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The Moderating Impact of Yoga on the Relationship Between Employee Job Satisfaction and Trust in Management

Khalid George Darargeh
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Walden University

College of Management and Technology

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Khalid George Darargeh

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Walden University
2021

Abstract

The Moderating Impact of Yoga on the Relationship Between Employee Job Satisfaction
and Trust in Management

by

Khalid George Darargeh

MS, Stevenson University, 2003

BS, Towson University, 1993

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Business Administration

Walden University

April 2021

Abstract

Employees with low job satisfaction are less likely than employees with average or high job satisfaction to achieve organizational productivity objectives. Owners of U. S. companies lose an estimated \$605 billion each year in productivity due to low employee job satisfaction. Grounded in the leader-member exchange theory, the purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the moderating impact of yoga on the relationship between employee trust in leadership and employee job satisfaction. Using LinkedIn and Facebook, participants were 80 full-time professionals living in the Baltimore County or Baltimore City vicinities who varied in their participation in yoga as part of a weekly routine. Participants completed two surveys, the Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey and the Job Satisfaction Scale, on SurveyMonkey. The results of the standard multiple linear regression were statistically significant, $F(3, 77) = 64.950, p < .001, R^2 = .717$. However, trust was the only statistically significant predictor ($t = 13.85, p < .001$). A key recommendation is for business leaders to develop safe and ethical workplace programs that encourage employees to trust their leaders. The implications for positive social change include the potential for employees to feel empowered to transform and create positive change within themselves, their households, and their communities.

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Dedication

I dedicate my work to all those children who were told they are different, would never make it in life, and would not fit in, and who dared to take an alternative path because it was more important to be themselves than just to fit in. To everyone who took the time to describe all the potential obstacles in my path, I thank you for reminding me that obstacles are made to strengthen one's resolve and not discourage it. I thank everyone who helped teach me that you must be dedicated and willing to work hard if you dare to be different. I am thankful to everyone who helped me accept myself and recognize that I do not want to be anything other than me.

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To my beautiful wife, Anna, and lovely children, Jordan, Jake, George, and Luca, who without their love and support, I would have graduated 2 years earlier. To my late father, who loved me enough to let me be different. To my mother, who made sure I ate all my meals, did all my homework, went to school, did everything like I am supposed to, and still does to this day. Special thanks to my brothers and sisters who accepted the eccentric, quintessential, and just different older brother even when I did not really fit in, and probably still do not.

To Dr. Kate for hanging in with me for as long as you did; your kindness and support carried me through. To Dr. Casale and Dr. Taylor for your feedback and guidance along my journey. To Abu Saleh, my amazing high school math teacher who believed in me. To HSV for teaching me that football (soccer) is larger than life, to Sid McNairy for introducing me to yoga, to Mukti Buck and the Vedic Conservatory for sharing your peace and love, and to the late Robert Butera, who helped me figure it out, but refused to hang around to see the fruit of his work. To Lynn Forrest, my guardian shaman who showed me the way--another way, that is.

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Section 1: Foundation of the Study

The relationship quality between leaders and employees may be a predictive component to several organizational factors such as employees' level of job satisfaction, career goals, and expectations (Martin et al., 2015). Employees' trust in leadership conversely relates to employees' job satisfaction (Yang, 2014). According to the leader-member exchange (LMX) theory, employees fit into either the favored group, the in-group, or the unfavored group, the out-group (Lee et al., 2017). Employees may engage in social comparisons to evaluate their relationships with the leader to other employees' relationships with the leader. Such comparisons may contribute to feelings of unfairness, which negatively affect job satisfaction. Alternatively, employees may become motivated to improve their relationship with the leader and fit into the in-group to increase job satisfaction. I examined the relationship between practicing yoga, employees' job satisfaction, and employees' trust in leadership. The LMX theory was the foundation for my research.

Background of the Problem

My objective in this research study was to examine the relationship between practicing yoga and employee job satisfaction and trust in leadership. Previous researchers have not examined the possibility of a predictive relationship between practicing yoga, employee job satisfaction, and employee trust in leadership. This study's findings may thus provide clarity on whether practicing yoga is related to improved employee job satisfaction and increased trust in leadership.

Researchers have found evidence of a relationship between job satisfaction and positive organizational outcomes. Improving employees' job satisfaction positively correlates with several organizational benefits, including improved productivity, retention, and employee organizational commitment (Walker, 2017). Scholars have examined several predictive factors for job satisfaction, such as self-control, well-being, and sociability (Greenidge et al., 2014). Employees satisfied with their jobs have reported less stress on the job and more effective collaboration with colleagues within the same organization (Stegen & Wankier, 2018).

Research also indicates a relationship between job satisfaction and trust in leaders. Employees' trust in leadership conversely relates to job satisfaction and job performance (Zhang & Zhou, 2014) and is an integral component of business performance (Yıldız & Şimşek, 2016). Employees assess leaders' integrity, competence, benevolence, reliability, and dependability before trusting in leaders (Lin & Leung, 2013). Employees' perception of a leader as trustworthy conversely correlates with employees' perception of leaders as genuinely caring, confident in ability, consistent with actions, and sure to follow through on promises and commitments (Mayer et al., 1995).

Problem Statement

Employees with low job satisfaction are less likely than employees with average or high job satisfaction to achieve organizational productivity objectives (Martin et al., 2015). U.S. companies lose an estimated \$605 billion per year in productivity due to low employee job satisfaction (Gallup, 2017, p. 19). The general business problem is that employees' job satisfaction may decrease if employees do not believe leaders are

trustworthy. The specific business is that some business leaders do not know if employees' yoga practice yoga moderates the relationship between employees' trust in leadership and employees' job satisfaction.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the moderating effect of practicing yoga on the relationship between employee trust in leadership and employee job satisfaction. Employee trust in management was the independent variable, employee job satisfaction was the dependent variable, and practicing yoga was the moderating variable. This study's target population was full-time professionals living in the Baltimore County or Baltimore City vicinities, who work a minimum of 40 hours per week and may or may not participate in a yoga practice as part of a weekly routine. Study findings may provide knowledge that business leaders can use to develop safe and ethical workplace programs that encourage employees to trust their leaders. The implications for social change include the potential for employees to grow in conscious activism and body awareness and better their relations with others by observing and improving their relationship with the self.

Nature of the Study

A quantitative method was appropriate for this study because my objective was to examine data numerically and rely on the calculations to explain the findings and then generalize the results to other populations. In qualitative methodology, the researcher examines processes and entities and attempts to define the meaning that cannot be measured (Rosenthal, 2016). Because I examined the relationship between independent

and dependent variables, a qualitative study was not appropriate for this study. A mixed-mode method involves utilizing both qualitative and quantitative methods; thus, it is best suited for complex interventions (Thamhain, 2014). Therefore, a mixed-method approach was not appropriate for this study.

The correlational design was appropriate for this study because the objective was to examine the relationship between practicing yoga, employee trust in leadership, and employee job satisfaction. A researcher utilizes an experimental design or a quasi-experimental design involving pre-and post-testing to determine cause and effect relationships between the variables (Podsakoff & Podsakoff, 2019). The objective of this research was to compare to population groups; thus, the experimental and quasi-experimental designs were not appropriate. In a causal-comparative study, the researcher examines the relationship between two population groups to establish the causes or consequences of differences that already exist between or among groups (Omair, 2015). Casual comparative research was not suitable for this study because I examined one group.

Research Question

Does practicing yoga moderate the relationship between employee trust in leadership and employee job satisfaction?

Hypotheses

To address the research question in this study, I tested the following hypotheses:

*H*₀: Yoga practice does not moderate the relationship between employee trust in leadership and job satisfaction.

*H*₁: Yoga practice does moderate the relationship between employee trust in leadership and job satisfaction.

Theoretical Framework

In 1975, Dansereau et al. introduced the LMX theory. Using the LMX theory, researchers can explore organizational leaders' behaviors and assess leaders' effects on employees (Lee et al., 2017). In the LMX theory, leaders create a perception of each employee's ability to collaborate with the leader; based on the leaders' perception, the leader then selects some employees to engage in leadership roles within the organization under the leader's supervision (Park et al., 2015). The leader creates two groups of employees within the organization: an in-group and an out-group (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The in-group members experience a high-quality relationship with the leader characterized by mutual trust, obligation, and loyalty (Yıldız & Şimşek, 2016). Hence, trust is a crucial construct underlying the LMX theory (Bauer & Green, 1996). Applying the LMX theory to this study, I surmised that I might find a relationship between trust and employee job satisfaction. Extending the theory, I expected that participation in a yoga program would moderate the relationship between employee trust and job satisfaction.

Operational Definitions

Composite reliability: Composite reliability or construct reliability is a measure of internal consistency in scale items (Valentini & Figueiredo Damasio, 2016).

Comprehensive yoga practice: Comprehensive yoga practice is a yoga practice that includes physical movement, breathwork, and meditation (Himashree et al., 2016).

Dyadic relation: Dyadic relation is a collection of ordered pairs that form a subset of both sets, like a binary relation on two sets (Simmel & Wolff, 1950).

Employee's trust in leadership: Employee's trust in leadership is an employee's cognitive perception of the leader's integrity, competence, benevolence, reliability, and dependability (Lin & Leung, 2013).

Employee empowerment: Employee empowerment is a process initiated by organizational leaders to help employees mitigate obstacles to achieving personal and organizational objectives (Demirtas, 2013). Empowered employees make decisions without seeking their leaders' approval (Lizar et al., 2015).

Integrity: Integrity is the commitment to perform duties and obligations as agreed upon without having alternative motives devoid of betrayal of trust (Monga, 2016).

Job satisfaction: Job satisfaction is the set of feelings, attitudes, and perceptions that an employee experiences from and towards performing their job functions at their place of employment (Bin Shmailan, 2016).

Leader's competence: Leader competence is the combination of soft and hard skills mastered by a leader and implemented as an essential guiding principle for organizational effectiveness and productivity (Meijerink et al., 2015).

Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations

Assumptions, limitations, and delimitations are essential components of a research study affecting the underlying approach and methods utilized in resolving the problem at hand within the domain of knowledge (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). Without assumptions, limitations, and delimitations, a researcher may attempt to reuse methods

and approaches within a study's domain of knowledge in another study and domain of knowledge without being clear about the results being reliable (Simon, 2011).

Assumptions, limitations, and delimitations provide clarity about research methods and the body of knowledge (Marshall & Rossman, 2016).

Assumptions

An assumption is an assertion that is presumed to be factual (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). In conducting this study, I assumed, based on existing research, that employee trust in management and job satisfaction are correlated (Martin et al., 2015; Yang, 2014). A second assumption was that the participants would understand and answer the interview questions to the best of their knowledge and truthfully. The third assumption was that the participants would share the exact definition of employee empowerment, job satisfaction, and employees' trust in leadership outlined in this study. The fourth assumption was the ability to generalize the conclusion of this study to the broader U.S. population. The fifth assumption was that study participants would be honest in providing answers to the questionnaire based on their own experiences. My sixth assumption was that the quantitative correlational design is appropriate for this study. My final assumption was that the instruments used in this study would yield valid and reliable data.

