterion) set of variables included the teachers' self-perceived level of job satisfaction measured by the JSS (Spector, 1997). A canonical correlation examined the correlation between a linear combination of the independent variables and dependent variables. The underlying statistical assumptions of the canonical correlations extend to the assumption of linearity and normality between composites of sets of multiple independent and dependent variables. Curvilinear patterns between the leadership styles (independent) and teacher job satisfaction (dependent) sets will reduce the effectiveness of the analysis. Testing for normality was a critical function to examine outliers between the sets of data. If the assumption of normality is not met, the outliers in the data set may cause severe problems and give unreliable results when examining the correlational relationship between leadership styles and teacher job satisfaction (Sherry & Henson, 2005). A violation of these canonical correlation assumptions can produce misleading results when examining the correlational relationship between leadership styles and teacher job satisfaction.

In a canonical analysis, variate refers to a version of a key variable defined in terms of the weighted sums of the component variables. There are *p* possible canonical variates, where *p* represents the number of variables in the smaller of the two variable sets (Sherry & Henson, 2005). In this study, the canonical correlation between the three leadership styles and six scales (supervision, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication) for job satisfaction yielded three canonical function variates because the leadership styles set was smaller of the two

variable sets (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). The canonical correlation analyzed the complex interaction of key variables within each canonical variate and between each canonical variate. To interpret the overall canonical results, the focus was placed on analyzing the two sets of coefficients and eigenvalues of the canonical roots, canonical function coefficients, and canonical structure coefficients. Multiple regression analyses were performed as there were statistically significant ($p < .05$) relationship between ABE teachers' perceived leadership behavior and style and the overall level of job satisfaction, as evidenced by the canonical analysis outcome. The three measures of leadership style were used as predictor variables for each measure of job satisfaction. Therefore, there were six multiple regression analyses performed.

To answer research question #2, multiple regression analyses were performed to assess the strength of the relationship between three measures of leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire), as measured by the MLQ (Bass & Avolio, 2004) and each of six measures of job satisfaction (supervision, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication), as measured by the JSS (Spector, 1997), while controlling for age, gender, educational level, and years of professional experience. In each of six multiple regression analyses, categorical demographic variables, such as gender and educational level, were entered as dummy coded variables. In contrast, continuous demographic variables, such as age and years of professional experience, were entered into the analysis as "scale" variables.

Threats to Validity

External Validity

External validity determines whether a causal relationship can be generalized from the results of the study. In this study, the threats to validity come from purposive sampling. When using purposive sampling, if not controlled well, it can lead to biased results impacting the study's validity due to lack of random sample; thus, it cannot be assumed that the participants in the study are representative of the entire population. To reduce any bias or misrepresentation of the study population, the population's specific requirements and survey objectives will be clearly defined to ensure the proper scope to reduce confounding results. Minimizing bias not only occurs at identifying participants in the study, but the mitigation of bias at the data collection, analysis, and reporting of results will also be monitored.

Another threat to validity is response bias among the participants completing the MLQ and JSS. As part of the invitation letter sent to the participants, they are encouraged to provide truthful and accurate responses when completing the questionnaires. Participants were assured that their responses to the MLQ and JSS would remain anonymous and confidential. Participants are expected to complete two surveys, which can induce survey fatigue, leading to inaccurate results. This will be mitigated through expressing the purpose and value of completing the surveys.

Lastly, the MLQ and JSS have primarily been repeatedly measured and validated in public and private sectors, including educational contexts. There has been no study that

has employed the MLQ and JSS instruments with this particular population. The MLQ and JSS are administered for its intended use to ensure validity, along with scoring and interpreting the MLQ and JSS scores to reduce flawed results.

Threats to Internal Validity

Several factors may affect internal validity to include selection bias, extraneous variables, and statistical regression. Selection bias may result due to the use of self-selection of the sample. Since the participants were self-selected with no random sampling, this could affect the study (Creswell, 2014). Extraneous variables can confound the results of the studies to give a false impression of the outcome of the study (Creswell, 2014). Examples include sociodemographics (i.e., gender), personal (i.e., affective state), and social factors (i.e., support within the program). For example, at the time of completing the MLQ and JSS, a participant may have had a stressful day of teaching, his or her response to the surveys may reflect the mood states that he/she was experiencing at the moment. Lastly, extreme scores from the MLQ and JSS may affect the study's nature due to regression of the mean. This will be mitigated by removing extreme scores to enter into the statistical analysis (Creswell, 2014).

Threats to Construct Validity

The threat to construct validity included the possibility that the MLQ and JSS instruments did not accurately and consistently measure the specific constructs that they purport to measure. Factor analyses have found strong evidence of psychometric soundness of the MLQ and JSS instruments (Antonakis et al., 2003; Bass & Avolio,

2004; Fleenor & Sheehan, 2007; Hoffman, 2002; Pittenger, 2001; Spector, 1985; Spector, 1997).

Ethical Procedures

An application was submitted to the Walden University Institutional Review Board (IRB) for approval before the study's initiation. The research design and data collection process were performed ethically and according to best research practices published by the American Psychological Association (APA, 2017).

The ABE Administrator signed a letter of cooperation to ensure institutional cooperation before sending the invitational letter to the ABE teachers. Before the participant initiated the online surveys, an online informed consent was provided that delineated a clear purpose of the study, its background, the role of the participants, risk/benefits of participating, study's procedure, the steps involved to safeguard the participant's information and names and my contact information to ensure that each participant had received sufficient information to decide whether or not to participate in the study, without coercion or the provision of misinformation. There was a statement that notified the participant that they could withdraw or terminate participation in the study without any loss or penalty or undue consequences within the informed consent. Furthermore, the informed consent described the study's potentiality being published in an academic journal or used for future research; however, it was noted that all data remained confidential and anonymous. When the participant clicked on the "Agreement"

button on the informed consent page, it was assumed that they agreed to participate in the study and completed the survey.

Once the participant clicked "Agreement" on the informed consent and completed the MLQ and JSS, the participant was identified as a sample. Completed and incomplete surveys were kept on a password-protected computer to safeguard data. Data was aggregated, encrypted, re-coded, and SurveyMonkey stored and secured the research data in their SOC 2 accredited data center that adhered to security and technical best practices. Anonymous responses were protected, as SurveyMonkey had an operational setting that was turned on to make the responses anonymous and private after the surveys were completed. Additionally, I did not use research data that is inherently personal or sensitive, like name, home addresses, or phone number, for example. Any research data or records (e.g., surveys, data analysis) will be retained for five (5) years. After the five (5) years, the research data and records will be discarded, leaving only the dataset for future research.

Summary

This study was a quantitative, nonexperimental, cross-sectional, correlational research design, focusing on examining the perceptions of ABE leadership behaviors between ABE supervisors and teachers. Data was collected from various ABE institutions from the Western region of the United States. At least 135 participants (*N=135*) was needed to participate in the study to ensure that the conclusion extracted from the statistical analysis was valid.

The MLQ and JSS were used to collect data to explain if a relationship exists between ABE teachers' perceived leadership style of their leader to the self-perceived level of job satisfaction. The MLQ measured the variables of leadership styles, and the JSS as it relates to teacher job satisfaction. Data from the MLQ and JSS was scored, interpreted, and statistically analyzed to determine whether there were significant differences in self-perceptions held by ABE teachers' perceived leadership style of their leader (e.g., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire), as measured by the MLQ, and the teachers' self-perceived level of job satisfaction, as measured by the JSS. Descriptive statistics, canonical correlation analysis, and multiple regression analysis answered the research questions. The next chapter will include the results of the data analysis.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) of ABE leaders (program director, program supervisor, development manager, coordinator, or master teacher) and ABE teacher job satisfaction (supervision, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication). The objective was to identify which leadership style is most effective in predicting measures of teacher job satisfaction. While many research studies have examined teacher perceptions of leadership styles in different settings and populations, no studies have focused on the teacher perceptions concerning leadership styles in ABE settings and how these leadership styles may, directly and indirectly, influence or shape teacher job satisfaction. The ABE teacher population is particularly noteworthy given their extra workload due to responding to new Department of Education guidelines. It is expected that the findings from this study will provide insights into management practices with the hopes of reducing teacher dissatisfaction which may lead to turnover and retention issues.

In this chapter, I present various statistical analyses to answer the research questions related explicitly to leadership styles' impact on job satisfaction and add to previous research findings on the topic. The first section, data collection, provides baseline descriptive and demographic information of the sample. The second section,

results, will provide the statistical analysis findings on the research questions along with tables to illustrate findings.

Data Collection

Data collection began following the approval of Walden University's IRB (approval # 01-28-20-0646689, valid through January 27th, 2021). For this study, two data collection instruments were chosen. Bass and Avolio's (2004) MLQ (5x – Short Form) and JSS (Spector, 1997) were used to collect data to explain if a relationship exists between ABE teachers' perceived leadership style of their leader to the self-perceived level of job satisfaction. The procedures outlined in Chapter 3 were followed without discrepancies to complete the data collection process.

ABE educators were recruited from the United States' Western region via email to become volunteer participants (see Appendix B). If the ABE site director/administrator agreed to have their teachers participate in the study, letters of cooperation (LOC) were signed by the ABE director/administrator who then provided staff email lists (see Appendix C). Once Walden University's IRB approved the signed LOC, an invitational email (see Appendix D) was sent to participants and a survey link that directed them to a separate survey website. SurveyMonkey was used to build the password-protected survey, and the data were collected anonymously with no personal identification and organizational affiliation identified.

Once the participants clicked on the survey link sent via email, they were directed to a website that included an informed consent that screened participants to ensure they

understood the scope, methodology, data collection of the study, and eligibility requirements to participate in the study. Participants advanced to the survey by first meeting the eligibility requirements and then agreeing to the informed consent page. Participants then completed a demographic questionnaire (see Appendix A), the MLQ, and then the JSS. The combined survey included five demographic questions, 36 Likert-type MLQ items, and 24 Likert-type JSS items. The surveys could be completed within 30 minutes.

Research data were collected from February 2020 to April 2020. A total of 603 ABE teachers out of a total population of 3,125 in the United States' Western region were asked to complete the surveys. A total of 188 ABE teachers started the surveys before the data cleaning process. Two participants did not meet eligibility when they answered "no" on the informed consent page and were removed from the sample. Nine participants were removed due to the ABE teachers' organizational level, as processed through the MLQ instrument. A total of 36 participants did not complete the surveys entirely. Four participants were removed due to being identified as outliers, as they did not fit the data set pattern. The final data set yielded a sample size of $N = 137$, for a response rate of 22.7%. It is not uncommon for email invitation surveys to have a generally lower response rate compared to other survey methods (Shih & Fan, 2009).

I downloaded the raw SurveyMonkey data to a personal computer as an Excel spreadsheet. The personal computer used to store and analyze the data was password protected. The information was transferred into the 24th edition of the Statistical Package

for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software. Data were analyzed, including the descriptive and inferential statistics using the SPSS software described in the chapter's results section.

Results

Baseline Descriptive Statistics

Participants under the first section of the survey were asked five demographic questions designed to obtain a more comprehensive picture of the study population:

- What is your gender?
- What is your age?
- How many years of service do you have in teaching?
- What is your highest degree or level of school completed?
- Choose specific setting that best describes their school type as an adult basic education teacher.

As illustrated in Table 2, of the 137 participants, 24 (17.5%) self-identify as male, and 113 (82.5%) self-identify as female. As illustrated in Table 3, the respondents' median age was 53 years old (range of 25 to 75-years-old). As illustrated in Table 4, the mean number of years of education experience was 15.7 years (range of 1 to 48 years). As illustrated in Table 5, of the total number of participants, 1 (.7%) identified having some college credit, no degree; 2 (1.5%) identified having an Associate Degree; 47 (34.3%) identified having a Bachelor's Degree; 72 (52.6%) identified as having a Master's Degree; 8 (5.8%) identified as having a Professional Degree, and 7 (5.1%)

having a Doctorate Degree. As illustrated in Table 6, of the participants, 85 (62%) identified community college as school type; 36 (26.3%) identified local education agency, and 16 (11.7%) identified as "other."

Table 2

Frequencies and Percentages of Participants' Gender Data

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	24	17.5
Female	113	82.5
Total	137	100.0

Table 3

Age Demographic (N = 137)

Age in Years	
Mean +/- SD	51.2 +/- 11.8
Min-Max	25.0 – 75.0
Median	53

Table 4

Years of Experience in Education (N = 137)

Years in Service	
Mean +/- SD	15.7 +/- 11.1
Min-Max	1.0 – 48.0
Median	14

Table 5

Frequencies and Percentages of Participants' Highest Degree or Level of School Completed Data

Educational Level	Frequency	Percent
Some college credit, no degree	1	0.7
Trade/technical/vocational	0	0
Associate Degree	2	1.5
Bachelor's Degree	47	34.3
Master's Degree	72	52.6
Professional Degree	8	5.8
Doctorate Degree	7	5.1
Total	137	100.0

Table 6

Frequencies and Percentages of Type of Setting of Current Work

Setting	Frequency	Percent
Community college	85	62.0
Local education agency	36	26.3
Other	16	11.7
Total	137	100.0

Descriptive Statistics for MLQ Items

The MLQ rater form (Bass & Avolio, 2004) allowed participants to rate their leaders' leadership behavior. Precisely, the MLQ measures three leadership styles that include transformational leadership behaviors, transactional leadership behaviors, and

laissez-faire leadership behaviors. Satisfaction, effectiveness, and extra effort subscales, as assessed by the MLQ, were removed from the study as they are considered leadership outcomes. Table 7 provides descriptive statistics for ABE teachers' self-perception of their leaders' leadership style

Table 7

ABE Teachers' Ratings of Their Leaders' Leadership Styles (N = 137)

Leadership Styles	Mean	Std. Deviation
Transformational Leadership Style		
Idealized Influence (Attribute)	3.09	0.85
Idealized Influence (Behaviors)	2.96	0.84
Inspirational Motivation	3.14	0.85
Intellectual Stimulation	2.74	0.87
Individual Consideration	2.68	0.85
Transactional Leadership Style		
Contingent Reward	2.88	0.90
Management-by-Exception (Active)	1.40	0.84
Management-by-Exception (Passive)	0.93	0.82
Laissez-Faire Leadership Style		
Laissez-Faire	0.56	0.75

Note: Calculation of averages by scale. MLQ scale scoring: 0.0 to 1.0 = minimally to never; 1.0 to 2.0 = once in a while to sometimes; 2.0 to 3.0 = sometimes to fairly often; 3.0 to 4.0 = fairly often to frequently, if not always.

Higher mean scores for each leadership scale indicated more of a tendency for ABE leaders to practice that specific leadership style. Regarding the three scales of leadership style, the transformational leadership style had the highest mean (*M* =

2.92, *SD* = 0.85), followed by the transactional leadership style (*M* = 1.74, *SD* = 0.85), then by laissez-faire leadership style (*M* = 0.56, *SD* = 0.75). The results demonstrated that ABE leaders exhibit the three different types of leadership styles to varying degrees.

Descriptive Statistics for JSS Items

The JSS (Spector, 1997), a nine-facet scale, allowed ABE teachers to assess their attitudes about his/her job and aspects of the position. The JSS scoring items are grouped into nine facets. These facets are pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication. Pay, promotion, and fringe benefits were removed from the study as they do not apply to ABE teachers' overall job satisfaction specific to this study. The scores were rated marginally high on average, with averages ranging from 16.99 to 22.63, indicating that teachers were highly satisfied. ABE teachers reported higher satisfaction with nature of work variable, followed by coworkers and supervision, while the lowest facet satisfaction score was operating conditions. Table 8 shows the descriptive statistics of ABE teacher's overall job satisfaction.

Table 8

ABE Teachers' Rating of Their Overall Job Satisfaction (N = 137)

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Supervision	21.67	3.89
Contingent Reward	18.83	4.88
Operating Conditions	16.99	4.41
Coworkers	21.58	2.79
Nature of Work	22.63	2.07
Communication	18.66	4.50

Note: Job Satisfaction Summated Scale Scoring: 4 to 11= dissatisfied, 12 to 15.99 = ambivalent, 16 to 24 = satisfied.

Research Question 1 Analysis Results

RQ1: To what extent is adult basic education teachers' perceived leadership style of their leader (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire), as measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ; Avolio & Bass, 2004), related to teachers' self-perceived level of job satisfaction as measured by the six facets of job satisfaction (supervision, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication)?

$H_0$1: There is no significant relationship between adult basic education teachers' perceived leadership styles of their leader and the teachers' self-perceived level of job satisfaction.

H_a1: There is a significant relationship between adult basic education teachers' perceived leadership styles of their leader and the teachers' self-perceived level of job satisfaction.

Before conducting the analysis, statistical assumptions were evaluated. Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, and Tatham (1998) outline statistical assumptions for canonical correlation: adequate sample size, multivariate normality, linearity, and multicollinearity. Guidelines suggested that a minimum of 10 cases per variable is required to justify a sufficient sample size to not obscure meaningful relationships between the variable sets to generate a robust model. This study had a total of nine variables used, requiring 90 total case samples. The total sample size for this study was $N = 137$, meaning that this assumption was met.

Multivariate normality was assessed between MLQ leadership styles and each JSS subscale through graphical and statistical methods for evaluating normality. Hair et al. (1998) explained that the canonical correlation analysis can still be performed when there is a moderate violation of the assumption of normality. The graphical methods included the histogram and normality probability plots to identify substantive deviation from normality. Visual inspection of the histogram and normality probability plots showed some of the data were not normally distributed, indicating the assumption of normality of the residuals may have been violated (see Appendices J, K, L, M, N, and O).

Statistical methods employed to test the normality of the data set included skewness and kurtosis and Mahalanobis distance to detect multivariate outliers. The

skewness and kurtosis statistics assessed the normality of the data (values acceptable ±1 to ±2). Results showed that most of the skewness and kurtosis values of all the variables were below an absolute value of 2.0, falling within an expectable normality range. However, some variables showed a non-normal distribution, indicating asymmetry and profusion of outliers (see Appendix P). Using Mahalanobis distance, four participants were identified as a multivariate outlier and removed from the data set. A Mahalanobis distance for each person was compared to Chi-square distribution. The degrees of freedom corresponded to the number of variables included in the Mahalanobis distance calculations.

The linearity assumption was checked whether a linear relationship exists between independent variables, and the dependent variable is linear. Visual examination of scatterplots determined no evidence of a curvilinear pattern between the variables. The relationship between the independent variables and dependent variables indicates linearity.

The absence of multicollinearity was assessed using VIF statistics. For the assumption to be met, a score below 10 is considered absent of multicollinearity or a high correlation between the independent variables. Analysis of collinearity statistics showed this assumption had been met, as VIF statistics did not exceed 10.

As shown in Table 9, a correlation matrix was used to examine the correlation coefficients between leadership styles and job satisfaction. The following summary

identified the significant associations between perceived leadership styles and job satisfaction:

- Transformational leadership style showed a strong positive correlation with supervision ($r = .79$, $p < .05$), contingent reward ($r = .71$, $p < .05$), and communication ($r = .68$, $p < .05$); a moderate positive correlation to coworkers ($r = .51$, $p < .05$) and nature of work ($r = .43$, $p < .05$), and a weak positive correlation to operating conditions ($r = .38$, $p < .05$);
- Transactional leadership showed a very weak negative correlation with operating conditions ($r = -.22$, $p < .05$) facet only; and
- Laissez-faire leadership showed a strong negative correlation with supervision ($r = -.68$, $p < .05$); moderate negative correlation to contingent reward ($r = -.55$, $p < .05$) communication ($r = -.52$, $p < .05$), and coworkers ($r = -.37$, $p < .05$), and negative weak correlation to operating conditions ($r = -.34$, $p < .05$), and very weak negative correlation to nature of work ($r = -.21$, $p < .05$).

Table 9

Correlation Matrix for Leadership Styles and Job Satisfaction Facets (N = 137)

Variable	SUP	CR	OC	CW	NOW	COM	TF	TA	LF
SUP	-								
CR	.71**	-							
OC	.44**	.52**	-						
CW	.58**	.64**	.46**	-					
NOW	.30**	.44**	.26**	.26**	-				
COM	.63**	.66**	.59**	.61**	.28**	-			
TF	.79**	.71**	.38**	.51**	.43**	.68**	-		
TA	-.10	-.10	-.22**	.00	-.06	-.07	.06	-	
LF	-.68**	-.55**	-.34**	-.37**	-.21**	-.52**	-.58**	.18*	-

Note: **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

SUP = Supervision; CR = Contingent Reward; CW = Coworkers; NOW = Nature of Work; COM = Communication; TF = Transformational; TA = Transactional; LF = Laissez-Faire

To examine the relationship between multiple independent and dependent variables, a canonical correlation analysis (CCA) was performed. The predictor variable set of leadership style included three variables (MLQ Transformational, MLQ Transactional, and MLQ Laissez-Faire) while the dependent variable set of job satisfaction included six variables (JSS Supervision, JSS Contingent Rewards, JSS Operating Procedures, JSS Coworkers, JSS Nature of Work, and JSS Communication). The CCA tested for correlations, not causality, based on the two variable sets.

As shown in Table 10, the analysis yielded three functions with squared canonical correlations (R_c^2) of .79, .07, and .04, respectively. The full model was statistically

significant (Wilks's λ = 0.188, F (18, 362.52) = 16.24, p < .001). Because Wilks's λ represents the variance unexplained by the model, 1 − λ yields the full model effect size in an r^2 metric. Thus, for the set of three canonical functions, the r^2 effect size was .90, which indicated the full model explained 90% of the variance shared between the variable sets. This indicated the null hypothesis of no relationship between leadership styles and job satisfaction was rejected.

Table 10

Eigenvalues and Canonical Correlations

Root No.	Eigenvalue	Canonical Correlations	Squared Correlations
1	3.77	.89	.79
2	.07	.26	.07
3	.04	.20	.04

The dimension reduction analysis, including the statistical significance for the three roots, is presented in Table 11. Root 1 to 3 (F (18, 362.52) = 16.24, p < .05), identified in Table 10 as a strong relationship, was statistically significant and accounted for (R_c^2 = .79) 79% of the shared variance between the two variable sets. Root 2 to 3 (F (10, 258) = 1.43, p >.05) was not statistically significant. Root 3 to 3 (F (4, 130) = 1.33, p > .05) was not statistically significant. For this analysis, Root 1 will be interpreted.

Table 11

Dimension Reduction Analysis

Roots	Wilks' λ	*F*	Hypoth.DF	Error DF	Sig.
1 to 2	.19	16.23	18.00	362.52	<.001
2 to 3	.90	1.43	10.00	258.00	.166
3 to 3	.96	1.33	4.00	130.00	.260

The CCA included interpreting the standardized canonical function coefficients and canonical structure coefficients to help determine how strongly each variable was weighted and contributed to a noteworthy correlation in the predictive analysis (Sherry & Henson, 2005). The unstandardized (raw) and standardized canonical function coefficients for the criterion variables (six facets of JSS) included in the CCA are presented in Tables 12 and 13, respectively.

Table 12

Raw Canonical Correlations for Criterion (Dependent) Variables

Variable	Root 1	Root 2	Root 3
Supervision	-.17	.10	.19
Contingent Reward	-.04	.00	-.03
Operating Conditions	.02	.26	-.09
Coworker	.04	-.22	-.01
Nature of Work	-.07	-.14	-.41
Communication	-.07	-.11	-.00

Table 13

Standardized Canonical Coefficients for Criterion (Dependent) Variables

Variable	Root 1	Root 2	Root 3
Supervision	-.66	.37	.75
Contingent Reward	-.21	.01	-.14
Operating Conditions	.10	1.13	-.38
Coworker	.12	-.61	.02
Nature of Work	-.14	-.28	-.85
Communication	-.33	-.51	.01

As shown in Table 13, when interpreting the Function 1 coefficients, for example, the standardized function coefficients for Root 1 showed that the supervision variable was weighted moderately (coefficient = -.66) in the predictive equation, with communication (coefficient = -.33), contingent reward (coefficient = -.21) and nature of work (coefficient = -.14) weighted to a much lesser degree. Functional coefficients show utility when it comes to predictive ability; however, they do not reflect the correlational analysis of the original variables with the canonical variate. Further, function coefficient weights might be distorted or in the presence of multicollinearity causing instability within the variable set. Due to function coefficients unreliability, structure coefficients (r_s) are more desirable and significant in interpreting canonical results (Sherry & Henson, 2005).

As shown in Table 14, the Root 1 structure coefficients indicated that supervision (r_s = -.94), contingent reward (r_s = -.83), and communication (r_s = -.79) are highly

correlated with the canonical variate. Coworker (r_s = -.57), operating conditions (r_s = -.47), and nature of the work (r_s = -.46) indicated a moderate correlation with the canonical variate.

Table 14

Correlations Between Criterion (Dependent) and Canonical Variables (Canonical Structure Coefficients)

Variable	Function 1	Function 2	Function 3
Supervision	-.94	.11	.21
Contingent Reward	-.83	.01	-.20
Operating Conditions	-.47	.63	-.36
Coworker	-.57	-.27	-.08
Nature of Work	-.46	-.18	-.79
Communication	-.79	-.01	-.10

The unstandardized (raw) and standardized canonical function coefficients for the predictor variables (MLQ leadership style scale scores) are presented in Tables 15 and 16, respectively. In analyzing the standardized coefficients for Root 1, the predictor variable, transformational scale score, positively contributed to the predictive equation for the defining canonical variate (coefficient = -.80). A negative standardized coefficient means there was an inverse relationship related to the other variables within the set. Laissez-Faire scale score (coefficient = .29) moderately contributed to the predictor canonical variate positively. The transactional scale score (coefficient = .11) contributed

the least to the predictor canonical variate and was relatively unimportant in defining the variate.

Table 15

Raw Canonical Coefficients for Predictor (Independent) Variable

Variable	Function 1	Function 2	Function 3
Transformational	-1.05	-.54	-1.14
Transactional	.25	-1.97	1.46
Laissez-Faire	.39	-.54	-1.56

Table 16

Standardized Canonical Coefficients for Predictor (Independent) Variable

Variable	Function 1	Function 2	Function 3
Transformational	-.80	-.42	-.87
Transactional	.11	-.83	.61
Laissez-Faire	.29	-.40	-1.17

The structure coefficients of the predictor variables are presented in Table 17. The Transformational scale score highly negatively correlated with the canonical variate or Root 1 (r_s = -.96). The Laissez-Faire scale score highly correlated with the canonical variate or Root 1 (r_s = .77) in a positive direction. The Transactional scale score marginally and positively correlated with the canonical variate or Root 1 (r_s = .11).

Table 17

Correlations Between Predictor (Independent) and Canonical Variables (Structure Coefficients)

Variable	Function 1	Function 2	Function 3
Transformational	-.96	-.24	-.16
Transactional	.11	-.93	.35
Laissez-Faire	.77	-.31	-.55

To better understand the CCA results, a series of six multiple regression analyses were performed, predicting each job satisfaction variable using all three leadership style variables. Before conducting the regression analysis, several assumptions were checked to move forward with the analysis: normality, homoscedasticity, linearity, independence of observations, and the absence of multicollinearity and influential outliers. Assumption of normality, homoscedasticity, linearity, and the absence of multicollinearity and outliers were checked during the CCA assumption testing. Results from the graphical and statistical testing indicated no curvilinear relationship and multicollinearity. Four cases were removed from the analysis due to being identified as influential outliers. The independence of observations was checked using the Durbin-Watson statistic. The results showed statistic values ranged between 1.7 to 2.0, indicating no autocorrelation detected in the sample.

The F values for each predictive model were statistically significant ($p < .001$) and are presented in Table 18.

Table 18

Criterion (Dependent) Variable Regression F-test (3, 133)

Variable	Sq. Mul. R	Adj. R-sq	Hypoth. MS	Error MS	*F*	Sig.
Supervision	.71	.70	484.72	4.57	106.08	<.001
Contingent Reward	.54	.53	585.61	11.18	52.40	<.001
Operating Conditions	.21	.19	184.84	15.71	11.76	<.001
Coworkers	.27	.25	95.78	5.81	16.46	<.001
Nature of Work	.19	.18	37.73	3.52	10.70	<.001
Communication	.49	.48	451.94	10.53	42.91	<.001

Tables 19-24 provide the unstandardized regression weights (B), Beta values, standard errors, t-tests, and probabilities for each leadership style to help predict measures of job satisfaction.

Table 19 showed that the first regression analysis was statistically significant, $F(3, 133) = 106.08$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .70$, indicating the model was a good predictor of the outcome. The regression analysis also revealed that 70% of the total variance can be explained by the predictor variables. Transformational leadership ($\beta = .62$, $t = 10.51$, $p < .001$) and laissez-faire leadership ($\beta = -.30$, $t = -5.08$, $p < .001$) are significant. The variable of transformational leadership, as indexed by its β value of .62, was shown to have the strongest relationship to supervision.