Limitations

Limitations are weaknesses in studies that the researchers do not have control over (Simon, 2011). The study participants represented a subset of the population during a specific period presenting a potential for a skewed result. I studied business

professionals working for different organizations with diverse economic and social demographics and who may have valued job satisfaction differently. Some of the participating employees' feedback may be biased depending upon their positions within their organizations. Participants may have feared retaliation by others in their organizations, which could be another factor contributing to an inaccurate reporting of job satisfaction. The potential for such inaccuracies may limit the ability to generalize this study's results beyond business professionals who practice yoga regularly.

Additionally, employees who participated in this study may have responded to the survey based on their prior experience with leadership instead of existing circumstances.

Delimitations

Delimitations are characteristics and boundaries of a research study within the researcher's control, such as research questions, variables, and research population (Simon, 2011). I limited my selection criteria for my research population to professionals employed full time who may or may not incorporate a yoga practice in their weekly routine. I chose trust in leadership, yoga practice, and job satisfaction as variables for this study; I did not select other variables that may affect job satisfaction. I relied on the LMX theory as the theoretical framework for this study, though other theories may also have been applicable for this study and could potentially have produced different results. I defined organizational leaders as employees within businesses who held the title of vice president or higher, in part due to the general perception of them having the most ability to influence organizational trust. In doing so, I excluded other types of organizational leaders such as managers and directors from the study. I published an invitation to

participate in the study on social media sites such as Facebook and LinkedIn. The invitation included a link to the research study at SurveyMonkey. I invited individuals living in Baltimore, Maryland, to participate in the study, knowing that a different participant pool from a different city may have yielded different results that may or may not be generalizable to a larger population. A possible bias in the study may exist should some of the study participants be organizational leaders.

Significance of the Study

This research study's significance is the advancement of the employee empowerment construct and emphasizing the significant role organizational leaders have in accomplishing organizational objectives by developing trusting and satisfied employees. Organizational leaders can create and implement employee empowerment initiatives and policies that guide organizational performance (Bakiev, 2013). This study's results may provide senior organizational leadership with a process blueprint for implementing organizational changes to improve employee job satisfaction and overall well-being. By promoting yoga in the workplace, leaders encourage a healthy lifestyle that reduces stress and leaves of absence due to illness (Rocha et al., 2018). Yogic sleep, also known as yoga nidra, helps create a positive outlook on life, and a positive outlook on the work environment increases the chances of job satisfaction (Livingston & Collette-Merrill, 2018).

Social change implications may include growth in conscious activism and enhanced relations with others by improving employees' relationships with themselves. This relationship is the spiritual foundation of yoga (Cramer et al., 2017). Individuals

practicing yoga may have more positive experiences because practicing yoga may be related to positive psychology, affecting mental health through emotional well-being (Mocanu et al., 2018). Individuals who practice yoga may have increased resistance to stress and diseases. They also have more positive mental attitudes and equanimity that may provide pathways to purposeful and healthier lives (Kumar & Poonia, 2017).

A Review of the Professional and Academic Literature.

My objective in this causal comparative study was to assess the moderating effect of practicing yoga as an employee empowerment tool on the relationship between employee trust in leadership and job satisfaction. In this literature review, I will provide background information relevant to the business problem, independent and dependent variables, and theoretical framework. The literature review addresses leader-member exchange theory, leader-member exchange theory stages, leader-member exchange theory quality of exchange, relational signaling theory (RST), employee trust in leadership, organizational change, leader competence, benevolent leadership, leader integrity, leader consistency, employee empowerment, yoga, job satisfaction, and organizational change.

I used Walden University Library electronic databases, including ProQuest Central, ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global, Business Source Complete, Thoreau Multi-Database Search, Google Scholar Academic Search Complete, to examine peer-reviewed journal articles, books, and dissertations. Keywords for searching literature included *employee trust*, *organizational change*, *employee empowerment*, *leader-member exchange theory*, *LMX*, *job satisfaction*, *yoga in the workplace*, *yoga benefits*, *leadership*,

leader competence, benevolent leadership, leader integrity, leader consistency, and job satisfaction. Using these keywords, separately and in combination, produced 525 articles, as depicted in Table 1. I cited 250 references with 209 (83.6%) peer-reviewed publications from the last 5 years, 33 peer-reviewed and published articles from more than 5 years ago, 10 books, and five dissertations published within the last 5 years.

Table 1

Sources Cited

Source	Number of sources	Percentage of sources
Sources older than 2014	40	16.4
Sources newer than 2014	211	83.6
Books newer than 2014	10	4
Dissertations newer than 2014	5	2
Total number of sources	251	100

Leader-Member Exchange Theory

In 1975, Dansereau et al. introduced the LMX theory and defined leadership as a multistage process between leaders and employees (Lo et al., 2015). Researchers examining the relationship between a leader and employees have shown that the relationship's quality significantly influences employees' attitudes and effectiveness (Vidarthi et al., 2014). According to LMX theorists, the relationship type an employee establishes with the leader has more influence on the employee than the leader's traits and behaviors (Matta et al., 2015). Researchers have used LMX theory to explain the

relationship quality between the leaders and employees based on the leaders' abilities, such as trust development and team building (Gerstner & Day, 1997). Researchers can examine the dyadic relationship development between the leader and employees to determine the quality of exchanges and interactions (Harris et al., 2014).

Leader Member Exchange Theory Phases

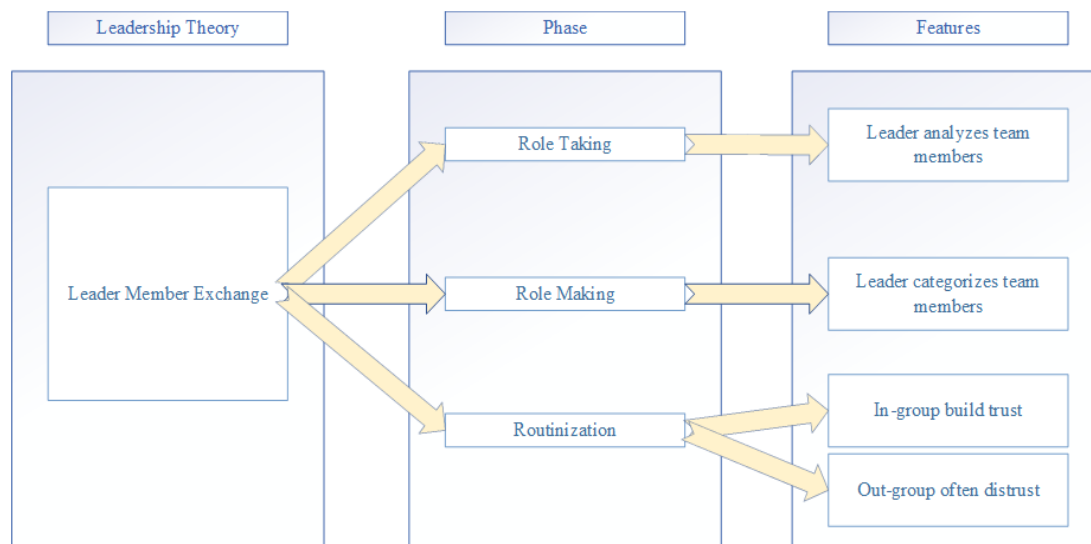
LMX theory involves three phases: role taking, role making, and routinization (Bauer & Green, 1996; see Figure 1). The role-taking stage occurs when managers analyze their new team members' qualities and skills. At this stage, the employee listens only to the leader (Sheer, 2015). The role-making stage is when managers assign tasks to team members, the members begin working, and the managers begin to categorize their teams. During this phase, leaders may hold discussions with employees to define their roles (Li & Liao, 2014). In the role-making stage, the relationships between the leader and different employees develop differently, leading to each employee playing a specific role within the organization (Park et al., 2015).

Routinization is the last phase of the LMX theory; in this stage, the relationship between the leader and the employee is now a routine practice (Sheer, 2015). Throughout routinization, members of the in-group continue to build management's trust; members of this group receive guidance and praise from the leader, contributing to meaningful career tasks and allowing them to advance within the organization (Furunes et al., 2015). In comparison, members of the out-group recognize that they cannot become management's favorites; therefore, they remain in a distrusting position of the leader, leading them to either continue to work with weak confidence or leave the organization (Jutras &

Mathieu, 2015). However, change is possible in the out-group stance because management may change how they treat the out-group members (Choi, 2013).

Figure 1

Leader-Member Exchange Phases

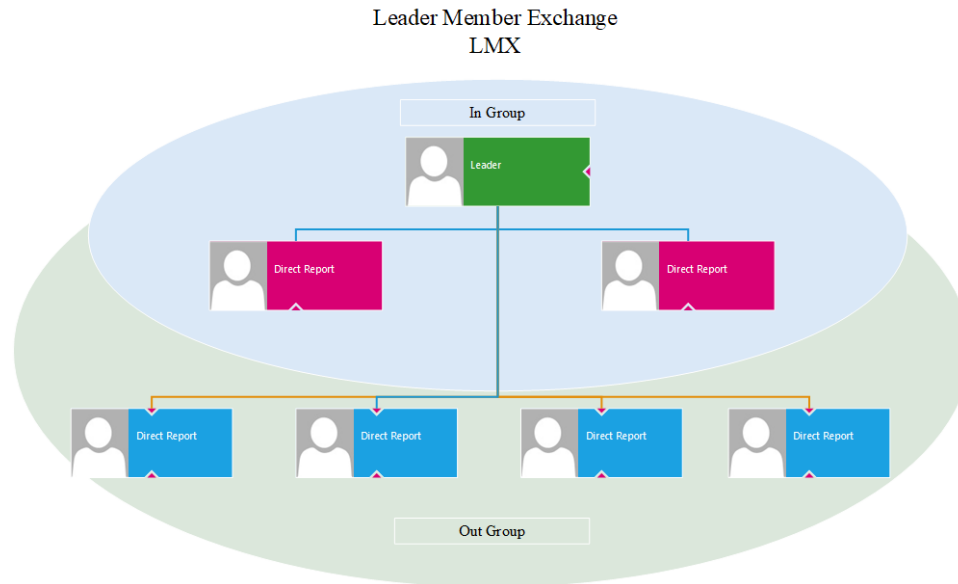


Leader Member Exchange Theory Quality of Exchange

Based on the quality of LMX theory exchanges between the leader and employees, the leader creates two groups of employees: an in-group and an out-group (Gu et al., 2013; see Figure 2). The in-group consists of employees who possess similar traits as their manager and have successfully demonstrated trustworthiness, loyalty, and competence to their leader. In exchange, the leader favors those in the in-group by offering them room for advancement (Mohamed et al., 2014). The out-group is unfavored and does not possess the leader's trust. Members of this group do not have room to grow within the team or organization due to their subconscious status in their manager's mind (Martin et al., 2015).

When using LMX theory, the researcher does not focus on leaders' actions; instead, the researcher focuses on how leaders influence subordinates creating two groups, the in-group and the out-group (Matta et al., 2015). Members of the in-group experience a high-quality LMX relationship with the leader, leading to increased levels of trust, mutual respect, and open exchange of information with the leader (Banks et al., 2013). Due to leaders' support, employees within the in-group experience validation and acceptance (Brimhall et al., 2014), resulting in significantly higher job satisfaction levels (Huang et al., 2015).

Out-group members operate outside of leaders' inner circles and must follow official company policies; leaders provide less support and incentives to out-group members (Aleksic et al., 2016). Members of the out-group experience a low-quality LMX relationship with the leader; in low-quality LMX, employees experience low trust and respect levels from leaders and less access to the leader and resources (Li & Liao, 2014). Members of the out-group engage in recognizable negative behaviors, including low performance, reduced job satisfaction, and high turnover rates (Martin et al., 2015).

Figure 2*Leader-Member Exchange*

The quality level of the interaction between the leader and the members depends on the collaboration between the leader and the individual members; the leader and member contribute to the quality of the relationship where the leader has more influence than the member (Park et al., 2015). LMX theory includes guidance on establishing high-quality LMX relationships between leaders and employees (Duncan & Herrera, 2014). Leaders often have long-term effects on teams and businesses; employees experiencing a high-quality LMX share a positive attitude (Creary et al., 2015) and positive social and emotional development (Nie & Lämsä, 2015).

In 1980, Liden and Graen used LMX theory to explain the variance in relationship quality between a leader and each employee; they found that members of the in-group enjoyed a high-quality relationship with the leader, and members of the out-group

enjoyed a low-quality relationship with the leader. The leader provides developmental support and creates mentoring opportunities for employees who are in the in-group with a high-quality relationship with the leader (Erdogan et al., 2014). A high LMX consists of mutual trust and reliable support beyond the contractual agreement (Mosley et al., 2014). A low-quality LMX shows a lack of loyalty, a lack of professional respect, and limited member contributions (Hesselgreaves & Scholarios, 2014). Using LMX to build more vital collaboration within the organization, a leader can identify the out-group and reestablish the relationship with members of the out-group individually by offering the appropriate opportunities for training, development, and advancement (Jabeen et al., 2015).

A gap in research on the LMX theory exists: the leader's inability to identify the reasons contributing to employee categorization into in-groups and out-groups is missing from the literature (Banks et al., 2013). Employees consciously or subconsciously establish a personal and professional association with the leader (Dik et al., 2014). To attain a high-quality LMX relationship, both leaders and employees must recognize and use personal strengths (Dik et al., 2014) through time to develop the working relationship into a trusting relationship (Cropanzano et al., 2014). Employees with a high-quality LMX with the leader express positive attitudes and attain organizational goals (Moideenkutty & Schmidt, 2016). By increasing the quality of the LMX relationship with the leader, an employee can increase job satisfaction (Abu Bakar et al., 2014), productivity, work quality (Kim et al., 2014), and reduce turnover intention (Li et al.,

2016). Employees are more likely to establish a high-quality LMX relationship with the leader when they have a good working relationship with the leader (Guinot et al., 2014).

Both strengths and weaknesses exist in the LMX theory (Duncan & Herrera, 2014). When working to annul previously categorized groups, managers should also realize that all team members are not truly equal; some individuals are more talented, and others are more hardworking. The goal of LMX is to offer everyone the same level of respect and the same opportunities to thrive. After that, as they move forward, individuals can create their workplace realities (Henson & Beehr, 2018).

Some researchers may interpret LMX as a leader's influence on employees; however, the true definition of LMX theory is a consensual agreement between the leader and employees' perception (Matta et al., 2015), indicating that both parties can trigger specific responses where the resulting role routinization may define job satisfaction (Cropanzano et al., 2017). Researchers must base their studies on LMX theory and be familiar with the strengths and weaknesses of LMX to formulate reliable conclusions (Matta et al., 2015).

Relational Signaling Theory

In 1988, Lindenberg introduced RST on the premise that individual actions are goal motivated and context dependent (Six, 2007). Lindenberg determined that social rules within an organization influence employee's behavior, thus establishing a correlation between organizational policies and interpersonal trust within the organization (as cited in Six, 2007). Using RST, a researcher can reliably explain interpersonal trust relations within an organization (Komiak & Benbasat, 2008). Coworkers rely on

relational signals, also known as behavioral signals, to interpret other coworkers' willingness to maintain a professional relationship and a reciprocally beneficial association (Six & Sorge, 2007). Through interaction, Lindenberg theorized that coworkers facilitate exchanging information and defining the relationship between the interacting individuals (Six, 2007). The interpretation of the relationship signals between coworkers is subjective to the perception of the involved individuals' (Komiak & Benbasat, 2008).

According to RST, leaders adjust the processes employees follow to complete work-related activities by coordinating organizational change initiatives (Maurer, 2011). Executing a change initiative as a continuous process of adjustments is essential to the change initiative's continued success and prosperity (Brännmark & Benn, 2012). The premise of RST is that employees' trust in leadership is associated with organizational conditions and social norms. Thus, RST was not suitable as the theoretical framework for this study because practicing yoga is not an organizational condition or an organizational social standard.

Employee Trust in Leadership

Trust is one's (the trustor's) willingness to accept being vulnerable to another person (the trustee) based on actions deemed essential when engaged in a mutually beneficial relationship (Mayer et al., 1995). Coworkers acquire, unlearn, and preserve trustworthiness within a given organizational setting through the interactive, interpersonal trust-building process (Six & Sorge, 2008). Trust is an individual's emotion upon deeming someone or something credible and truthful while accepting vulnerability while

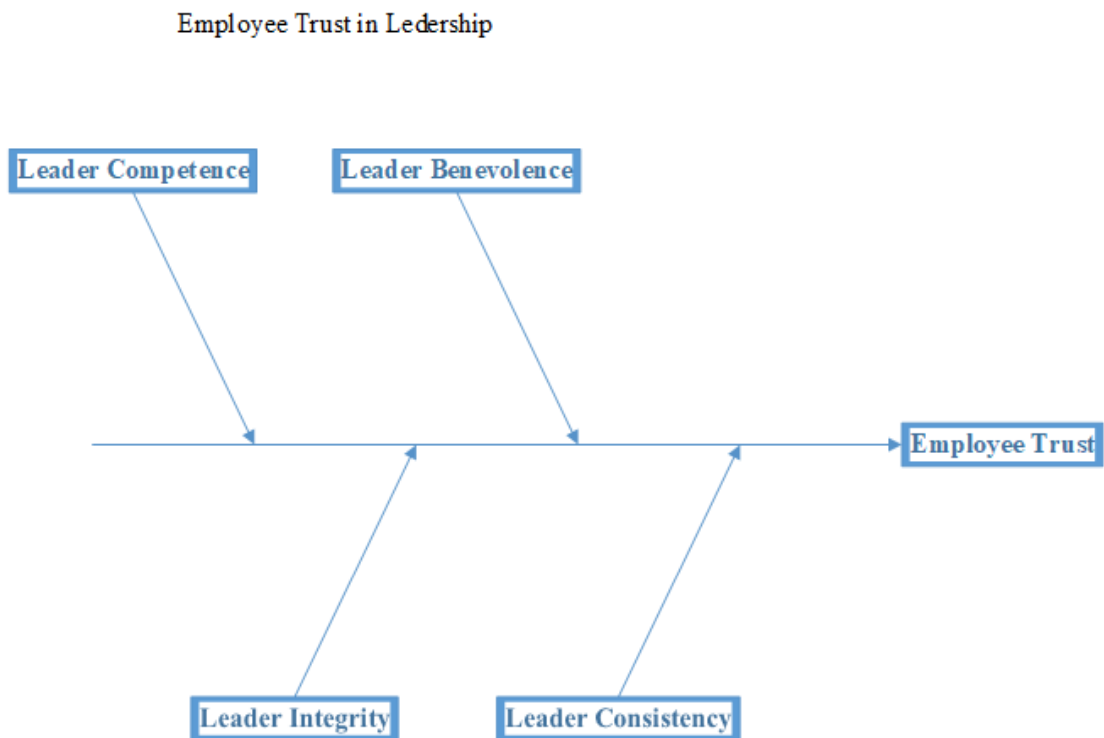
demonstrating positive expectations (Isik et al., 2015). Trust relationships occur when a party known as the trustor willingly accepts being vulnerable to another party's actions known as the trustee; the trustor has little or no ability to control the trustee's activities (Zuppa et al., 2016). Trust is a dynamic and integral component in most leadership theories (Bligh, 2017). Leadership is a social process where a party known as a leader influences a group of individuals, known as employees, towards a shared vision (Algahtani, 2014).

Employee trust in leadership is dependent on two primary components: One is the trustworthiness of the organization, and the other is the employee's propensity to trust (Zuppa et al., 2016). Trustworthiness is the perceived quality measure used by individuals to assess the outcome of trust; this perception is distinctively prevalent when a negative trust experience occurs (Clapham et al., 2014). Employees' perception of a leader as trustworthy correlates to employees' perception of the leader as genuinely caring, confident in ability, consistent with actions, and prone to following through on promises and commitments (Mayer et al., 1995). Employees' trust in leadership correlates to employees' perception of a leader's character, including integrity, ability, benevolence (Lin & Leung, 2013). Employees assess leaders' competence, benevolence, integrity, reliability, and dependability before trusting in the leaders (Lin & Leung, 2013; see Figure 3). Employees rely on previous knowledge and perception of current circumstances to make trust decisions when encountering leaders (Criado et al., 2014). Employees observe and interpret the leader's behavior to assess trustworthiness and decide whether to trust the leader (Choi et al., 2015). Leaders can implement changes to

mediate employees' trust in leadership and promote positive behavior (Drescher et al., 2014).

Figure 3

Employee Trust in Leadership



A 2015 study by Brown et al. established a converse relationship between employees' overall contribution to the organization and employees' perception of trust that leaders will treat them honestly (Brown et al., 2015). Employees are more likely to engage in work-related activities and perform duties beyond the minimum required job functions when they establish a high level of trust in the organization's leadership (Hough et al., 2015). Some employees may have a high propensity to trust their leaders

despite having a low perception of a leader's trustworthiness (Bammens & Collewaert, 2012).

Trust is the cornerstone for outstanding leadership (Bligh, 2017) and fosters a leader-employee framework in the workplace (Le & Lei, 2018). Employees' trust in organizational leadership is an integral component for employees taking ownership and responsibility for their obligations towards the organization (Boies et al., 2015). Employees who trust their leaders show increased performance by positively contributing to their organization beyond job obligations (Lu, 2014). Employees may seek trusted leaders' support as a secure base for learning and development during distress (Kafetsios et al., 2014). Employees experience a positive organizational culture when trusting leaders (Boies et al., 2015), contributing to more significant outcomes, such as improved employee retention (Bligh, 2017), increased job satisfaction (Yang, 2014), and increased innovation within the organization (Pučėtaitė, 2014). Employees' trust in organizational leadership may be the most critical social and economic asset for organizations (Kayser, 2015).