Table 19

Regression Analysis Predicting Supervision

Covariate	Unstandardized Coefficients (B)	Coefficients Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients (β)	*t*	Sig.
(Constant)	14.70	1.13		13.00	<.001
Transformational	3.17	.30	.62	10.51	<.001
Transactional	-.80	.45	-.09	-1.77	.079
Laissez-Faire	-1.59	.31	-.30	-5.08	<.001

Table 20 showed the second regression analysis was statistically significant, F (3, 133) = 52.40, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .54$, showing the model was a good predictor of the outcome. The regression analysis also revealed that 54% of the total variance can be explained by the predictor variables. Transformational leadership (β = .62, t =8.43, $p < .001$) was the only variable significant to the variable contingent reward.

Table 20

Regression Analysis Predicting Contingent Reward

Covariate	Unstandardized Coefficients (B)	Coefficients Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients (β)	*t*	Sig.
(Constant)	9.92	1.77		5.61	<.001
Transformational	3.98	.47	.62	8.43	<.001
Transactional	-1.20	.71	-.10	-1.71	.090
Laissez-Faire	-1.10	.49	-.18	-2.24	.027

Table 21 represents the statistically significant values that emerged from the third regression analysis, F (3, 133) = 11.76, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .21$, indicating the model was a good predictor of the outcome. The regression analysis also revealed that 21% of the total variance can be explained by the predictor variables. Transformational leadership (β = .33, t =3.43, $p < .001$) was the only variable significant to the variable operating conditions.

Table 21

Regression Analysis Predicting Operating Conditions

Covariate	Unstandardized Coefficients (B)	Coefficients Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients (β)	*t*	Sig.
(Constant)	15.87	1.97		8.09	<.001
Transformational	1.92	.56	.33	3.43	<.001
Transactional	-2.34	.84	-.22	-2.79	.006
Laissez-Faire	-.62	.58	-.11	-1.07	.288

The fourth regression analysis revealed statistical significance, F (3, 133) = 16.46, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .27$, showing the model was a good predictor of the outcome. The regression analysis also revealed 27% of the total variance can be explained by the predictor variables. Transformational leadership (β = .45, t = 4.88, p <.001) was the only variable significant to the variable coworkers (see Table 22).

Table 22

Regression Analysis Predicting Coworkers

Covariate	Unstandardized Coefficients (B)	Coefficients Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients (β)	*t*	Sig.
(Constant)	17.03	1.28		13.34	<.001
Transformational	1.66	.34	.45	4.88	<.001
Transactional	-.05	.51	-.01	-.10	.924
Laissez-Faire	-.39	.35	-.10	-1.11	.271

As shown in Table 23, the fifth regression analysis was statistically significant, F (3, 133) = 10.70, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .19$, indicating the model was a good predictor of the outcome. The regression analysis also revealed 19% of the total variance can be explained by the predictor variables. Transformational leadership (β = .48, $t = 4.95$, $p <$ .001) was significant to the variable nature of work.

Table 23

Regression Analysis Predicting Nature of Work

Covariate	Unstandardized Coefficients (B)	Coefficients Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients (β)	*t*	Sig.
(Constant)	19.54	.99		19.67	<.001
Transformational	1.31	.27	.48	4.95	<.000
Transactional	-.51	.40	-.10	-1.27	.206
Laissez-Faire	.23	.27	.08	.08	.397

The sixth regression analysis was statistically significant, F (3, 133) = 42.91, $p <$ .001, $R^2 = .49$, and the model was a good predictor of the outcome. The regression analysis also revealed that 49% of the total variance can be explained by the predictor

variables. Transformational leadership (β = .58, t = 7.52, p < .001) was the only variable significant to the variable communication. These results are reflected in Table 24.

Table 24

Regression Analysis Predicting Communication

Covariate	Unstandardized Coefficients (B)	Coefficients Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients (β)	*t*	Sig.
(Constant)	10.58	1.71		6.15	<.000
Transformational	3.45	.46	.58	7.52	<.000
Transactional	-.79	.69	-.07	-1.15	.252
Laissez-Faire	-.1.05	.47	-.17	-2.21	.029

Research Question 2 Analysis Results

RQ2: To what extent is there a relationship between ABE teachers' perceived leadership style of their leader and the teachers' self-perceived level of job satisfaction after controlling for the effects of ABE teacher demographic characteristics?

$H_0$2: After controlling demographic variables (age, gender, years of service, and highest degree), there was no significant relationship between ABE teachers' perceived leadership styles of their leader and the teachers' self-perceived level of job satisfaction.

H_a2: After controlling demographic variables (age, gender, years of service, and highest degree), there was a significant relationship between ABE teachers' perceived leadership styles of their leader and the teachers' self-perceived level of job satisfaction.

Six separate multiple linear regression analyses were performed to determine the effect of leadership styles on job satisfaction while controlling for gender, age, educational level, and years of experience. The regression analysis enabled the use of

control variables to consider the confounding effect the variables may have on the bivariate relationship (Frankfort-Nachmias & Leon-Guerrero, 2015). Reexamining the relationship between ABE teachers' perceived leadership style of their leader and the teachers' self-perceived level of job satisfaction by introducing "control variables" will help explain any theoretical or empirical evidence on the cause-and-effect relationship between leadership styles and job satisfaction among ABE teachers.

To make the multiple regression results interpretable, the categorical variable, "educational level," was dummy coded to create five dichotomous variables contrasting the reference group, "Some college credit, no degree," with each level of education (associate degree, bachelor degree, master's degree, professional degree, and doctorate degree). The education level categorized as trade/technical/vocational was removed from the procedure due to no sample unit. The demographic variable, "gender," was entered into the regression model as a metric variable (Rao & Scott, 1992), while AGE and "years of experience" were entered as continuous variables.

Thus, "Some college credit, no degree" was selected as the reference group and assigned a 0. After having identified the reference group, "associate degree," "bachelor's degree," "master's degree," "professional degree," and "doctorate degree" were created as the new dummy variables, and each was assigned a 1. Sequential multiple regression analyses were performed to test the influence of demographic variables on the relationship between specific leadership styles and job satisfaction measures. The beta regression coefficient was used to assess the direction and strength of the relationship

between each leadership style and the six facets of job satisfaction after entering and adjusting for the control variables. Thus, the greater the magnitude (positive or negative) of the beta weight, the greater the effect each predictor variable has on the outcome variable.

When entering supervision as the dependent variable, independent variables, and control variables in the regression, the results of the regression indicated the model explained 78% of the variance and the model was a significant predictor of supervision, $F(11, 125) = 30.27$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .73$. As shown in Table 25, there were two predictor variables that made a significant contribution to the prediction of supervision factor – laissez-faire leadership ($\beta = -.33$, $t = -5.24$, $p < .000$) and transformational Leadership ($\beta = .62$, $t = 10.29$, $p < .000$). Transformational and laissez-faire leadership styles were related to the supervision factor, when controlling for demographic variables, with transformational leadership showing a strong positive relationship to supervision; whereas, laissez-faire leadership showed an inverse relationship.

Table 25

Regression Analysis Predicting Supervision

Covariate	Unstandardized Coefficients (B)	Coefficients Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients (β)	*t*	Sig.
(Constant)	15.76	2.88		5.48	<.001
Gender	-.13	.51	-.01	-.25	.800
Age	.02	.02	.07	1.18	.241
Years of Experience	-.06	.02	-.17	-2.73	.007
Associate Degree	-.32	2.61	-.01	-.12	.902
Bachelor's Degree	-1.44	2.16	-.18	-.67	.507
Master's Degree	-1.17	2.16	-.15	-.54	.589
Professional Degree	-1.37	2.28	-.08	-.60	.549
Doctorate Degree	-1.91	2.30	-.11	-.83	.409
Transformational	3.16	.31	.62	10.29	<.001
Transactional	-.62	.47	-.07	-1.32	.188
Laissez-Faire	-1.70	.33	-.33	-5.24	<.001

In using contingent reward of job satisfaction as the dependent variable, the results of the regression accounted for 59% of the variability, as indexed by the R^2 statistic. The analysis was found to be statistically significant, F (11, 125) = 16.55, p < .001, R^2 = .59. There was only one predictor variable that made a significant effect to the contingent reward factor - transformational leadership (β = .62, t = 8.47, p < .001). The variable transformational leadership was shown to have a strong positive relationship with the contingent reward factor (see Table 26).

Table 26

Regression Analysis Predicting Contingent Reward

Covariate	Unstandardized Coefficients (B)	Coefficients Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients (β)	*t*	Sig.
(Constant)	12.07	4.40		2.74	.007
Gender	-1.07	.78	-.08	-1.37	.172
Age	.07	.03	.18	2.49	.014
Years of Experience	-.00	.03	-.01	-.09	.932
Associate Degree	-1.65	3.99	-.04	-.41	.680
Bachelor's Degree	-3.72	3.31	-.36	-1.12	.264
Master's Degree	-3.23	3.31	-.33	-.97	.332
Professional Degree	-4.89	3.48	-.24	-1.40	.163
Doctorate Degree	-2.57	3.53	-.12	-.73	.468
Transformational	3.99	.47	.62	8.47	<.001
Transactional	-1.64	.71	-.14	-2.29	.023
Laissez-Faire	-.83	.50	-.13	-1.66	.099

When utilizing operating conditions as the dependent variable, the predictors accounted for 23% of the variability, as indexed by the R^2 statistic. The regression was significant, F (11, 125) = 3.42, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .23$. Table 27 showed that no predictor variables were significant to the variable operating conditions.

Table 27

Regression Analysis Predicting Operating Conditions

Covariate	Unstandardized Coefficients (B)	Coefficients Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients (β)	*t*	Sig.
(Constant)	20.97	5.47		3.84	<.001
Gender	.11	96	.01	.16	.908
Age	.01	.04	.02	.20	.845
Years of Experience	.02	.04	.06	.60	.550
Associate Degree	-3.14	4.95	-.09	-.63	.528
Bachelor's Degree	-5.72	4.11	-.62	-1.39	.166
Master's Degree	-5.46	4.11	-.62	-1.33	.187
Professional Degree	-5.81	4.32	-.31	-1.35	.181
Doctorate Degree	-5.82	4.38	-.29	-1.33	.186
Transformational	1.75	.59	.30	2.99	.003
Transactional	-2.37	.89	-.23	-2.67	.009
Laissez-Faire	-.71	.62	-.12	-1.15	.251

In utilizing coworkers as the dependent variable, the predictors accounted for 39% of the variability and the overall regression was statistically significant, F (11, 125) = 4.76, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .30$). Only transformational leadership was a significant predictor of coworker factor ($\beta = .45$, $t = 4.63$, $p < .001$). As indexed by its b value of .45, the variable transformational leadership was shown to have a moderate positive relationship to the coworker factor (see Table 28).

Table 28

Regression Analysis Predicting Coworkers

Covariate	Unstandardized Coefficients (B)	Coefficients Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients (β)	*t*	Sig.
(Constant)	18.15	3.32		5.47	<.001
Gender	-.33	.59	-.05	-.56	.578
Age	.03	.02	.13	1.35	.180
Years of Experience	-.02	.03	-.07	-.69	.495
Associate Degree	-1.02	3.00	-.04	-.34	.734
Bachelor's Degree	-1.68	2.49	-.29	-.67	.502
Master's Degree	-1.52	2.49	-.27	-.61	.542
Professional Degree	-2.11	2.62	-.18	-.80	.423
Doctorate Degree	-2.54	2.66	-.20	-.95	.342
Transformational	1.64	.35	.45	4.63	<.001
Transactional	-.09	.54	-.01	-.16	.871
Laissez-Faire	-.40	.38	-.11	-1.06	.292

When entering the nature of work as the dependent variable, the predictors accounted for 23% of the variability when using the R^2 statistic. The overall model was significant, F (11 ,125) = 3.45, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .23$. The result indicated that only transformational leadership ($\beta = .46$, $t = 4.56$, $p < .001$) was a significant predictor of the nature of work factor (see Table 29), and with a β value of .46, is shown to have a strong positive relationship to nature of work factor.

Table 29

Regression Analysis Predicting Nature of Work

Covariate	Unstandardized Coefficients (B)	Coefficients Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients (β)	*t*	Sig.
(Constant)	20.11	2.56		7.85	<.001
Gender	.26	.45	.05	.56	.574
Age	-.01	.02	-.04	-.42	.676
Years of Experience	.02	.02	.12	1.22	.227
Associate Degree	.35	2.32	.02	.15	.882
Bachelor's Degree	-.28	1.93	-.07	-.15	.884
Master's Degree	-1.12	1.93	-.27	-.58	.564
Professional Degree	-.67	2.03	-.08	-.33	.741
Doctorate Degree	-.93	2.05	-.10	-.45	.651
Transformational	1.25	.27	.46	4.56	<.001
Transactional	-.53	.42	-.11	-1.28	.203
Laissez-Faire	.18	.29	.06	.061	.545

When entering communication as the dependent variable, there was a 52% variability when the predictor variables were added. The regression was significant, $F(11, 125) = 12.33$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .52$. The variable transformational leadership ($\beta = .56$, $t = 7.09$, $p < .001$) was the only predictor variable significant to the variable communication (Table 30).

Table 30

Regression Analysis Predicting Communication

Covariate	Unstandardized Coefficients (B)	Coefficients Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients (β)	*t*	Sig.
(Constant)	13.34	4.41		3.03	.003
Gender	-.46	.78	-.04	-.60	.552
Age	.01	.03	.02	.31	.757
Years of Experience	.03	.03	.08	1.02	.310
Associate Degree	-.51	3.99	-.01	-.13	.899
Bachelor's Degree	-2.69	3.31	-.29	-.81	.419
Master's Degree	-2.01	3.31	-.22	-.61	.546
Professional Degree	-2.47	3.49	-.13	-.71	.481
Doctorate Degree	-3.81	3.53	-.19	-1.08	.282
Transformational	3.34	.47	.56	7.09	<.001
Transactional	-.95	.71	-.09	-1.33	.185
Laissez-Faire	-1.04	.50	-.17	-2.09	.039

The relationships found in the previous multiple regression analyses remained unchanged when adding the demographic variables to the predictive equation. The analyses indicated the null hypothesis would be rejected in favor of the alternative hypothesis. There was sufficient evidence to infer that leadership styles influence the degree of job satisfaction among ABE teachers when controlling for demographic variables. Tables 31-36 show the comparison of beta weights, t-values, and p-values between leadership styles and each job satisfaction facet when adding demographic variables. In this analysis, the demographic variables included age, gender, educational level, and years of experience.

Table 31

Summary Comparing MLQ Leadership Styles to JSS Supervision

Variable	Standardized Coefficients (β)	*t*	Sig.
Set 1			
Transformational Leadership	.62	10.51	<.001
Transactional Leadership	-.09	-1.77	.086
Laissez-Faire Leadership	-.30	-5.08	<.001
Set 2			
Transformational Leadership	.62	10.29	<.001
Transactional Leadership	-.07	-1.32	.188
Laissez-Faire Leadership	-.33	-5.24	<.001

Note: Set 2 analyses with demographic variables

Table 32

Summary Comparing MLQ Leadership Styles to JSS Contingent Reward

Variable	Standardized Coefficients (β)	*t*	Sig.
Set 1			
Transformational Leadership	.62	8.43	<.001
Transactional Leadership	-.10	-1.71	.090
Laissez-Faire Leadership	-.17	-2.24	.027
Set 2			
Transformational Leadership	.62	8.47	<.001
Transactional Leadership	-.14	-2.29	.023
Laissez-Faire Leadership	-.13	-1.66	.099

Note: Set 2 analyses with demographic variables

Table 33

Summary Comparing MLQ Leadership Styles to JSS Operating Conditions

Variable	Standardized Coefficients (β)	*t*	Sig.
Set 1			
Transformational Leadership	.33	3.43	<.001
Transactional Leadership	-.22	-2.79	.006
Laissez-Faire Leadership	-.11	-1.07	.288
Set 2			
Transformational Leadership	.30	2.99	.003
Transactional Leadership	-.23	-2.67	.009
Laissez-Faire Leadership	-.12	-1.15	.251

Note: Set 2 analyses with demographic variables

Table 34

Summary Comparing MLQ Leadership Styles to JSS Coworkers

Variable	Standardized Coefficients (β)	*t*	*Sig.*
Set 1			
Transformational Leadership	.45	4.88	<.001
Transactional Leadership	.01	.10	.924
Laissez-Faire Leadership	-.10	-1.11	.271
Set 2			
Transformational Leadership	.45	4.63	<.001
Transactional Leadership	-.01	-.16	.871
Laissez-Faire Leadership	-.11	-1.06	.292

Note: Set 2 analyses with demographic variables

Table 35

Summary Comparing MLQ Leadership Styles to JSS Nature of Work

Variable	Standardized Coefficients (β)	*t*	Sig.
Set 1			
Transformational Leadership	.48	4.95	<.001
Transactional Leadership	-.10	-1.27	.206
Laissez-Faire Leadership	-.08	.85	.397
Set 2			
Transformational Leadership	.46	4.56	<.001
Transactional Leadership	-.11	-1.28	.203
Laissez-Faire Leadership	.06	.61	.545

Note: Set 2 analyses with demographic variables

Table 36

Summary Comparing MLQ Leadership Styles to JSS Communication

Variable	Standardized Coefficients (β)	*t*	*Sig.*
Set 1			
Transformational Leadership	.58	7.52	<.001
Transactional Leadership	-.07	-1.15	.252
Laissez-Faire Leadership	-.17	-2.21	.029
Set 2			
Transformational Leadership	.56	7.09	<.001
Transactional Leadership	-.09	-1.33	.185
Laissez-Faire Leadership	-.17	-2.09	.039

Note: Set 2 analyses with demographic variables

Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to examine the relationship between leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) of ABE leaders (program director, program supervisor, development manager, coordinator, or master teacher) and

ABE teacher job satisfaction (supervision, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication). Through a quantitative design, the hypothesis of the study was tested through a variety of statistical analyses. The CCA and regression analysis used to analyze the first research question indicated the null hypothesis was rejected; thus, the results showed statistically significant relationships between leadership style and job satisfaction.

Similarly, regarding the second research question, the multiple regression analyses performed indicated statistical significance between ABE teachers' perceptions of ABE leadership styles and job satisfaction scores when controlling for demographic variables; thus, the null hypothesis of this research question was rejected. The next chapter will include interpreting the findings compared to the existing literature on the topic, limitations of the study, recommendations, and implications.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

This study examined the relationship between leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) of ABE leaders (program director, program supervisor, development manager, coordinator, or master teacher) and ABE teacher job satisfaction (supervision, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication). The objective was to identify which leadership style is most effective in predicting measures of teacher job satisfaction. In this chapter, I discuss the findings, limitations, and recommendations for practice and future research in adult education.

Transformational leadership theory (Bass & Riggio, 2006) was used for this study's theoretical framework. Burns' (1978) conceptualized transformational leadership as leaders who inspire, support and collaborate with followers to advance motivation and moral positions. Bass (1985) and Leithwood (1994) extended the theory to explain how school leaders' transformational leadership behaviors and activities influence organizational performance. The transactional leadership style is focused on the contractual exchange between the leader and follower for increased productivity. Laissez-faire leadership is described as nonleadership, meaning the leader fails to make decisions and choices for the organization's betterment and offers rewards to followers (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

Leadership style, as measured through the administration of the MLQ, was used in this study. I used the MLQ-5X rater form, a validated measurement tool of the three

distinct leadership styles (Bass & Avolio, 2004; Bass & Riggio, 2006). Transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles were the independent variables. Job satisfaction, as measured through the administration of the JSS, as developed by Spector (1985, 1997), was used in this study. Supervision, contingent reward, operating conditions, coworkers, nature of work, and communication were the dependent variables.

A quantitative methodology was used to analyze data collected from 137 ABE teachers from the Western region of the United States. Most of the participants were female (82.5%) with a master's degree (52.6%) median age of 53-years-old (range of 25 to 75-years-old) and mean of 15.7 years of experience who are currently employed in community colleges (62%). The primary goal of this quantitative study was to (a) identify and explain what specific leadership style in the form of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire influences ABE teachers job satisfaction, and to (b) examine if controlling for ABE teachers' demographic characteristics had any impact on the relationship between leadership styles and job satisfaction.

The CCA study results were found to be statistically significant, with a high degree of correlation between the variables of job satisfaction and leadership style. It was found that lower transformational leadership scores are related to lower job satisfaction scores. Also, the findings showed that higher laissez-faire scores associated with lowering job satisfaction scores. Transactional leadership was relatively unrelated to job satisfaction scores. Subsequent regression analyses identified a statistically significant relationship between transformational leadership style and higher perceptions of job

satisfaction. There was a statistically significant relationship between laissez-faire and lower perception of job satisfaction. Additionally, it was found that transactional leadership showed a negative relation with the operating procedures of job satisfaction facet. When controlling for demographic variables, the relationships remained unaffected, indicating that demographic variables did not positively or negatively influence the relationship between leadership styles and job satisfaction.

Interpretation of Findings

Descriptive Statistics of MLQ and JSS Items

The quantitative results reveal that ABE teachers (N = 137) rated their leaders as being more transformational (M = 2.92, SD = 0.85) in their leadership style compared to transactional (M = 1.74, SD = 0.85) and laissez-faire (M = 0.56, SD = 0.75). Leadership scale scores have a range possibility of 0 (*not at all*) to 4 (*frequently, if not always*). The breakdown of each leadership style subfactors is provided. As shown in Table 7, ABE teachers perceived that their leaders show relatively high transformational leadership behaviors consistent to inspirational motivation (M = 3.14, SD = 0.85) and idealized influence (attribute) (M = 3.09, SD = 0.85). ABE teachers rated their leader relatively lower on transformational leadership behaviors consistent with idealized influence (behaviors; M = 2.96, SD = 0.84), intellectual stimulation (M = 2.74, SD = 0.87), and individual consideration (M = 2.68, SD = 0.85). ABE teachers suggested that transactional leadership behavior of contingent reward (M = 2.88, SD = 0.90) is prominent. These findings are consistent with the literature to where transformational

leaders are described as being more respected, ethically sound, visionaries, lead with purpose, creative, and use these methods to transform the culture and climate (see Bass & Avolio, 2004; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Leithwood, 1992). Bass (1985) explained that transformational and transactional leadership styles complement each other, not dichotomous, which could explain why transactional leadership behavior contingent reward was relatively high in this study and consistent with transformational leadership behavior scores.

ABE teachers perceived their leader as less transactional, specifically related to management-by-exception (active) (M = 1.40, SD = 0.84), management-by-exception (passive) (M = 0.93, SD = 0.82), and laissez-faire (M = 0.56, SD = 0.75). These results confirm laissez-faire and management-by-exception constructs are less used in ABE settings, indicating ABE leaders are using some form of effective leadership behaviors in practice. A leader who exhibits laissez-faire and management-by-exception behaviors have minimal interaction with their employees, fail to intervene, or will monitor problems and take corrective action when mistakes surface (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

As presented in Table 8, ABE teachers' overall rating of their job satisfaction was highly satisfied. The results indicated that ABE teachers' rated nature of work (M = 22.63, SD = 2.07), supervision (M = 21.67, SD = 3.89), and coworkers (M = 21.58, SD = 2.79) are highly satisfied in in these facets of job satisfaction. ABE teachers rated contingent reward (M = 18.83, SD = 4.88), communication (M = 18.66, SD = 4.50), and operating conditions (M = 16.99, SD = 4.41) as less satisfied facets of job satisfaction.

Research Question 1 Discussion of Findings

RQ1: To what extent is adult basic education teachers' perceived leadership style of their leader (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire), as measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ; Avolio & Bass, 2004), related to teachers' self-perceived level of job satisfaction, as measured by the six facets of job satisfaction (supervision, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication).

A correlation matrix was used to describe the strength and direction of the linear relationships among leadership styles and job satisfaction, as presented in Table 9. The findings revealed transformational leadership was statistically significantly and positively correlated to all job satisfaction facets. Transactional leadership is only statistically significant and negatively correlated to the job satisfaction facet of operating conditions. Findings show laissez-faire leadership is only statistically significant and negatively correlated to the job satisfaction facet of supervision. The data confirmed ABE teachers prefer leadership styles relative to transformational leadership.

To assess the strength of the relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction, a CCA revealed one statistically significant ($p < .001$) canonical root ($R_c^2 = .79$) showing a high degree of correlation between the two variable sets. Considering the three leadership styles, the canonical variate is highly negatively (-.96) correlated with transformational leadership style and positively correlated (.77) with the laissez-faire style. Transformational leadership appears to be a potent correlate of the first canonical

variate, and it also correlates negatively with laissez-faire, which is borne out in the structure coefficient. Regarding the six measures of job satisfaction, supervision is highly negatively (-.94) correlated with the canonical variate. It can be reasoned the canonical variate shares the most commonality with transformational leadership and supervision.

However, this finding is not surprising, given the significant univariate relationships between transformational leadership and various job satisfaction facets. Since transformational leadership and supervision were negatively correlated with the canonical variate, it suggests that ABE teachers who are low on the transformational leadership scale are also low on the supervision scale. The converse also is true, in that higher scores on transformational leadership would relate to higher scores on supervision. Also, higher laissez-faire scores are linked to lower job satisfaction. Transactional leadership had an expected near-zero structure coefficient for its relationship to the canonical variate, suggesting this specific leadership style had minimal to no effect on ABE teachers' job satisfaction.

A series of multiple regression analyses were performed since there was a statistically significant ($p < .001$) multivariate relationship between ABE teachers' perceived leadership behavior and overall job satisfaction. The objective of this analysis was to predict each job satisfaction variable using all three leadership style variables. The results showed that the transformational leadership style is the most influential predictor variable of ABE teachers' job satisfaction.

The transformational leadership style is statistically significant and shows a positive relationship with the six job satisfaction facets measured in this study. A positive coefficient is found in each job satisfaction facet. This means that as the value of transformational leadership behaviors tends to increase, so do scores for each job satisfaction facet.

The laissez-faire leadership style was statistically significant and showed a negative relationship to supervision only. It is important to note that the regression coefficient showed a negative correlation with the job satisfaction facet of supervision. This indicates as laissez-faire tends to increase, the supervision facet tends to decrease.

These findings are consistent with other studies that confirmed a significant correlation between leadership styles and job satisfaction (see Amin et al., 2013; Barnett et al., 2005; Bogler, 2001; Braun et al., 2013; Griffith, 2004; Koh et al., 1995; Leithwood et al., 2008; Sayadi, 2016; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011). This study's results support the findings of Koh et al.'s (1995) and Nyenyembe et al.'s (2016) research that examined leadership styles and teacher job satisfaction. They found leaders who practiced transformational leadership behaviors were more satisfied with their jobs. Previous studies have determined transactional leadership style shows a relatively weak relationship with job satisfaction (Bogler, 2001; Koh et al., 1995; Nguni et al., 2006). However, the results suggest no relationship between transactional leadership style and job satisfaction. This study parallels previous studies (Hariri et al., 2016; Nyenyembe et

al., 2016; Sayadi, 2016) that laissez-faire leadership style indicated a negative relationship to teacher job satisfaction.

Research Question 2 Discussion of Findings

RQ2: To what extent is there a relationship between ABE teachers' perceived leadership style of their leader and the teachers' self-perceived level of job satisfaction after controlling for the effects of ABE teacher demographic characteristics?

Research question 2 examined if the relationships between leadership styles and job satisfaction, as reflected in research question 1, could be replicated when controlling for demographic variables. When entering demographic variables to each regression model, the results remained constant with the first series of regression analyses, except that transformational leadership shows no relationship to the job satisfaction facet of operating conditions. This concludes that demographic variables minimally influence the relationship between leadership styles and job satisfaction among ABE teachers. Contrary to previous research, this study suggested no relationship between the demographic variables to job satisfaction. However, it was found the demographic variables did influence the relationship between transformational leadership to the job satisfaction facet of operating conditions, suggesting that the demographic variables modulated the effect of the relationship.

Overall, this study's results contribute to the body of literature regarding how teachers, specifically ABE teachers, perceive leadership and job satisfaction in educational settings (Bogler, 2001; Nguni et al., 2006; Nyenyembe et al., 2016; Sayadi,

2106). The transformational leadership style had the strongest statistically significant interaction with job satisfaction among ABE teachers. This finding indicated leaders who are more inclined to deploy transformational leadership characteristics (compared to transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles) impact teachers' job satisfaction. As ABE settings continue to adjust to accountability standards, understanding the type of leadership style developed by the leader is critical in maintaining teacher satisfaction. The study provides a new element to the literature gap that leaders are balancing leadership styles and accountability systems that is positively impacting job satisfaction, specific to the population studied. The study also validates Bass' Transformational Leadership Theory in that leadership styles affect teacher job satisfaction. The study addresses a new path for future research, including more detailed studies on leadership styles and job satisfaction in educational settings.