In 2016, Kashyap and Rangnekar examined interactions, exchange of values, interests, and emotions between leaders and employees; Kashyap and Rangnekar contributed to grounding trust theories in social exchange theory (SET) and LMX (Zagenczyk et al., 2015). Leaders and some employees experience high-quality LMX and thus enjoy emotional and social reciprocity (Zagenczyk et al., 2015); however, leaders do not select all employees to participate in high-quality LMX (Li & Liao, 2014). Employees selected for high-quality LMX interact with the leader differently than

employees not selected for high-quality LMX; selected employees may gain access to resources and knowledge (Park et al., 2015). Employees not selected for high-quality LMX experience LMX differentiation (Li & Liao, 2014) and may seek to formulate close relationships with employees who experience high-quality LMX in hopes of gaining access to additional resources and knowledge (Erdogan et al., 2014). Researchers have demonstrated a correlation between employees' trust in leadership and the following:

- organizational citizenship behaviors (Lu, 2014),
- organizational innovation (Puçétaitè, 2014),
- job satisfaction (Yang, 2014),
- employee performance (Zhu & Akhtar, 2014),
- leaders can earn employees' trust by promoting some or all of the following factors (Ansari & Malik, 2017): effective communication (Seifert et al., 2016), standards for honesty and integrity (Faraji & Begzadeh, 2017), leadership consideration (Jo et al., 2015), strategic planning (Cho & Poister, 2014), perception of fairness and productivity in the organization (Vanhala & Ritala, 2016), perceived risk (Knight et al., 2015), and career development (Cho & Poister, 2014).

Leader Competence

Competence is the combination of experiences, skills, and abilities an employee must possess to successfully perform employment duties (Brière et al., 2015). Skills include time management, and abilities include collaboration with others and the ability to respond to challenges of the working environment (Williams et al., 2015). A leader's

competence is the combination of soft and hard skills mastered by the leader and implemented as an essential guiding principle for organizational effectiveness and productivity (Meijerink et al., 2015). Soft competence skills utilized by influential leaders are a) self-awareness, b) managing time efficiently, c) possessing the necessary interpersonal and social skills to empathize with employees, and d) being capable of motivating employees to attain organizational objectives (Ingols & Shapiro, 2013). Hard competency skills include a) technical knowledge of the organization's product lines, b) thoroughness and consistency, c) a strong sense of purpose and determination, d) intelligence, and e) vision (Ingols & Shapiro, 2013). A leader's interpersonal skills influence the performance of employees within the organization (Pope, 2015).

The ability aspect of a leader's trustworthiness is the "can do" and "will do" act in a particular manner (Jacobsen & Bøgh Andersen, 2015). Competent leaders demonstrate the willingness to take the necessary actions to build trustworthy relationships with employees (Caldwell & Ndalamba, 2017). Employees who experience a thriving relationship with leaders perceive leaders as competent (Roy et al., 2015).

Benevolent Leadership

Benevolent leaders show care for employees in both the work and non-work environments (Zhang et al., 2015). Like servant leadership, benevolent leadership contributes to a positive impact on organizational culture and encourages employees beyond the job descriptions' minimum requirements (Northouse, 2016). Benevolent leadership, directly and indirectly, contributes to an overall positive organizational culture (Ghosh, 2015). Employees mirror leaders' behavior, and a benevolent leader can

inspire employees (Bonner et al., 2016). Leaders may accomplish an organizational objective by modeling benevolent behavior (Bischak & Woiceshyn, 2015). Benevolent leadership may contribute to increased employee trust in leadership (Wang & Hackett, 2015).

Leader Integrity

Integrity is the commitment to perform duties and obligations as agreed upon without having alternative motives devoid of betrayal of trust (Monga, 2016).

Employees' perceptions of a leader's integrity are central in determining whether leaders can gain their employees' trust (Moorman et al., 2018). Ethical leaders' conduct positively correlates with increased job satisfaction by employees (Yang, 2014).

Leader Consistency

Leaders displaying predictable actions narrow the gap between risk and trustworthiness (Ratnasingam, 2017). Employees view leaders as more trustworthy when leaders' actions are consistent and predictable, thus meeting employees' expectations (Chang et al., 2016). Leaders' predictability contributes to trustworthiness (Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2015).

Employee Empowerment

The ability to autonomously perform job duties combined with the feeling of being valued are typical behaviors of empowered employees (Mohapatra & Mishra, 2018). Empowered employees work for transparent leaders that share the organization's performance objectives and results, then guide employees on effectively contributing to the overall organization's objectives (Potnuru et al., 2019). Therefore, empowerment is a

management tool and a process of providing employees the power, freedom, and information that guides them to proactively contribute to the organization's operation objectives (Hanaysha, 2016). Employee empowerment occurs when leaders allow employees to develop self-leadership and remove obstacles that prevent the achievement of personal and organizational goals (Demirtas, 2013). Employees' experience self-leadership or empowerment when employees can make decisions without seeking leaders' approval (Lizar et al., 2015). Leaders empowering employees to contribute to new ideas proactively are essential to attaining a competitive advantage (Appelbaum et al., 2015). Empowered employees confidently perform job functions and experience a positive energy flow; empowered employees contribute to meaningful customer engagement (Jauhari et al., 2017). Researchers positively correlated employees' empowerment with employees' increased job satisfaction and increased employees' trust in organizational leadership (Carasco-Saul et al., 2014), and positively contributed to organizational citizenship behavior (Wang, 2015).

Yoga Practice

Yoga practice is essential to promoting improved health and mental relaxation through a physical activity aligned with a meditative breathing technique (Axén & Follin, 2017). Researchers examining yoga showed that physical movement, such as yoga, can promote psychological health and improved self-efficacy (Sadana et al., 2018). Employees may prevent burn-out by offering self-care and greater resilience to stress utilizing a yoga practice (Clark, 2018). Humans can relieve stress, improve heart rate

variation, regulate blood pressure, and regulate respiration rate by practicing yoga regularly (Mariappan & Subramanian, 2018).

Individuals suffering from emotional distress can improve life's quality by practicing yoga (McGovern & Cheung, 2018). By practicing yoga techniques, a person could improve self-regulation, increase the ability to cope with daily stressors, and attain peace of mind (Manickam & Siyad, 2018). Short term benefits of yoga include improved emotional reactivity and overall well-being; long term benefits of yoga include improved and deepened breathing and the ability to experience emotions with less intensity (Mocanu et al., 2018). A weekly yoga practice will significantly reduce the impact of generalized anxiety disorder (Rosenberg, 2018) and contributes to a significant improvement in memory, concentration, and planning (Sellen, 2018). By promoting yoga in the workplace, employers encourage a healthy lifestyle and reduce leave of absence due to illness (Rocha et al., 2018).

Researchers have found that individuals practicing yoga experience less emotional distress and improved quality of life (Nguyen-Feng et al., 2019). Individuals practicing yoga showed improved sleep patterns, decreased burnout, and enhanced cognitive clarity and physical well-being (Grensman et al., 2018). Individuals who participate in yoga report increased energy levels (Schulz-Heik et al., 2017). There is a significant correlation between practicing yoga and the ability to focus and concentrate (Combs et al., 2018). Practicing yoga improves participants' interpretation of their abilities to accomplish goals (Bevis et al., 2018).

Stressed adults who started a yoga practice showed significant reductions in stress and improved self-efficacy (Hewett et al., 2018). Participating in yoga practice and mindfulness exercises reduces stress (Bazzano et al., 2018) and chronic fatigue symptoms. (Oka et al., 2018). Individuals practicing yoga reduced weight and anxiety (Himashree et al., 2016), enjoyed improved behavioral, emotional, and physical self-regulation and resilience (Sullivan et al., 2018). Individuals going through difficult times were able to lighten their mood and ultimately improve their quality of life by practicing yoga (Koch et al., 2017).

Yoga includes elements that enhance the mind-body connection: physical movement, meditation, controlled breathing, and relaxation (Li et al., 2018). By practicing yoga, individuals may control blood pressure (Wolff et al., 2017), reduce body weight, improve physical and psychological responses (Yadav et al., 2016). People who participate in a combination of physical yoga movements, meditation, and breathing can alleviate distress (Oates, 2017), improve self-care (Anderson et al., 2017), improve mental and social well-being (Tew et al., 2017), increase the quality of life, and decrease susceptibility to disease (Cramer et al., 2017).

Yoga is a healthy means of exercise with minimal physical risk (Cramer et al., 2018). Yoga participants report increased mindfulness (Thind et al., 2017), improved mood (Bock et al., 2017), and enhanced stress tolerance (Chen et al., 2017). People practice yoga for happiness, inner freedom (Kidd & Eatough, 2017), and improved self-image. (Cox et al., 2017). When practicing yoga, adults may enhance physical strength, flexibility, endurance (Miller et al., 2017) and decline healthcare needs (Cramer et al.,

2017) while enjoying excellent mental health (Birdee et al., 2017). A weekly yoga practice consisting of 10 minutes per day results in a significant improvement of memory, concentration, and planning (Sellen, 2018).

Job Satisfaction

Throughout time researchers defined job satisfaction in many ways. In 1976, Locke stated that job satisfaction is a positive expression resulting from experience at work. In 2013, a definition by Islam et al. perceived job satisfaction as what comes about from individuals because of supervision, environment, policies, type of work they do, and overall interpretation of job satisfaction in comparison to personal needs. In 2015, Pan et al. explained that job satisfaction conversely correlates with employee effectiveness. In 2016, Chamberlain et al. described job satisfaction as a combination of feelings from values and task performance in a job.

Researchers have studied job satisfaction in relation to various factors and explored topics in conjunction with job satisfaction, such as access to resources, support and encouragement, the perception of control, and autonomy; thus, researchers have different viewpoints on job satisfaction (Barnett, 2018). Some job satisfaction researchers examined employee perception compared to reality; employees' perception of work-life is the relevant factor in establishing job satisfaction (Tomazevic et al., 2014). An empowering work environment may create a positive atmosphere leading to job satisfaction (De Almeida et al., 2017).

In 2016, Ruch et al. compared team roles to job satisfaction and concluded that employees within a team performing in the proper role based on individual character

strengths experience the most considerable amount of overall satisfaction. Employees not performing in the appropriate position within a team and not according to individual character strengths may experience the feeling of having little room to grow within the organization (Ruch et al., 2016). Job fit and job role are what leads to employee satisfaction and retention; job satisfaction results in retention, stability, and motivation; all areas that are influenced by relationships amongst the full team (Cowin & Moroney, 2018). Employees have perceptions regarding satisfaction as they pertain to the roles performed within the organization; however, some traits, such as extraversion, do not automatically equate to job satisfaction, as many other factors can contribute to satisfaction or dissatisfaction on the job (Harari et al., 2018).

Job satisfaction is an employee's general perception of how well the job provides the fulfillment of a need (Bakotić, 2016). Employees rates job satisfaction based on several factors such as employees' perception of working conditions, the interference between home and work environments, and employees' general well-being and control at work (Tomazevic et al., 2014). Even if employees are in the proper roles for their personalities, a possibility still exists that these individuals may not be reaching the goals set for them in their jobs and may, therefore, remain dissatisfied (Harari et al., 2018). Employees with positive self-efficacy demonstrate increased job satisfaction; employees who participate in activities they are good at are happier (Skaalvik, M., & Skaalvik, S., 2017).

Employees demonstrating lower job satisfaction are more likely to seek a different employer (Zhu et al., 2014). Employees with increased trust in leadership also

demonstrate increased job satisfaction levels (Erdeji et al., 2016); empowered employees experience increased job satisfaction (Mulki et al., 2014). Leaders have a direct effect on employee's job satisfaction (Chen et al., 2015). In 2014, Yang demonstrated a correlation between the leader's relationship and the employees' job satisfaction. Employees experiencing a positive leader-member exchange also experience increased job satisfaction (Brimhall et al., 2014). Employees satisfied with their jobs are loyal employees and do not seek a job change (Nanna, 2018). Employees who can process their emotions towards any assigned role may be more inclined to feel satisfied ultimately (Rai, & Tandon, 2018). School teachers positively correlated a learning goal structure, rather than a performance goal structure, with teachers' levels of job satisfaction and their levels of engagement in their jobs (Skaalvik, M., & Skaalvik, S., 2017). Incorporating gratitude for employee presence and work into regular interaction helps reduce job dissatisfaction and increase retention (Stegen & Wankier, 2018).

Leaders who focus on creating common ground by understanding employee's viewpoints enable employees to be intellectually stimulated and more inclined to work through any issues they have, rather than leaving their roles and conclusively assisting with retention goals. Ultimately, this type of approach can result in job satisfaction for both involved parties (Hussein & Wahidi, 2018). Employees who understood and met their goals were conclusively satisfied in their roles; employees were psychologically motivated and viewed their careers as valuable and workplaces as necessary (Ahmadi et al., 2018).

Organizational Change

Organizational leaders must continuously implement change initiatives and maintain efficient and competitive operational practices; organizational change includes establishing effective procedures, improving processes, and enhancing employee morale (Keyser et al., 2016). Organizational change initiatives fail at a 70% rate, partly because of employees' low trust in organizational leadership (Kotter, 2014). Organizational leaders recognize that adapting to change is vital for organizations to remain efficient and competitive (Burke, 2014). To successfully implement an organizational change, leaders and employees must collaborate to maintain the organization efficiently operational (Firoozmand, 2013). Organizational leaders must prepare employees to embrace the change and align employees' vision with the organization's view of the change (Codini, 2015). Leaders can create a state of organizational readiness through effective communication with employees while affecting the change (De Smet et al., 2012). When leaders align the messages initiated by the change effort with the leader, employees, and stakeholders' actions, provide the necessary support for the leader and the change initiative; employees follow leaders that establish a consistent alignment of actions and communication. (Choi et al., 2015).

When leaders utilize effective communication strategies, employees increase trust in leadership, improve productivity, and establish a successful working relationship within the organization (Mishra et al., 2014). Engaged employees can facilitate a positive relationship with leaders (Yoerger et al., 2015); when employees experience low trust in leadership, they also experience little job satisfaction and job performance (Zhang &

Zhou, 2014). Employees' trust in leadership mediates a positive relationship between transformational leadership and employees' job satisfaction (Yang, 2014).

Organizational change takes place over time, and employees may experience periods of unguided business processes; employees need encouragement and ongoing support as they adapt and adjust to the changes taking place; leaders must provide the necessary guidance and support to facilitate the success of the change effort (Firoozmand, 2013). Without continued support and encouragement, employees may attempt to revert to the old ways of doing business or attempt to use their judgments in deciding what is best for the organization; doing so may be counterproductive to the organizational change efforts.

Executives often overlook some of the critical ingredients necessary to make organizational change initiatives successful (De Smet et al., 2012). Leaders can implement organizational change as a project focused on realizing organizational strategy (Sánchez & Schneider, 2014). Implementing organizational change initiatives as a project is critical for successfully achieving the desired organizational change (Hyväri, 2016). The leader's priority is to understand the organization's capacity to accommodate the proposed change initiative and ensure a successful implementation initiative (Fuchs & Prouska, 2014).

Transition

Section 1 includes an overview of the direction I followed for researching yoga's role in mediating the relationship between employee trust in leadership and job satisfaction in a professional working environment. Section 1 includes the study's

background, followed by the problem statement, which consists of a general business problem and a specific business problem. Section 1 also includes a brief description of the purpose, the research methodology, research design, dependent and independent variables, research population, geographical location, and contribution to social change. Additionally, section 1 includes a synopsis of the study's nature, explaining the validity of the methodology selected. Section 1 also consists of the research question, hypothesis, the theoretical framework for the study, assumptions, limitations, delimitations, the study's significance, and a review of the current professional and academic literature.

In Section 2, I restated the purpose of the study and defined my role as a researcher. It also includes my approach to gaining access to the participants, establishing relationships with the participants, and ensuring their input and anonymity. In Section 2, I also explained the research method, design, the sample population and address potential ethical concerns. Finally, in Section 2, I define the data collection instrument, the data collection process, outline the data analysis methodology, and address study reliability and validity assurances.

In Section 3, I restated the study's purpose and summarized the findings from my research. I included a discussion of the application of the findings to the professional and business practices, implications of my study's findings for social change, recommendations for actions, and future research from the conclusions. I closed Section 3 by reflecting on my experiences, biases, ideas, and effects of my DBA Doctoral study journey. I also included my statement of conclusion relevant to the research questions, the hypotheses, the theoretical framework, and the problem statement.

Section 2: The Project

In Section 2, I restate the purpose of the study and define my role as a researcher. The section includes my approach to gaining access to the participants, establishing a relationship with the participants, and ensuring their input and anonymity. In Section 2, I explain the research method, design, and sample population and address potential ethical concerns. Finally, I define the data collection instrument and the data collection process, outline the data analysis methodology, and address study reliability and validity concerns.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the moderating effect of practicing yoga on the relationship between employee trust in leadership and employee job satisfaction. Employee trust in management was the independent variable, employee job satisfaction was the dependent variable, and practicing yoga was the moderating variable. This study's target population was full-time professionals living in the Baltimore County or Baltimore City vicinities who work a minimum of 40 hours per week and may or may not participate in a yoga practice as part of a weekly routine. Study findings may provide knowledge that business leaders can use to develop safe and ethical workplace programs that encourage employees to trust their leaders. The implications for social change include the potential for employees to grow in conscious activism and body awareness and better their relations with others by observing and improving their relationship with the self.

Role of the Researcher

In quantitative research, the researcher collects, analyzes, interprets data and presents the findings (Onen, 2016). In this quantitative correlational study, I collected data utilizing SurveyMonkey, an internet-based survey platform. I then relied on statistical significance testing and analyzed the survey data examining the relationships among job satisfaction and employee trust in management and practice yoga empowerment.

In quantitative research, the participants respond to the survey independently from the researcher (Johnson, 2014). The researcher relies on statistical significance testing to interpret the results and present findings (Onen, 2016). Careful quantitative research produces consistent findings (Onen, 2016). The researcher uses a personal worldview to interpret the results (Simon, 2011). The researcher's absolute values, past experiences, and personal worldview may lead to a possible bias when interpreting the analysis results.

I have been practicing yoga weekly since 2010; since then, I have experienced a noticeable increase in job satisfaction and my trust relationships with friends, coworkers, and leaders. My personal experience may have contributed to bias in interpreting the survey results; I mitigated this potential bias by utilizing a standardized survey instrument, adhering to the instrument's approved methods of use, and avoiding leading participants into specific answers and outcomes. I provided the participants with a consent form detailing (a) the business problem, (b) the purpose of my study, (c) the nature of my study, (d) my research question, (e) my hypothesis, (f) the significance of my study, (g) potential benefits to organizations, and (h) the ability to withdraw at any

time from the study without retribution. Each participant signed the consent before taking the survey. Furthermore, I abided by the Belmont Report's ethical principles (National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral Research, 1979) to mitigate research bias and ensure respect for individuals, beneficiaries, and justice. I also ensured that survey data were confidential and secure and that engaging in the research did not harm any of the participants.

Participants

In a successful research study, the researcher defines the inclusion and exclusion of data based on eligibility criteria (LaBonte & Kilpatrick, 2017). The target population for this study included (a) college graduates who were (b) employed full-time, (c) professionals, and (d) living in the Baltimore County or Baltimore City vicinity. I ensured the anonymity of the participants and secured any personally identifiable information collected during the research.

Research Method and Design

Researchers utilizing quantitative research methodology first create a hypothesized relationship between measurable variables, then analyze and interpret the results to attain additional knowledge (Bentahar & Cameron, 2015). In utilizing correlational nonexperimental designs, the researcher examines the relationship between two or more variables without inferring causation (Martí, 2015).

Research Method

There are three main research approaches: quantitative, qualitative, and mixed (Runfola et al., 2017). In quantitative research methodology, the researcher develops the

logic and strategy for data collection before conducting the research (Onen, 2016), utilizes mathematical methods to examine numerical data, and relies on the calculations to form the findings' basis (McCusker & Gunaydin, 2014). Researchers develop a worldview based on their personal philosophy and experience that may be (a) pragmatic, (b) constructivist, (c), and postpositivist (Neuman & Guterman, 2016). For this study, I identified the logic and data collection strategy prior to conducting the research and relied on mathematical methods to examine the numerical data. I concluded that a quantitative method with a postpositivist view was valid for this study.

In qualitative methodology, researchers examine methods and objects to explain unquantifiable meanings (Rosenthal, 2016). Researchers do not have to initiate the research effort from a specific prestated starting point, nor do they have to follow a series of predefined steps; instead, the researcher integrates the research modules into a reasoned, feasible system (Maxwell, 2013). Although I did not seek to define the meaning of concepts, I had a predefined starting point and a predetermined sequence of steps. Therefore, a qualitative method was not the correct methodology for this study.

A mixed approach involves utilizing both qualitative and quantitative methods (Christ, 2013). Mixed methods methodology is best suited for complex interventions (Thamhain, 2014) or a multilevel, evidence-based practice implementation such as policy research that requires a deep understanding of success and failures (Green et al., 2014). Because mixed methods require qualitative methodology, a mixed approach was not satisfactory for this study.

Research Design

There are four quantitative designs: correlational, experimental, quasi-experimental, and casual comparative (Hales, 2016). Researchers use a correlational study to measure the degree to which two or more variables relate (Park & Park, 2016; Rutberg & Bouikidis, 2018); a correlational study does not imply causation and does not involve a random group of participants. A correlational design was suitable for this study because this study's objective was to measure the degree to which practicing yoga moderates employee trust in leadership and employee job satisfaction.

In a quasi-experiment, the researcher uses an experimental design on current groups instead of random groups. The researcher conducts a pretest before administering the intervention and conducts the same test after the intervention; the researcher analyzes the two test results to conclude the findings (Campbell et al., 1963). A quasi-experiment was not applicable for this study because the research did not involve pre-and posttesting.