Limitations of the Study

Several practical limitations are presented in this study's execution that may have influenced the study's outcome. First, the instruments' self-report nature may impact participants' ability to provide accurate and honest answers. ABE teachers' memory of their leader's leadership behaviors and emotional state may have affected survey responses. The MLQ and JSS questions and answer options may have been interpreted differently or were unclear to the participants.

Second, there was a technical difficulty administering the surveys—the first survey link sent to ABE teachers omitted one survey question. Consequently, an email

was drafted explaining the error, and a new survey link was created and readministered to the participants. However, this error may have resulted in survey fatigue leading to respondents to give less thoughtful answers or prematurely terminating participation.

Third, the recruitment methodology included the use of purposive sampling to secure specific sample characteristics. The sampling technique is inherently biased due to external validity threats. The outline explained in Chapter 3 was followed to control for bias results, such as clearly defined survey objectives and explicit judgments regarding the participants' selection criteria.

Fourth, the study was limited to ABE teachers who provided instructional services in local education agencies and community colleges and specific geographical areas. ABE services are provided in other contexts, such as correctional institutions and development centers. Consequently, excluding different ABE settings and geographic regions will affect the study's generalizability to other settings.

Fifth, although participation in the study was voluntary, anonymous, and confidential for participants, most of the respondents were female. The sample produced 83% female and 17% male participants. This result may pose a gender bias; therefore, decreasing the generalizability of the findings.

Lastly, a limitation of the study centered on the cross-sectional research design. The research variables were restricted to a specific timeline. Limiting variables from being measured multiple times over an extended period does not allow for examining leadership behaviors that may vary in time and influence job satisfaction. Thus, the

findings cannot conclude a causal relationship between the variables studied with a cross-sectional design.

Recommendations

The study was designed to test the Transformational Leadership Theory and the influence on teacher job satisfaction in ABE settings across the Western region of the United States, given how the accountability mandates may have impacted the relationship between these two constructs. Conceptually, in educational settings, transformational leaders have been shown to have an ability to balance accountability mandates and simultaneously abandon fixed mindsets to transform and strengthen organizational structures (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000; Marks & Printy, 2003; Nguni et al., 2006; Ross & Gray, 2006). Moreover, transformational leaders exhibit leadership qualities that inspire, motivate, intellectually stimulate, and nurture positively impact many domains within a work environment. These results supported the Transformational Leadership Theory by showing a positive impact of transformational leadership on job satisfaction. Laissez-faire leadership style negatively correlated job satisfaction, specifically, with the supervision facet of job satisfaction. ABE settings, therefore, should implement a practical leadership path to help program leaders develop transformational leadership competencies and behaviors. ABE leaders need to recognize if their leadership style is positively or negatively affecting the teachers' motivation, morale, job performance, and satisfaction.

The study was limited to specific settings and geographical areas. The study can be extended to other contexts, such as correctional institutions, development centers, and Job Corps. Expanding the research to these areas will help researchers better understand leadership styles and their impact on job satisfaction. Similar data collected in other settings and geographical regions may have different results than the present study.

Through a comprehensive literature review, many variables have been examined that affect job satisfaction and teacher retention rates, such as workplace conditions, pay and benefits, employment status (i.e., part-time vs. full-time), budgeting issues, perceived lower status in the field of education, and other external factors (Borman & Dowling, 2008; Clandinin et al., 2015; Kamrath & Gregg, 2018; Ingersoll, 2001, 2003). However, there is minimal evidence regarding ABE programs that have examined underlying factors specific to job satisfaction and turnover. Future studies should account for variables associated with job satisfaction, including those connected with ABE leaders' leadership styles. The study examined three distinct leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) from a broader perspective. Future research should look at each leadership style sub-factor from a broader lens to gain a deeper understanding of the relationship between leadership styles and job satisfaction.

Additional research is needed to examine the relationship between leadership and job satisfaction from a larger sample size representative of the whole field of Adult Education. Collecting data from larger sample size and producing the same results would increase the reliability of the study.

The teachers' demographics in this study focused solely on age, gender, years of experience, and educational level. Completing a study that expands to current employment status (i.e., full-time or part-time), current salary, etc. would be beneficial. Recommendations for future research could involve replicating this study using the same and/or different demographic variables, as mentioned in a different setting.

Finally, it would be beneficial to replicate the study using a different design. For example, using a qualitative approach in which ABE teachers could be interviewed to analyze themes central to perceptions of his/her leader and relation to job satisfaction. Another option is that the MLQ instrument has a leader self-rater form, where the ABE leader can assess themselves as leaders. ABE leaders can evaluate how frequently or to what degree they exhibit specific leadership style behaviors towards the teachers. Future research can examine similarities and differences in how ABE leaders and teachers perceive the practiced leadership style. Lastly, future research can explore leadership styles through a different theoretical base by using a different data collection instrument.

Implications

Many factors influence teacher job satisfaction, and understanding these factors is critical for teacher success. Satisfied teachers have been linked to more favorable outcomes, such as increased retention rates (Burkhauser, 2017; Leithwood et al., 2008; Skaalvik E. & Skaalvik S., 2011). Previous studies have cited the type of leadership style practiced is a contributing factor to teacher job satisfaction in traditional educational settings (Bogler, 2001; Griffith, 2004; Menon, 2014; Nguni et al., 2006; Nyenyembe et

al., 2016). There is a lack of research in ABE settings that have addressed high teacher turnover's underlying factors. The study addressed how leadership style affects job satisfaction as one such factor. Compliance with accountability standards has been a focal point for ABE leaders because ABE program funding is tied to demonstrable outcomes reported to each state's accountability reporting system (Cronen et al., 2015). These mandates have added pressure on ABE leaders and teachers with an already unstable infrastructure with most programs. ABE program leaders must find a balance between meeting the accountability standards and providing supportive leadership to ABE teachers (Belzer, 2003; Smith, 2009).

The results indicated a relationship between ABE teachers' perceptions of ABE leaders' leadership style and teacher job satisfaction. Therefore, from a leadership development standpoint, ABE programs should encourage the program director, program supervisor, development manager, coordinator, or master teacher to become aware of their leadership style and behaviors, given the correlation between leadership styles and teacher job satisfaction. ABE leadership should strive to exercise the leadership behaviors parallel to transformational leadership.

Based on the results, avoiding leadership behaviors consistent with laissez-faire is discouraged because of the negative relationship to teacher job satisfaction, especially related to the supervision facet. Supervisory support is a critical factor in job satisfaction to help teachers demonstrate the skills and knowledge to meet diverse student learning

profiles. ABE leaders need to recognize that supervision is an ongoing interactive process intended to develop and refine teacher instruction.

There are social implications from the study that could be positive. The study's findings provide critical information that leaders who demonstrate transformational leadership can positively impact teacher job satisfaction. Specific leadership behaviors must influence teachers' cognitive, emotional, and behavioral states to feel satisfied with their job. The evidence provided a warning for ABE program administrators to adopt leadership behaviors that have been shown to predict ABE teacher job satisfaction. Improving the quality of ABE teachers' work environment, where they feel valued and supported, can reduce teacher turnover.

Conclusion

The interplay between teacher job satisfaction and leadership style is dynamic and is defined by how the leader sets the climate and culture. Job satisfaction is fluid, so ABE leaders need to adapt to the needs of ABE teachers. Based on the study's results, it can be postulated with a specific leadership style that ABE teachers will better navigate and accept the challenges brought on by institutional changes and accountability standards. ABE leaders must assess and adjust their leadership style to fit the needs of the teachers and meet the needs of the organization. So, it is the leader's responsibility to identify and adjust a leadership approach to each circumstance to keep job satisfaction high.

The relationship between leadership styles and job satisfaction was confirmed in the study. The results were parallel to other literature that has examined the same

variables. As identified in the study, ABE teachers are happier and more satisfied when ABE leaders adopt transformational leadership behaviors. While the study examined the relationship between leadership and job satisfaction, as described above, a multitude of factors interfaces with job satisfaction. A minor adjustment, such as shaping leadership styles to job satisfaction, can enhance teacher retention.

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Appendix A: Demographic Details

Demographic Questionnaire

Please fill in the blank or place an X or check mark next to the word or phrase that best matches your response.

1. What is your age? _____

2. What is your gender?

   - ☐ Male
   - ☐ Female

3. How many years of service do you have in teaching? _____

4. What is your highest degree or level of school completed?

   - ☐ High school graduate, diploma or the equivalent
   - ☐ Some college credit, no degree
   - ☐ Trade/technical/vocational training
   - ☐ Associate degree
   - ☐ Bachelor's Degree
   - ☐ Master's Degree
   - ☐ Professional Degree
   - ☐ Doctorate Degree

5. Please choose the following that best describes the school type as an adult basic education teacher:

   - ☐ Community college
   - ☐ Local education agency: libraries, schools, churches, or similar settings
   - ☐ Other

Appendix B: Recruitment Letter

Dear ABE Administrator and/or Program Manager,

My name is Troy Nickel, and I am a doctoral student from Walden University. I am writing to invite you to have your teachers to participate in my research study titled "Teacher Perceptions of Leadership Styles and the Relationship to Job Satisfaction in Adult Basic Education Settings." The purpose of the study will examine ABE teacher perceptions concerning leadership styles, and how these leadership styles may, directly and indirectly, influence or shape teacher job satisfaction. I obtained your contact information from [describe source].

I am looking for teachers who provide instructional services in local agencies or community colleges; obtained the specific education requirements, such as bachelor's degree or higher; appropriately credentialed to teach; currently supervised by either a program director, program supervisor developmental manager, coordinator, or a master teacher; have at least a three (3) month or longer working relationship with current supervisor; and at least one (1) or more years of teaching.

If you decide to have your teachers participate in this study, each teacher will complete two surveys called the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS). Each survey will take 10-15 minutes to complete. The risks to teachers as a research participant are minimal. These include minimal fatigue or slight stress. Being in this study would not pose a risk to the teachers' safety or wellbeing. The teacher can discontinue the surveys at any time.

The results of this study may be published in scientific research journals or presented at professional conferences. However, your organization's or teacher's identity will not be revealed and will remain anonymous.

Remember, this is entirely voluntary. You can choose to have your teachers to be in this study or not. If you'd like to participate or have any questions about the study, please email or contact me.

Thank you very much.

Sincerely,
Troy Nickel

Appendix C: Letter of Cooperation

Community Research Partner Name

Contact Information

Date

Dear Troy Nickel:

Based on my review of your research proposal, I give permission for you to conduct the study entitled *Teacher Perceptions of Leadership Styles and the Relationship to Job Satisfaction in Adult Basic Education Settings* within the Insert Name of Community Partner. As part of this study, I authorize you to receive a copy of teacher emails to disseminate the Demographic Survey, Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), and Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) to faculty members to complete. Teachers' participation will be voluntary and at their own discretion.

We understand that our organization's responsibilities include:

- Providing an email list of teachers who provide instructional services to adult education learners in the Western region of the United States.
- There is no direct supervision of the research study provided by our organization.
- Fully understand the scope the study and the research objectives, methodologies, and approaches.
- We reserve the right to withdraw from the study at any time if our circumstances change.

I understand that Troy Nickel will not be naming our organization in the doctoral project report that is published in Proquest.

I confirm that I am authorized to approve research in this setting and that this plan complies with the organization's policies.

I understand that the data collected will remain entirely confidential and may not be provided to anyone outside of the student's supervising faculty/staff without permission from the Walden University IRB.

Sincerely,

Authorization Official

Contact Information

Email Address

Appendix D: Invitational Letter

Hello,
My name is Troy Nickel, a doctoral student at Walden University, and I obtained your email address from (insert name HR Director) regarding this invitation email to participate in a research study which will investigate the relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction among Adult Basic Education (ABE) teachers. A letter of cooperation from (insert name of ABE Director) is attached.
If you are able to participate in this study, you may click on the link provided below, which will take you to an informed consent letter, followed by two brief questionnaires designed to assess leadership styles and job satisfaction. It is our hope to better understand how ABE teacher job satisfaction is related to leadership style, given that the only information available is not focused on adult educators.
Please email me at if you have any questions. Participation in the study is strictly voluntary. Thank you for your time and consideration in this research study.
Sincerely,

Troy Nickel

Appendix E: Reminder Letter

Hello _____,
I hope all is well for you.
Pardon me if you already participated in my study on the relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction among Adult Basic Education (ABE), but if you haven't, I just wanted to let you know that the deadline for participation is approaching. Since participation is anonymous, I'm sending a reminder to everyone.
In case you don't recall my first email, I am attaching it below. It includes a letter of cooperation from (insert name of ABE Administrator) and a statement concerning anonymity and confidentiality.
If you are able to participate in this study, please click on the link provided below, which will take you to an informed consent letter, followed by two brief questionnaires. It is our hope to better understand how ABE teacher job satisfaction is related to leadership style, given that the only information available is not focused on adult education.
Please email me at if you have any questions. Participation in the study is strictly voluntary. Thank you for your time and consideration in this research study.
Sincerely,
Troy Nickel

Appendix F: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ; 5X Short Form)

As a leader ….

I talk optimistically about the future.
I spend time teaching and coaching.
I avoid making decisions.

The person I am rating….

Talks optimistically about the future.
Spends time teaching and coaching.
Avoids making decisions

The dissertation cannot include the entire MLQ instrument due to copyright laws. However, there are three sample items from the Leader Form (5x-Short) and Rater Form (5x-Short).