In an experimental design, the researcher tests a hypothesis and establishes a cause-and-effect relationship using a control group and an experimental group; with the participants randomly assigned to the groups, the researcher has control over potentially confounding variables (Al-Thani & Semmar, 2017; Rutberg & Bouikidis, 2018). The experimental design was not suitable for this research because the study's objective was not to establish a cause-and-effect relationship between the variables. Additionally, a control group was not necessary to complete the study.

In a casual comparative design, the researcher compares two groups to establish the causes or consequences of differences that already exist between or among groups;

casual comparative design lacks randomization (Omar, 2015). The causal-comparative design was not appropriate for this study because the objective of this research was to measure the degree to which practicing yoga moderates employees' trust in leadership and employees' job satisfaction. This study did not involve two pre-existing groups of employees; Thus, I could not establish causes or consequences of differences that already exist between or among those who practice yoga on a weekly basis and those who do not practice yoga on a weekly basis.

Population and Sampling

When conducting quantitative research, the researcher targets a defined population for data collection purposes; then utilizes either a nonprobabilistic or probabilistic topology for data sampling (Onen, 2016). The researcher then numerically analyzes the data and then interprets it to explain the findings (Johnson, 2014). Non-probabilistic sampling procedures are availability, purposive, quota, and snowball; probabilistic sampling procedures include simple random sampling, stratified sampling, systematic sampling, and cluster sampling (Landrum & Garza, 2015).

Population

This study's target population was full time, professionally employed college graduates living in the Baltimore County or Baltimore City vicinity. It was not possible to calculate the size of the targeted population. I utilized SurveyMonkey to facilitate user participation in the survey, data collection, and managing the results.

Sampling

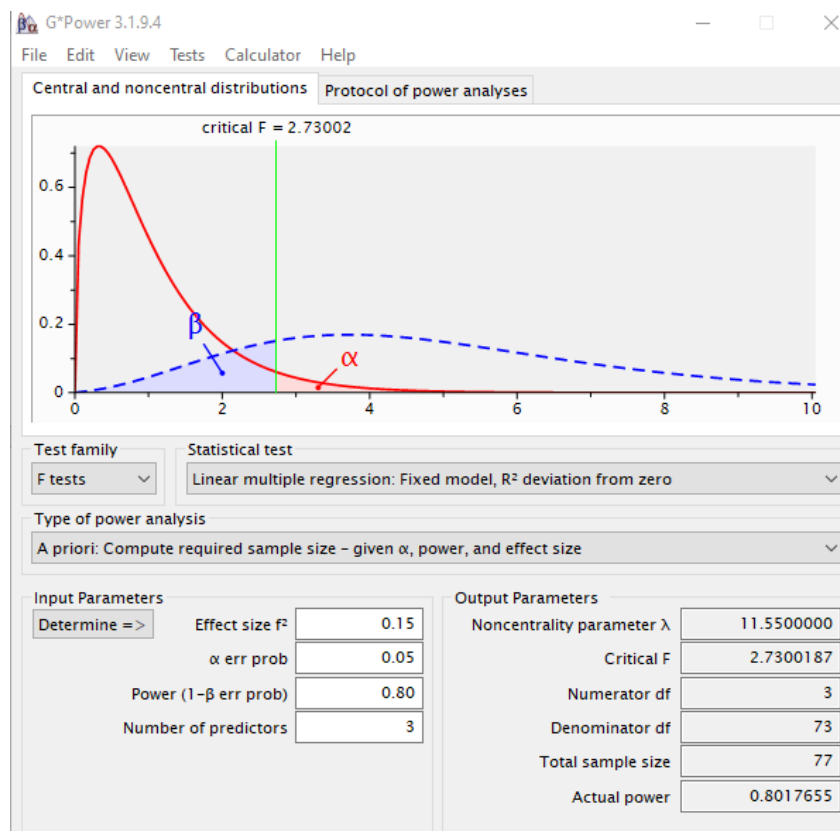
The two main categories for sampling are probabilistic and nonprobabilistic; in probabilistic sampling, the entire study population has an equal chance for participating in the study (Barker et al., 2015). A nonprobabilistic method is appropriate for a study when the researcher can identify a population of interest; however, a complete population list is not available (Mukhtar, 2015). I utilized a nonprobabilistic convenience sampling. Nonprobabilistic was an appropriate method for my study because the entire population is unknown, and it was not possible to determine who would agree to complete the survey. Convenience sampling was an appropriate sampling technique when the sample population is conveniently accessible to the researcher (Barker et al., 2015). Convenience sampling is inexpensive, easy to administer (Mukhtar, 2015); however, convenience samples may not represent the entire population, may contain sample bias. Researchers using convenience sampling may conclude results with a low external validity due to generalized results to a specific population. (Emerson, 2015). To mitigate the weaknesses of convenience sampling, I issued my survey to a larger population.

The analysis of multiple regression studies evaluating the independent and dependent variables' variance requires statistical power that evaluates the alpha level and effect size, which an a priori sample does (Field, 2016). The a priori power analysis assumed a medium effect size of .15 ($f^2 = .15$) and $\alpha = .05$ to achieve a power of .80 and .95. Thus, using G*Power 3 software for F -test; multiple regression; deviation from zero with medium effect size ($f^2 = .15$); three predictor variables; $\alpha = .05$; power = .80; I

calculated a range of 73 to 77 participants as the appropriate sample size for this study (see Figure 4).

Figure 4

*G*Power Calculation*



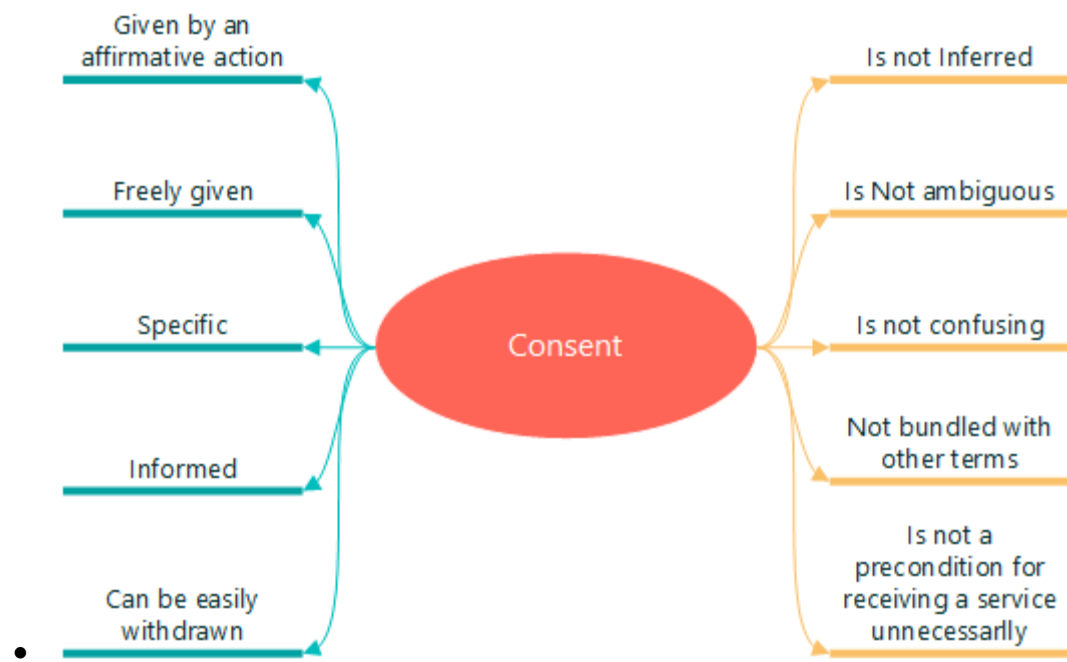
Ethical Research

I published an invitation to participate in my study on social media sites such as Facebook and LinkedIn with a link to SurveyMonkey's research study. By clicking the survey link on the social media site, the participants could navigate to the research site hosted by SurveyMonkey. The consent form was the first screen available; participants checked the box and clicked the button affirming consent to participate in the study.

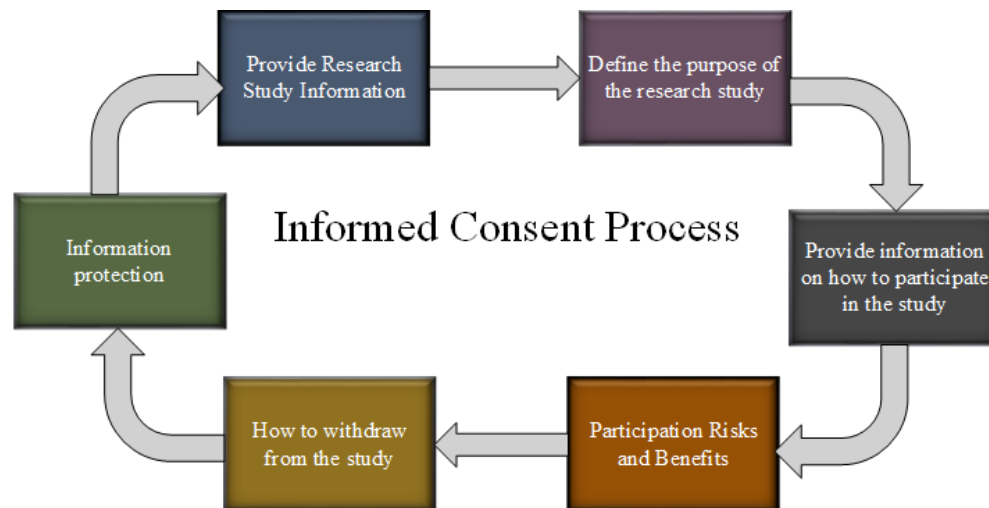
Figure 5 depicts acceptable consent qualities and unacceptable consent qualities. To ensure research transparency, the consent form contained the following content:

- specific information about the research study
- specific instructions on how to participate in the study
- information on potential risks
- a statement emphasizing the voluntary nature of participation and the right to withdraw without consequences
- an overview of data confidentiality and information protection processes
- a checkbox to indicate agreement to participate

To participate in the research study, each participant needed to acknowledge reading and understanding the consent form, agree to participate in the research study, and manually check the agreement to participate checkbox after reading and understanding the consent information.

Figure 5*Consent Qualities*

Participants who declined to check the agreement box were thanked and not allowed to participate in the study. None of the participants received incentives for participating in the research. Any participant had the option to withdraw from the study at any time without any consequences; I excluded the withdrawn participants' data from the study results. Figure 6 represents the informed consent process.

Figure 6*Informed Consent Process*

These processes allowed participants to understand the voluntary nature of study participation. Participants in the study had the opportunity to withdraw the consent they previously agreed to at any point in the study without any negative repercussions or consequences. The questionnaire did not include any personally identifiable information about the participant or the participant's employment place. I will maintain the data in a locked cabinet to which only I have access for 5 years before destruction. Walden University's Institutional Review Board approved this doctoral study. The approval number is 10-30-20-0344470.

Data Collection Instruments

I used two standardized instruments in this study: the Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey and the Job Satisfaction Scale (JSS). As a prescreening measure, I asked participants if they participate in a weekly yoga program. Raw data from the research study is available upon request from the researcher.

Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey

Chathoth et al. developed the Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey in 2011. The Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey instrument consists of 19 questions measuring three concepts: (a) integrity (seven questions), (b) commitment (seven questions), (c), and dependability (five questions). There was an ordinal 10-point Likert-type scale for each question in the survey where 1 = *strongly disagree* and 10 = *strongly agree*. The summation of the participant's answers for all questions is the value for each participant's Trust in Management variable. The overall Trust in Management score for each participant is between 19 and 190.

One of my objectives in this study was to assess Employees' trust in management; the Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey's responses served as proxy indicators that measure the amount of trust employees have in the organization's management, which was consistent with the objective of my study. The participants will have access to the questionnaires containing items from the Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey by gaining access to SurveyMonkey's survey site. Participants should be able to complete the survey within 15 minutes and submit the questionnaires through SurveyMonkey's link.

Chathoth et al. (2011) developed the hospitality industry instrument by examining the hospitality industry applied research and consulting with hotel industry faculty members and practitioners. In a study involving 7410 participants from the service industry in India and the United States in 2011, Chathoth et al. examined the similarities and differences between the United States and Indian employees for their integrity,

commitment, and dependability. The Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey is normalized for both male and female employees in the hotel industry within the United States and India.

In 2012 Zeffane utilized the Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey to examine communication between service employees and supervisors in Australia. In 2010 Andreescu and Vito asserted that the analysis of variance was suitable to determine validity and reliability for the Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey, and the results established the instrument as highly valid in a sample of both American and Indian hotel workers, with Cronbach's alpha values ranging from .76 to .98, which correspond with good to excellent reliability.

There are no known adjustments or revisions to the Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey instrument. Based on the high ratings of the Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey's reliability, the construct validity, and the extended use of this scale in numerous research studies, the Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey is the best instrument to measure the level of Employee Trust in Management. Appendix A displays the Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey. Appendix B displays the permission to use the instrument in this study.

Job Satisfaction Survey

In 1985 Spector developed the JSS. Utilizing the JSS, a researcher can evaluate nine job satisfaction components relevant to overall satisfaction (Spector, 1997). The JSS survey consists of 36 items to measure nine sub-subscales of job satisfaction (pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures,

coworkers, nature of work, and communication) or four items for each of the sub-scales. Participants' self-report consists of a 6-point Likert ordinal scale of measurement. Each response scores either (1 = Disagree very much, 2 = Disagree moderately, 3 = Disagree slightly, 4 = Agree slightly, 5 = Agree moderately, 6 = Agree very much) (Spector, 1985). The overall job satisfaction score for each participant is between 36 and 216 (Spector, 1985).

High scores on the scale represent job satisfaction; questions 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 19, 21, 23, 24, 26, 29, 31, 32, 34, and 36 are negatively worded; the research must reverse the scoring for each participant's answers before calculating the total for each participant. The possible scoring range for the JSS is from 36 to 216; dissatisfaction ranges from 36-108; satisfaction ranges from 144-216, and between 108 and 144 is neutral. Batura et al. (2016) determined the JSS validity exceeding 0.7; Orhan et al. (2016) Utilized the JSS in a quantitative correlational study to measure job satisfaction. Saiti and Papadopoulos (2015) utilized the JSS to examine primary school teachers' job satisfaction in Athens, Greece. Darmody and Smyth (2016) used the JSS to examine job satisfaction for school principals.

The participants gained access to the questionnaires containing items from the Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey by gaining access to the survey site via SurveyMonkey. Participants then completed and submitted the questionnaires through Survey Monkey's link.

Utilizing the JSS, a researcher calculates the overall job satisfaction score from the sum of the nine subscales within the JSS based on nine facets of employee attitudes.

The subscales of the JSS correlate strongly with overall job satisfaction, with the assumption that each subscale contributes equally to the overall job satisfaction; the sum of the scores for the nine subscales approximates overall job satisfaction (Spector, 1997).

The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) is the “gold standard” of job satisfaction scales (Landy et al., 1994, p. 271). The JSS correlated consistently with similar subscales of the JDI ($r = .61$ to $r = .80$), demonstrating convergent validity, but not with non-corresponding subscales, demonstrating discriminant validity (Spector, 1985). The correlations between the corresponding subscales were also higher than the subscales' intercorrelations within the surveys (Spector, 1985). Cronbach's alpha value for internal consistency reliability is .82 for the supervision subscale, with a total alpha of .91 (Spector, 2011). Test-retest reliability estimates range from .37 to .74 for the subscales and .71 for the total scale (Spector, 1985).

Based on the high ratings of the JSS's reliability and construct validity and the extended use of this scale in numerous research studies, the JSS was the best instrument to measure the level of job satisfaction. Spector permits the use of the JSS free of charge for non-commercial educational and research purposes with the condition that the researchers utilizing the scale send a copy of their results for norming and bibliographic purposes (Spector, 2011). Appendix C displays the JSS Survey, and Appendix D displays the permission to use the instrument.

Data Collection Technique

For this research study, I utilized SurveyMonkey to electronically administer the collection of data from the participants based on the two previously validated

instruments. Using a web-based survey, the researcher uses consistent processes to collect, store, organize and total the data collected. Using a web-based survey, the participants could complete the survey at a convenient time without feeling rushed; the participants would also feel less pressured to complete the survey or provide biased responses (Bromley et al., 2015). The most significant disadvantage of web-based surveys is that participants may forget to complete the survey timely, at which point the researcher may send a reminder email. I published an invitation to participate in my study on social media sites such as Facebook and LinkedIn with a link to SurveyMonkey's research study. I used SurveyMonkey as the Internet-based software application to collect the study data by using the following steps:

- I published an invitation to participate in my study on social media sites such as Facebook and LinkedIn with a link to SurveyMonkey's research study.
- Upon following the link, the participants saw the consent form for the study. The participants acknowledged receiving the consent form and agreed to participate in the study to continue to the survey.
- The participants gained access to the questionnaires containing items from the previously validated instruments, the Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey (see Appendix A) and the JSS (see Appendix C).
- Participants completed and submitted the questionnaires through SurveyMonkey's website.

- I utilized SurveyMonkey to collect the participants' answers to the questionnaire anonymously. I ensured no identifiers link the participants to their survey responses with the survey data.
- I utilized SurveyMonkey to collect and organize the data in a retrievable data file format.
- Upon the expiration of the period for data collection, I will download the data into an Excel file.
- I will set a password to protect the file and store it onto an external USB stick in a locked cabinet for 5 years.

Data Analysis

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the moderating effect of practicing yoga on the relationship between employee trust in leadership and employee job satisfaction. To achieve the study's objective, I analyzed the moderator variable's predictive effect, practicing yoga, the independent variable employee trust in management, and the interaction between practicing yoga and employee trust in management on the dependent variable, job satisfaction.

The research question was, Does practicing yoga moderate the relationship between employee trust in leadership and employee job satisfaction? I formulated the following research hypotheses between job satisfaction and employee trust in leadership amongst professionals:

H_0 : Yoga practice does not moderate the relationship between employee trust in leadership and job satisfaction.

*H*₁: Yoga practice does moderate the relationship between employee trust in leadership and job satisfaction.

Using regression analysis, researchers can identify how a change in an independent variable or variables might affect the dependent variable; linear multiple regression analysis was the appropriate analysis type when there is more than one independent variable (Armor et al., 2016). Multiple linear regression was appropriate for this study since the research question is about a predictive relationship between multiple independent variables practicing yoga (*Z*), trust in management (*X*), the interaction between practicing yoga and employee trust in management (*Z***X*), and the dependent variable job satisfaction (*Y*). The predictor variables in the regression are *X*, *Z*, *X***Z*, and *Y* is the dependent variable.

Researchers can examine moderating variables in several different ways, including their statistical significance, semi-partial correlation, and regression coefficients. The semi-partial correlation, the third variable holds constant for *X* or *Y* but not for both; thus, semi-partial correlation analysis was not suitable. Even when standardized, regression coefficients do not generalize across studies and are, at best, ordinal measures of magnitude (LeBreton et al., 2013).

Hierarchical multiple regression analysis is a statistical analysis suitable for measuring the interaction effect between the variables; the researcher chooses when to introduce the variables into the regression equation. To conduct a hierarchical multiple regression, the researcher performs multiple regression using an independent variable or independent variables. The researcher will then conduct another multiple regression

analysis using the first independent variable or variables and a new set of independent variables (Armero Cantó, 2019). By comparing the results from both regression analyses, the researcher can conclude the second set of independent variables' contribution.

Hierarchical multiple regression was suitable for this study because I sought to examine the moderating effect of practicing yoga on the relationship between employee trust in management and job satisfaction. I ran a multiple regression model with and without the uncentered interaction to get the amount of the variance accounted for by the predictors with and without the interaction. I then examined both models for significance and if the variance accounted for in the model with the interaction variable is significantly more than the model without the interaction variable. In logistic regression, the dependent variable has only two possible values (Tolles & Meurer, 2016). Logistic regression was not suitable for this study because the dependent variable, job satisfaction, can have more than two possible answers.

Researchers use data cleaning procedures to identify and remove inconsistent data values (Slater et al., 2016). Outliers are extreme responses that fall outside the normal range (Kock, 2015). Inliers are erroneous standard data that fall within the expected range; however, the participant entered the wrong value (Dong et al., 2015). I ensured data validity by enforcing specific survey rules, allowing the participants only to select one of the responses provided for each question; participants responded to all survey questions before submitting the survey. I examined if the data collected conform to normal data distribution using the Shapiro-Wilks (S-W) test.

Missing data could be the result of (a) a survey submitted with no response to questions, (b) missing survey forms, or (c) missing values for one or more questions (Ngan et al., 2015). To avoid missing data, I structured the questionnaire on SurveyMonkey to require an answer to each question before the participants can move to the next question. Researchers computing survey results with missing answers may reach inaccurate conclusions (Prudon, 2015).

I used SPSS Version 25 to conduct data analysis using descriptive statistics. The use of SPSS requires assessing the assumptions necessary to measure and analyze the data (Pallant, 2016). The assumptions relevant to multiple linear regression are variable types, multicollinearity, independence of residuals, linearity, homoscedasticity, outliers, and normal distribution of errors. Before conducting the regression analysis, I assessed the assumptions and utilized bootstrapping, using 1,000 samples to resolve any possible assumption violations.

Variable Types

All predictor variables are interval, ratio, or nominal (with two categories) scale of measurement and are unbounded (Fox, 2016). All predictor variables meet this requirement. Being unbounded means there should be no constraints on the outcome's variability (Fox, 2016). If a scale range is from 1-5, and the data collected vary between 1-3, it indicates a constraint on the data variability.

Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity occurs when there is a strong correlation between any two predictor variables; thus, they are indistinguishable from each other (Field, 2016). Data

multicollinearity occurs when multicollinearity is present in the raw data instead of being the result of the statistical model, usually present in observational data sets (Williams-Deazle, 2020). Structural multicollinearity occurs when the researcher creates a model term using other terms within the model (Daoud, 2017). I used the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) or the Tolerance value to identify any correlation between the model's independent variables. If the VIF is greater than 10, which represents a Tolerance of 0.1 indicates the presence of a multicollinearity problem (Hair et al., 2014).