Appendix G: Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)

	JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY Paul E. Spector Department of Psychology University of South Florida 	
	PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.	Disagree very much / Disagree moderately / Disagree slightly / Agree slightly / Agree moderately / Agree very much
1	I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	1 2 3 4 5 6
2	There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.	1 2 3 4 5 6
3	My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.	1 2 3 4 5 6
4	I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.	1 2 3 4 5 6
5	When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.	1 2 3 4 5 6
6	Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.	1 2 3 4 5 6
7	I like the people I work with.	1 2 3 4 5 6
8	I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.	1 2 3 4 5 6
9	Communications seem good within this organization.	1 2 3 4 5 6
10	Raises are too few and far between.	1 2 3 4 5 6
11	Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.	1 2 3 4 5 6
12	My supervisor is unfair to me.	1 2 3 4 5 6

13	The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.	1 2 3 4 5 6
14	I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.	1 2 3 4 5 6
15	My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.	1 2 3 4 5 6
16	I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.	1 2 3 4 5 6
17	I like doing the things I do at work.	1 2 3 4 5 6
18	The goals of this organization are not clear to me.	1 2 3 4 5 6
19	I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.	1 2 3 4 5 6
20	People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.	1 2 3 4 5 6
21	My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.	1 2 3 4 5 6
22	The benefit package we have is equitable.	1 2 3 4 5 6
23	There are few rewards for those who work here.	1 2 3 4 5 6
24	I have too much to do at work.	1 2 3 4 5 6
25	I enjoy my coworkers.	1 2 3 4 5 6
26	I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization.	1 2 3 4 5 6
27	I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	1 2 3 4 5 6
28	I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.	1 2 3 4 5 6
29	There are benefits we do not have which we should have.	1 2 3 4 5 6
30	I like my supervisor.	1 2 3 4 5 6
31	I have too much paperwork.	1 2 3 4 5 6
32	I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.	1 2 3 4 5 6
33	I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.	1 2 3 4 5 6
34	There is too much bickering and fighting at work.	1 2 3 4 5 6
35	My job is enjoyable.	1 2 3 4 5 6
36	Work assignments are not fully explained.	1 2 3 4 5 6

Appendix H: Mind Garden Letter Granting Permission to Use Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

Re: [Mind Garden] Message from contact form - General Questions

Mind Garden Inc <info@mindgarden.com>

Tue 8/6/2019 7:34 AM

To:

- Troy Nickel < >

Hello Troy,

The review-only copy of the instrument that is included in the appendix of the manual can be included in your proposal.

Best wishes,

Mind Garden, Inc.

mind garden

www.mindgarden.com

To Whom It May Concern,

The above-named person has made a license purchase from Mind Garden, Inc. and has permission to administer the following copyrighted instrument up to that quantity purchased:

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

The three sample items only from this instrument as specified below may be included in your thesis or dissertation. Any other use must receive prior written permission from Mind Garden. The entire instrument may not be included or reproduced at any time in any other published

material. Please understand that disclosing more than we have authorized will compromise the integrity and value of the test.

Citation of the instrument must include the applicable copyright statement listed below.
Sample Items:

As a leader ….

I talk optimistically about the future.
I spend time teaching and coaching.
I avoid making decisions.

The person I am rating….

Talks optimistically about the future.
Spends time teaching and coaching.
Avoids making decisions

Sincerelv.

Appendix I: Job Satisfaction Survey Permission

RE: Permission to use JSS

Spector, Paul <

Tue 8/6/2019 6:42 AM

To:

- Troy Nickel < >

Dear Troy:

You have my permission to use the JSS in your research. You can find copies of the scale in the original English and several other languages, as well as details about the scale's development and norms, in the Assessments/Our Assessments section of my website: paulspector.com. I allow free use for noncommercial research and teaching purposes in return for sharing of results. This includes student theses and dissertations, as well as other student research projects. Copies of the scale can be reproduced in a thesis or dissertation as long as the copyright notice is included, "Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved." Results can be shared by providing an e-copy of a published or unpublished research report (e.g., a dissertation). You also have permission to translate the JSS into another language under the same conditions in addition to sharing a copy of the translation with me. Be sure to include the copyright statement, as well as credit the person who did the translation with the year.

Thank you for your interest in the JSS, and good luck with your research.

Best,

Paul Spector, Distinguished Professor

Department of Psychology

Website: http://shell.cas.usf.edu/~pspector/

From: Troy Nickel [mailto:]

Sent: Tuesday, August 6, 2019 8:32 AM

To: Spector, Paul < >

Subject: Permission to use JSS

Good morning, Dr. Spector!

My name is Troy Nickel, a doctoral student at Walden University. My study investigates the relationship between leadership style and teacher job satisfaction. I will be using the JSS for my research. My committee advisor is Dr. Monny Sklov, at Walden University, Psychology Department.

I am requesting the permission to use the Job Satisfaction Survey. I agree to the two conditions explained on the website:

1. The use is for noncommercial educational research purposes. This means no one is charging anyone a fee. If you are using any of my scales for consulting purposes, there is a fee.
2. You agree to share results with me. This is how I continue to update the norms and bibliography.

I agree to these conditions. There is no financial compensation for this study, and I will share the study results with you. Right now, I am in the process of submitting my proposal for approval, then be able to conduct my study after that. I look forward to hearing from you soon and want to commend you on a well-developed tool.

Thank you for your consideration to this request.

Thanks, Troy

Appendix J: Graphical Output for Levels of Leadership Styles Predicting Supervision

Figure J.1

Histogram for Levels of Leadership Styles Predicting Supervision

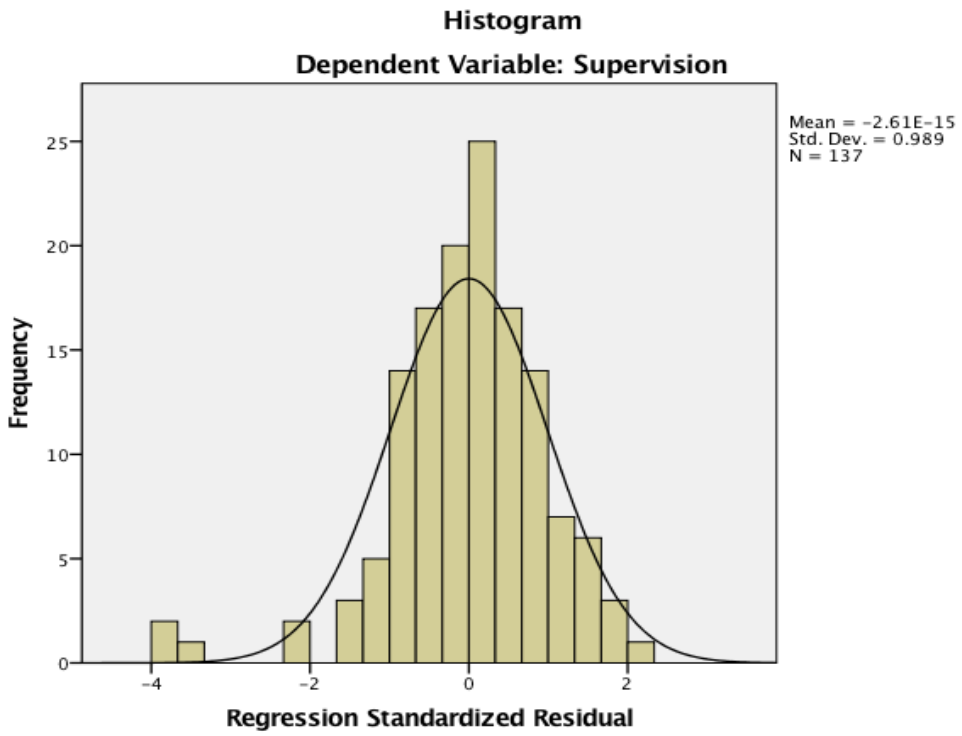


Figure J.2

Normal P-P Plot for Levels of Leadership Styles Predicting Supervision

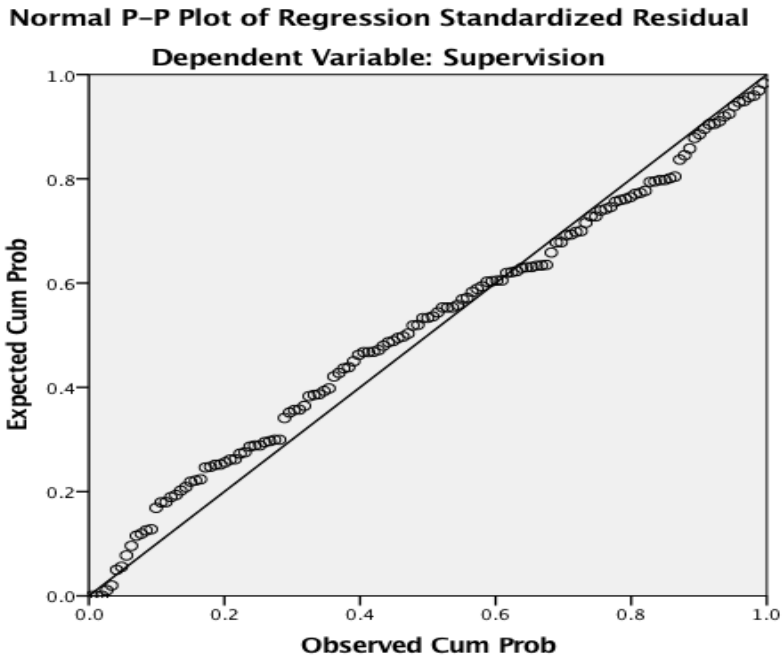
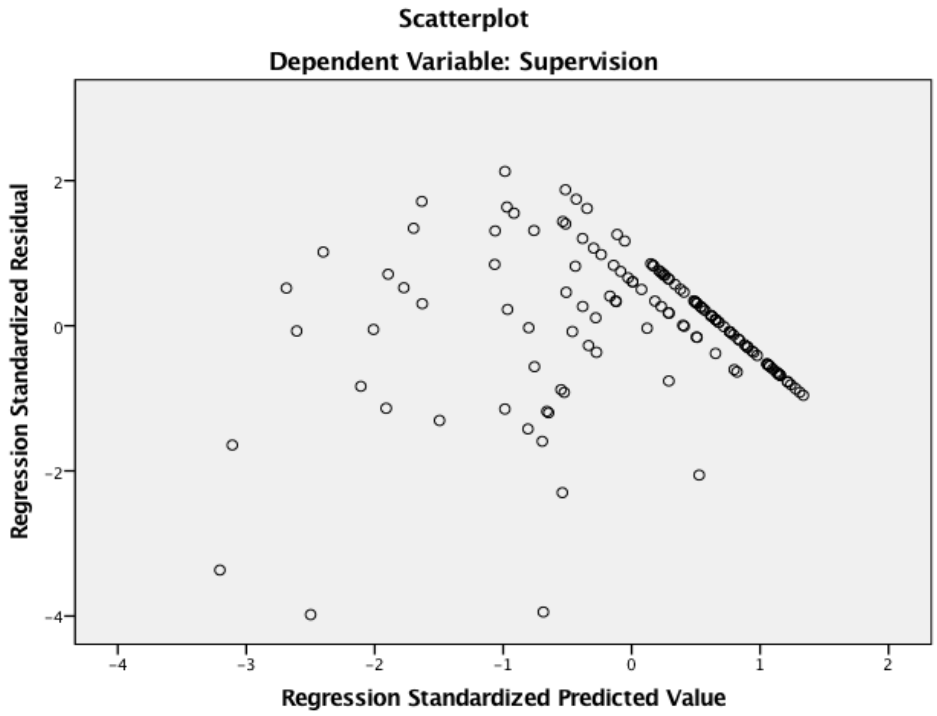


Figure J.3

Scatterplot for Levels of Leadership Styles Predicting Supervision



Appendix K: Graphical Output for Levels of Leadership Styles Predicting Contingent Reward

Figure K.1

Histogram for Levels of Leadership Styles Predicting Contingent Reward

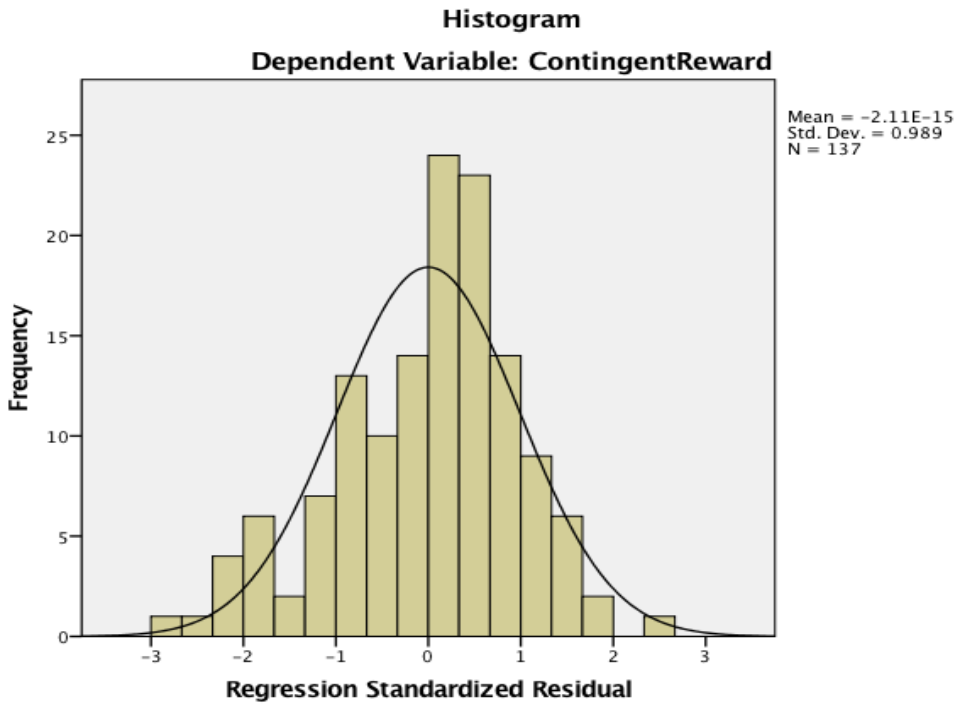


Figure K.2

Normal P-P Plot for Levels of Leadership Styles Predicting Contingent Reward

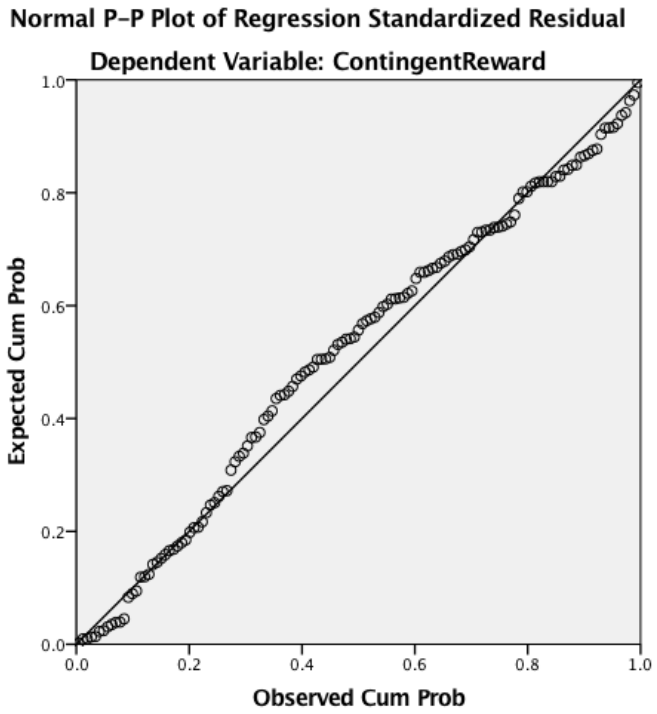
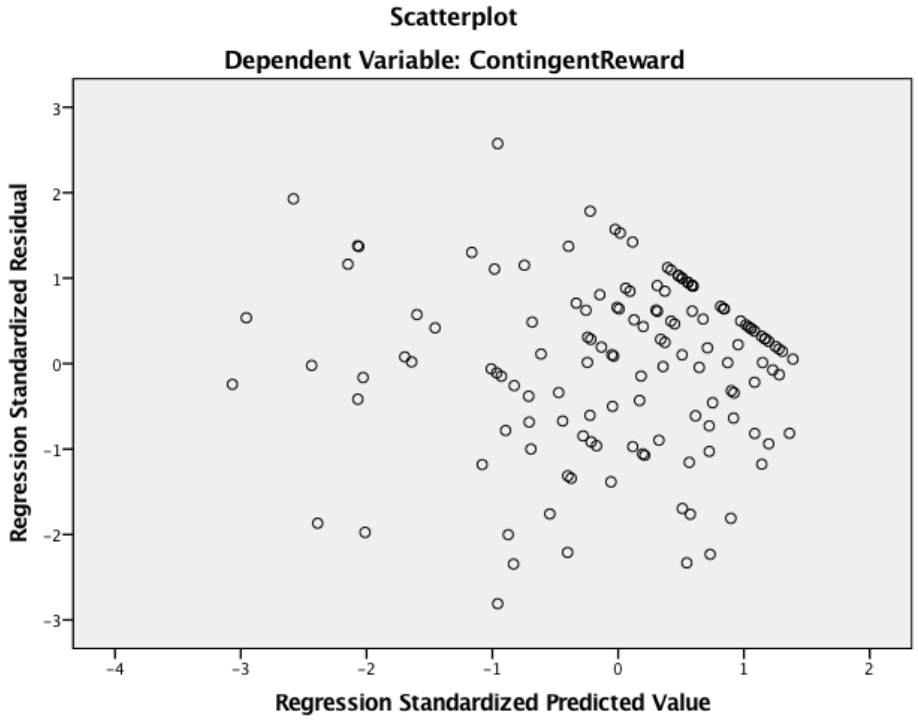


Figure K.3

Scatterplot for Levels of Leadership Styles Predicting Contingent Reward



Appendix L: Graphical Output for Levels of Leadership Styles Predicting Operating Conditions

Figure L.1

Histogram for Levels of Leadership Styles Predicting Operating Conditions

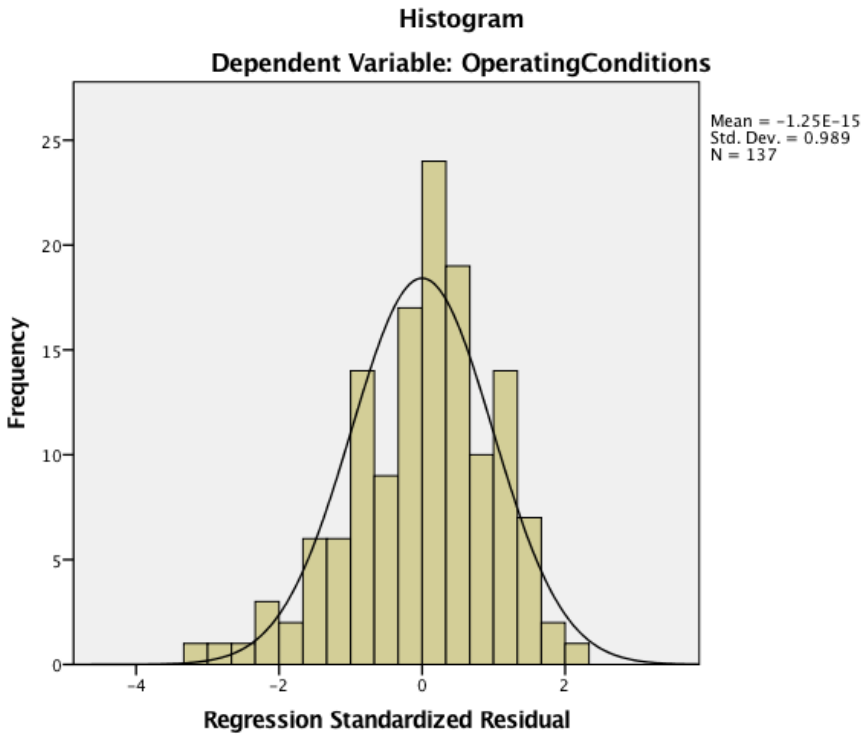


Figure L.2

Normal P-P Plot for Levels of Leadership Styles Predicting Operating Conditions

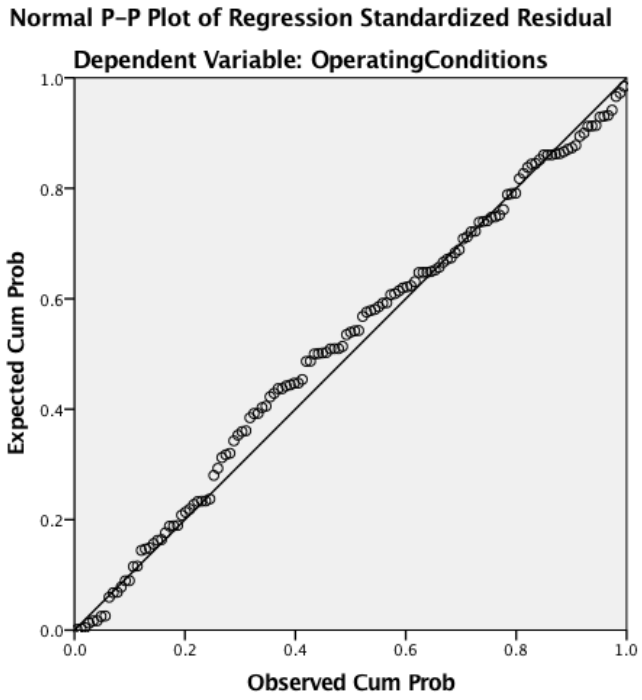
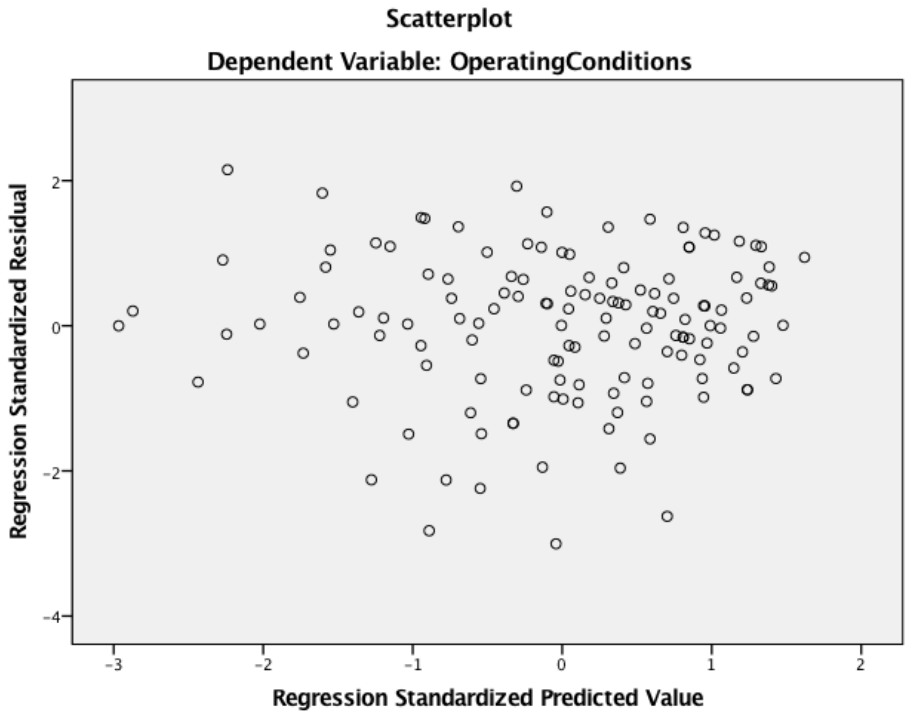


Figure L.3

Scatterplot for Levels of Leadership Styles Predicting Operating Conditions



Appendix M: Graphical Output for Levels of Leadership Styles Predicting Coworkers

Figure M.1

Histogram for Levels of Leadership Styles Predicting Coworkers

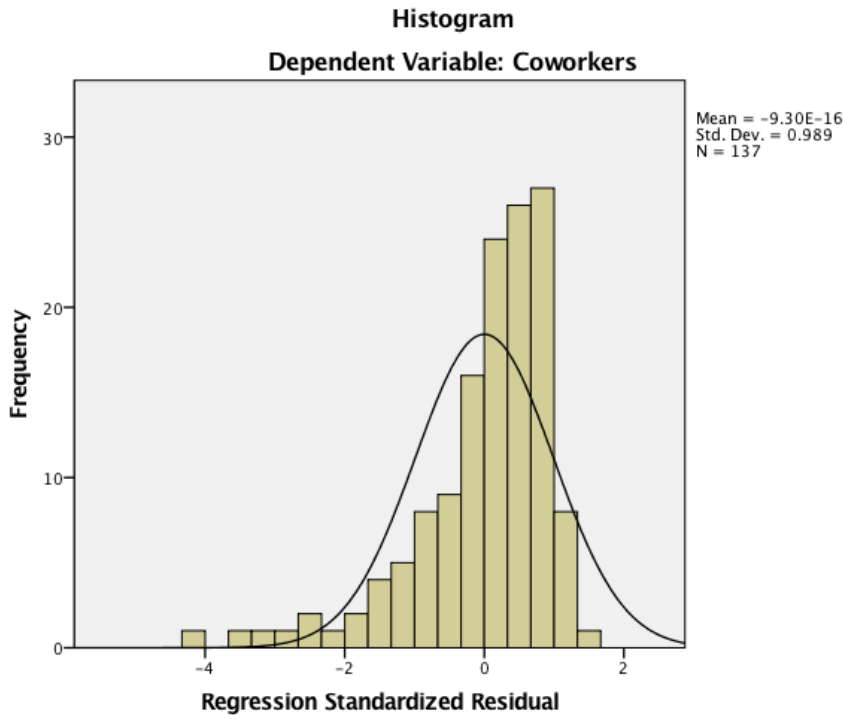


Figure M.2

Normal P-P Plot for Levels of Leadership Styles Predicting Coworkers

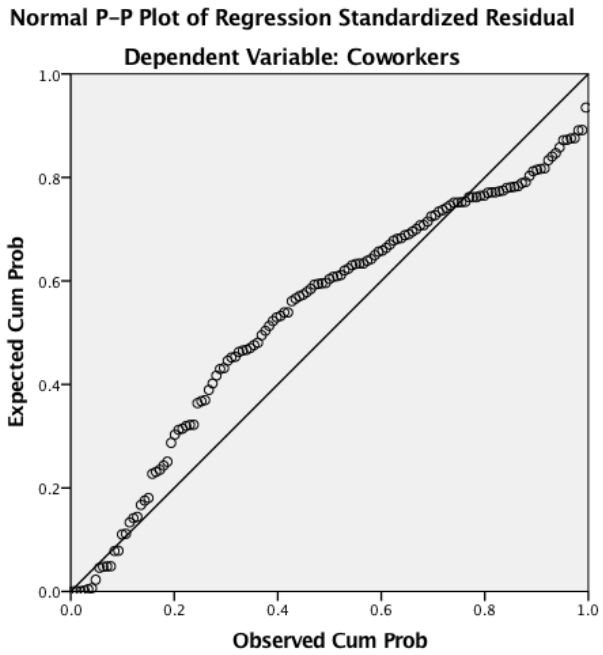
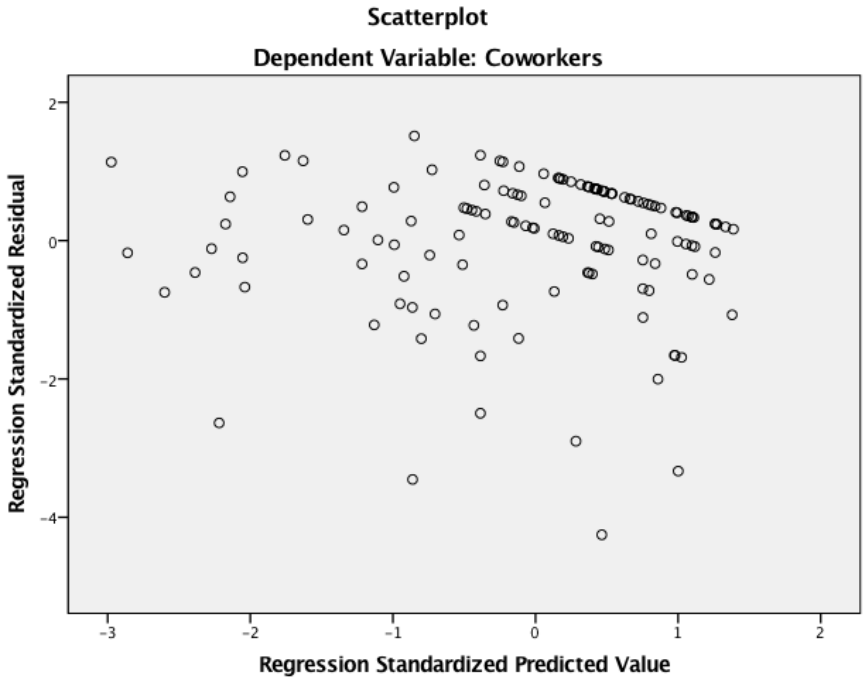


Figure M.3

Scatterplot for Levels of Leadership Styles Predicting Coworkers



Appendix N: Graphical Output for Levels of Leadership Styles Predicting Nature of Work

Figure N.1

Histogram for Levels of Leadership Styles Predicting Nature of Work

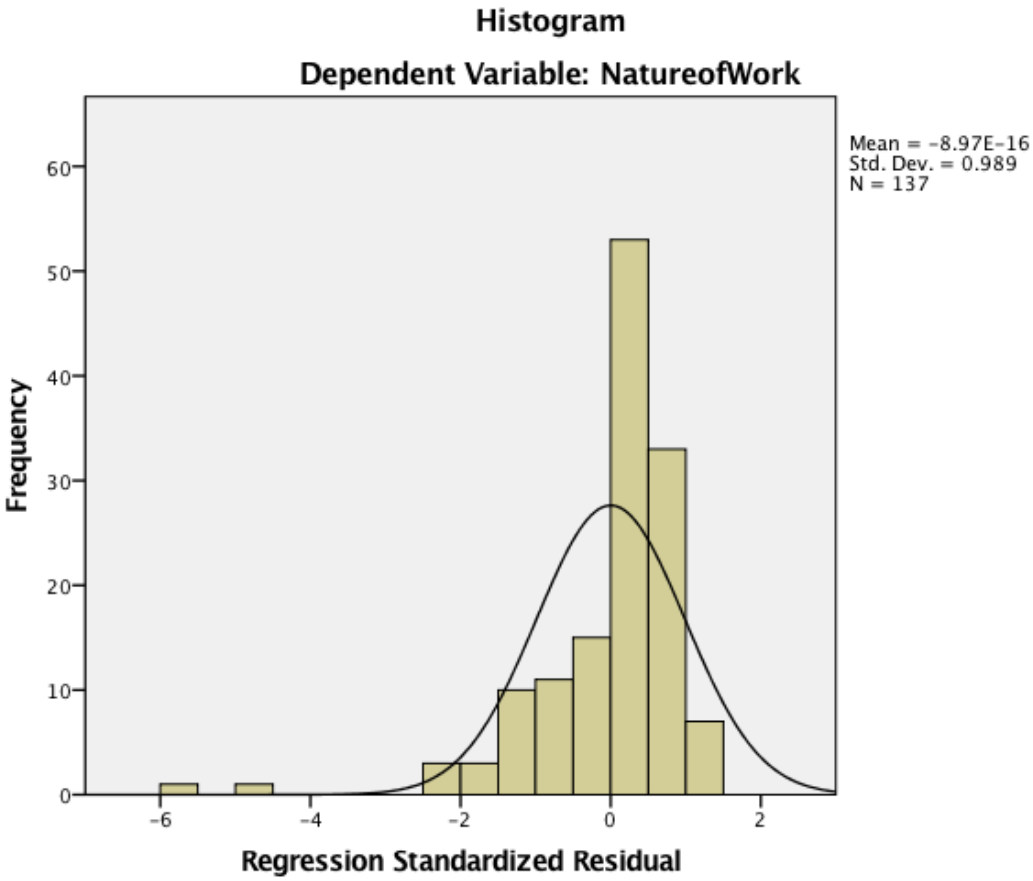


Figure N.2

Normal P-P Plot for Levels of Leadership Styles Predicting Nature of Work

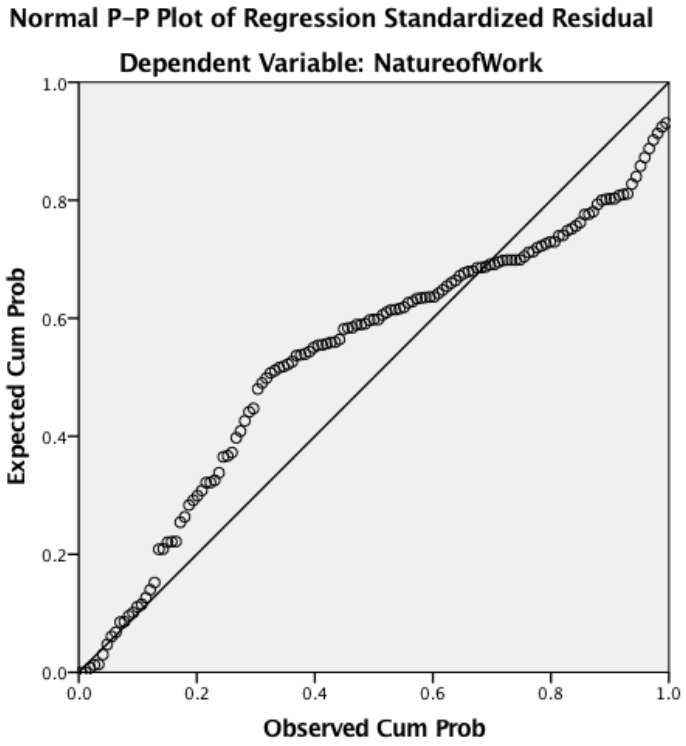
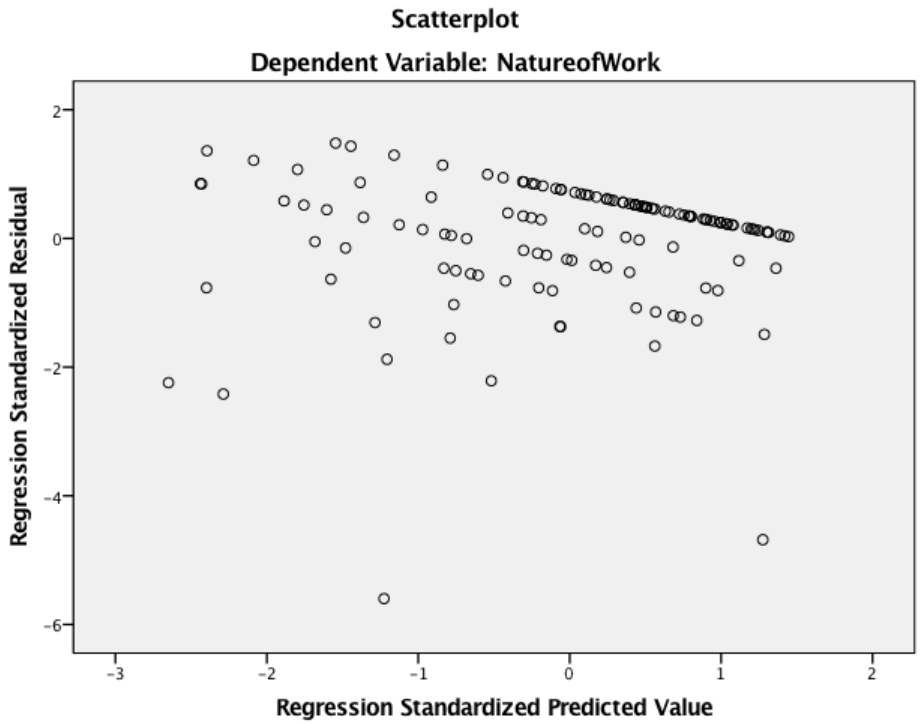


Figure N.3

Scatterplot for Levels of Leadership Styles Predicting Nature of Work



Appendix O: Graphical Output for Levels of Leadership Styles Predicting Communication

Figure O.1

Histogram for Levels of Leadership Styles Predicting Communication

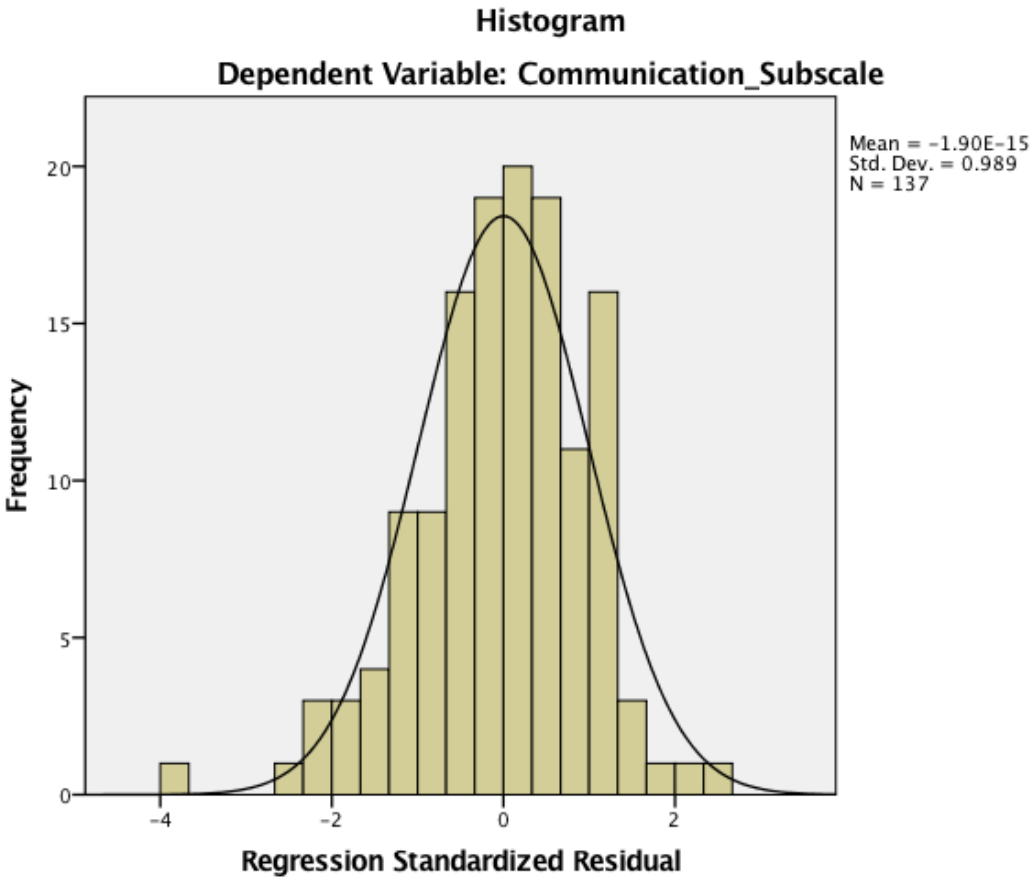


Figure O.2

Normal P-P Plot for Levels of Leadership Styles Predicting Communication

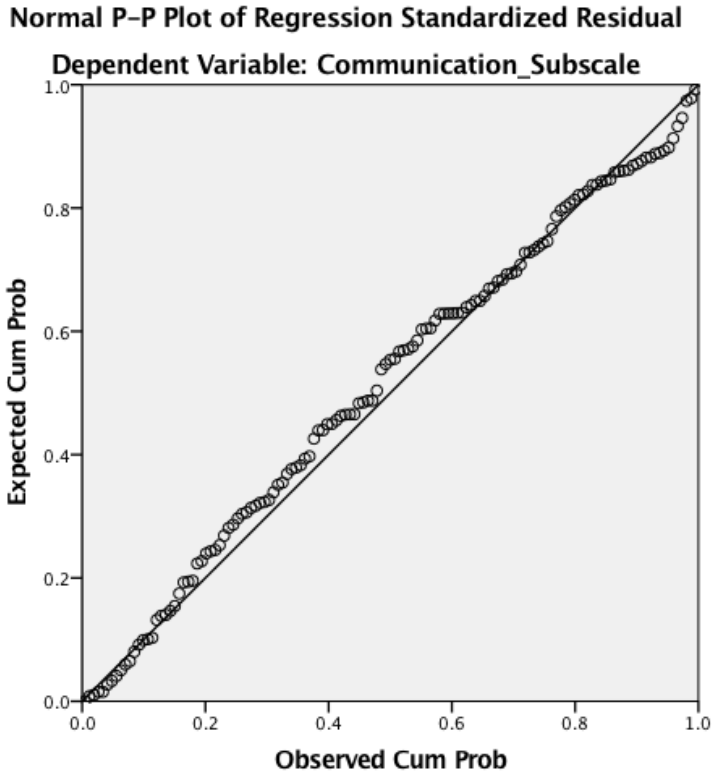
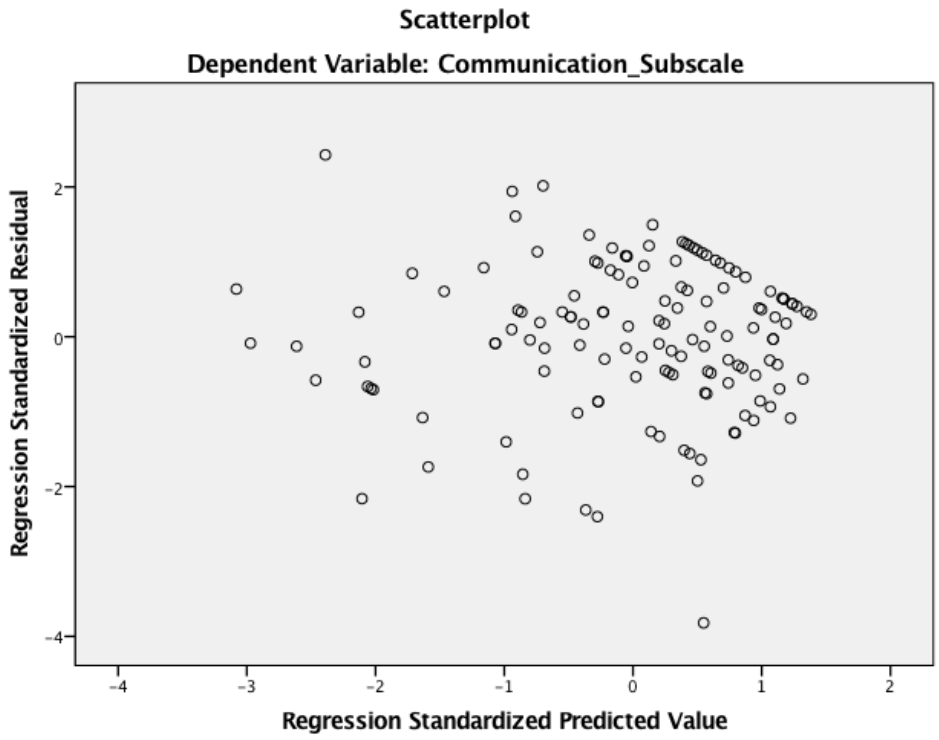


Figure O.3

Scatterplot for Levels of Leadership Styles Predicting Communication



Appendix P: Statistical Output for Levels of Leadership Styles and Job Satisfaction Facets

Figure P.1

Skewness and Kurtosis Output for Levels of Leadership Styles and Job Satisfaction Facets

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Supervision	137	4.00	24.00	21.6788	3.89369	-2.273	.207	5.641	.411
ContingentReward	137	4.00	24.00	18.8321	4.88330	-.841	.207	.065	.411
OperatingConditions	137	4.00	24.00	16.9927	4.41004	-.602	.207	.094	.411
Coworkers	137	12.00	24.00	21.5839	2.79349	-1.384	.207	1.727	.411
NatureofWork	137	11.00	24.00	22.6277	2.06870	-2.458	.207	8.497	.411
Communication_Subscale	137	5.00	24.00	18.6642	4.50209	-.865	.207	.096	.411
Transformational_Leadership	137	.90	4.00	2.9223	.76136	-.869	.207	.039	.411
Transactional_Subscale	137	.75	3.17	1.7384	.42180	.460	.207	.592	.411
Laissez_Faire_Leadership	137	.00	3.25	.5657	.74710	1.664	.207	2.340	.411
Valid N (listwise)	137								