To resolve data multicollinearity issues, the researcher can remove some of the model's highly correlated independent variables (Fox, 2016). To resolve structural multicollinearity issues, the researcher can standardize the variables by subtracting the mean (Fox, 2016). I resolved multicollinearity issues by subtracting the mean since I encountered structural multicollinearity issues.

Independence of Residuals

Independence of residuals occurs when in any two observations, the residual terms are uncorrelated (Van Dusen & Nissen, 2019). I validated the independence of residuals using the Durbin-Watson statistic; the Durbin-Watson statistic will always have a value between 0 and 4; a value of 2 means there is no autocorrelation detected in the sample analyzed (Van Dusen & Nissen, 2019). Values from zero to two indicate a positive autocorrelation, and values from two to four indicate a negative autocorrelation (Van Dusen & Nissen, 2019). Autocorrelation detects an unauthentic relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable. To resolve the autocorrelation issue, I fine-tuned or modified the variables in the model.

Linearity

Linearity refers to the expectation that a linear relationship occurs between the dependent variable and each of the independent variables and a linear relationship between the dependent variables and the dependent variables collectively (Lopez-Rojas, 2016). The dependent variable's value will be a straight-line function of each independent variable, holding the others fixed (Aiken, & West, 1991). To examine the presence of a linear relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variables, I created a scatterplot of the residuals and visually inspected the scatterplot of the residuals for linearity. In the event of a non-linear relationship, I would have run bootstrapping for resampling purposes.

Homoscedasticity

Homoscedasticity occurs when random errors have equal variances (Pallant, 2016); the researcher can examine the residuals' scatterplot plot to test for homoscedasticity. To test for homoscedasticity, I visually examined the standardized residuals' scatterplot for a systematic pattern. The absence of a systematic pattern supports the homoscedasticity assumption (Field, 2016). To resolve any heteroscedasticity violations, I would have transformed the dependent variable using one of the variance stabilizing transformations. If the variables were highly skewed, I would have used a logarithmic transformation.

Outliers

An outlier is an observation value that is distant from the other values in the random sample of the population (Kock, 2015). I used a scatter plot of the residuals to

assess this assumption visually. The researcher must carefully examine outliers; outliers could result from incorrectly entered or measured data, or they can be a legitimate observation. The researcher can drop the incorrect data from the computation.

Additionally, the researcher can drop the outlier if the outlier does not change the result but does affect the assumptions. If the outlier affects the results and the assumptions, then the researcher should not drop the outlier.

Normal Distribution of Errors

Errors associated with the predictor variables' values have a normal distribution (Williams et al., 2013). An error is the difference between values observed for the response variable and the population's values predicted by the regression model (Williams et al., 2013). I used the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test to detect the non-normal distribution of errors that may negatively impact the ability to make inferences about population parameters; the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test yields the best results for small data samples with more than 50 observations. I used a bootstrapping technique to improve the ability to make inferences in small samples with non-normal errors.

I used SPSS version 25 output to interpret the study statistics. I used standard multiple linear regression, $\alpha = .05$ (two-tailed), and set the significance level at 0.05. A p -value of less than .05 indicates strong evidence against the null hypothesis (Field, 2016). I estimated the study's effect size at 0.15 and used it as an input of G*Power, a priori power analysis, to calculate the required sample size. My study's confidence interval is 95%; the formula $100\% * (1-\alpha)$ is a way to calculate confidence intervals (Hedge et al., 2017).

I examined the efficacy of practicing yoga, trust in management, and the interaction between practicing yoga and employee trust in management in moderating job satisfaction. The independent variables are practicing yoga, trust in management, and the interaction between practicing yoga and employee trust in management. The dependent variable is job satisfaction. The null hypothesis is that yoga practice does not moderate the relationship between employee trust in leadership and job satisfaction. The alternative hypothesis is that yoga practice moderates the relationship between employee trust in leadership and job satisfaction. I conducted preliminary analyses to ensure compliance with the assumptions of multicollinearity, outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals.

To establish the presence of a moderating effect on the relationship between the dependent and independent variables, the researcher must show that the relationship between the variables will change when the moderator variable value changes (Aiken & West, 1991). Thus, I introduced the interaction effect in the model and validate if such an interaction is significant. I used SPSS to standardize all variables and check for multicollinearity; I then coded the categorical variable Practicing Yoga and manually created the uncentered interaction variable. I executed the regression model with and without the uncentered interaction to get the variance accounted for by the predictors with and without the interaction. I then examined both models for significance and if the variance accounted for in the model with the interaction variable is significantly more than the model without the interaction variable. Moderating occurs when both models are significant; if the predictor and moderator are not significant in the model with the

interaction variable, then complete moderation occurred; if the predictor and moderator are significant when the model with the interaction variable, then moderation occurred; however, the main effects are also significant (Aiken & West, 1991).

The parameters in a regression table include

- The unstandardized beta (B) this value represents the line's slope between the predictor variable and the dependent variable (Field, 2016).
- The standard error for the unstandardized beta (SE B) this value is similar to the standard deviation for a mean. The larger the number, the more spread out the points are from the regression line; the more spread out the numbers are, the less likely that significance will be found (Field, 2016).
- The standardized beta (β) works very similarly to a correlation coefficient. It will range from 0 to 1 or 0 to -1, depending on the relationship's direction. The closer the value is to 1 or -1, the stronger the relationship. The researcher can compare the variables to see which had the strongest relationship with the dependent variable (Aiken & West, 1991).
- The t-test statistic (t) is the test statistic calculated for the individual predictor variable; I will use this statistic to calculate the p-value (Field, 2016).
- The probability level (p) indicates whether or not an individual variable significantly predicts the dependent variable. It is possible to have a significant model but a non-significant predictor variable; typically, the value is significant if the p-value is below .050 (Field, 2016).

Study Validity

Researchers examine the study's internal and external validity to guard against possible validity and credibility threats (Prudon, 2015). Internal validity is the accuracy that the study measures to the intended objectives. In correlational studies, the researcher utilizes statistical methods to conduct the data analysis while also eliminating outliers by implementing data cleanup processes; thus, internal validity is not relevant in correlational studies (Foster, 2017). Any study's external validity replicates the study and generalizes the findings (McCusker & Gunaydin, 2014).

Validity of Statistical Conclusions

To ensure the validity of statistical conclusions, researchers need to utilize the appropriate statistical analysis when making inferences about the association between dependent and independent variables (Spurlock et al., 2018). Statistical conclusion validity pertains to two types of errors. Type I error occurs if a researcher concludes a correlation when none exists, rejecting the null hypothesis while it is true (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2017). Type II error occurs if a researcher does not conclude a correlation when accepting the null hypothesis while it is false (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2017). Threats to statistical conclusion validity include (a) reliability of the instrument, (b) data assumptions, and (c) sample size.

Instrument Reliability

The extent to which an instrument consistently measures what it is supposed to measure is the instrument's reliability (Patterson et al., 2018). Andreescu and Vito (2010) tested the reliability and validity of the Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey. Based

on the results, Andreescu and Vito concluded that the instrument is highly valid in a sample of both American and Indian hotel workers. They found Cronbach's alpha values ranging from .76 to .98, which indicates good to excellent reliability. The JSS correlated consistently with similar subscales of the JDI ($r = .61$ to $r = .80$) (Spector, 1985). These results demonstrate convergent validity, but not with non-corresponding subscales. The correlations between the corresponding subscales were also higher than the subscales' intercorrelations within the surveys (Spector, 1985). The Cronbach's alpha value for internal consistency reliability was .91 (Spector, 2011).

Data Assumptions

I used SPSS (Version 25) software to test the assumptions of normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, outliers, and multicollinearity. To test for normality and linearity, I visually examined the regression-standardized residuals and P-P plot histogram. A near diagonal line starting from the bottom left to the plot's top right would indicate normality (Field, 2016). I also examined if the data collected confirms normal data distribution using Shapiro-Wilks (S-W) to test for homoscedasticity; I visually examined the standardized residuals' scatterplot for a systematic pattern. The absence of a systematic pattern supports the homoscedasticity assumption (Pallant, 2016). To test for outliers, I visually examined the boxplot. In a boxplot, the rectangle shape represents most of the sample data; the middle line represents the median value. The top and bottom bars represent the maximum and minimum values. Outliers are the values above the top bar or below the bottom bar. To test for Multicollinearity, I examined the bivariate relationship between the independent variables. A high correlation between the independent variables

indicates a violation of the multicollinearity assumption (Field, 2016). Increasing the sample size could minimize the potential violation of any statistical assumption (Powner, 2017).

Sample Size

To address the sample size validity concern and calculate the required sample size, I utilized a statistical power level of .80, an estimate of the effect size of .15, and a probability alpha value of .05. The minimum sample size required is 77. Changing power to .99 will require a minimum sample size of 146. Therefore, I utilized a sample ranging between 68 and 146 participants.

Transition and Summary

In Section 2, I defined the details of the chosen research method and design for the study. I included the purpose of the study, my role as the researcher, sampling methods, accessing the population, and ethical safeguards for the respondents. I also detailed data collection and analysis techniques, instruments, and reliability and validity. Once completed, the analysis defines a clear correlation to support either the hypotheses or null hypotheses of a relationship existing between employee trust in management, practicing yoga, and job satisfaction.

In Section 3, I presented the results and conclusion with the support of diverse statistical analysis techniques—the applicability of the results to practical business scenarios and the implications for positive social change. I provided recommendations for future studies. I also provided specifics and details regarding my experiences during the

research process, including possible bias, preconceived ideas and values, potential effects of me on the participants or situations, and changes in my bias and thinking.

Section 3: Application to Professional Practice and Implications for Change

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the moderating effect of practicing yoga on the relationship between employee trust in management and employee job satisfaction. The independent variable was employee trust in management, employee job satisfaction was the dependent variable, and practicing yoga was the moderating variable. I utilized multiple linear regression analysis to determine if there was a significant relationship between the variables. The model as a whole (see Table 5) significantly predicted employee satisfaction, $F(3, 77) = 64.950, p = .000, R^2 = .717$. The R^2 value of .717 indicates that approximately 72% of the variation in employee job satisfaction is accounted for by the linear combination of the predictor variables (yoga, trust, and the interaction between yoga and trust). In the final model, trust was the only significant contributor ($t = 13.85, p = <.01$).

Presentation of the Findings

In this section, I review and discuss testing the assumptions, present descriptive statistics on the predictor and dependent variables, show inferential statistic results, discuss my study's findings, and conclude with a concise summary. I employed bootstrapping using 1,000 samples to address the possible violation of assumptions and to estimate 95% confidence intervals.

Tests of Assumptions

I evaluated the following assumptions relevant to multiple linear regression: variable types, multicollinearity, independence of residuals, linearity, homoscedasticity, outliers, and normal distribution of errors before conducting the regression analysis.

Variable Types

I validated that all predictor variables were either interval, ratio, or nominal (with two categories). Yoga practice was a nominal variable with two categories. Employee trust was an interval variable, and the interaction variable was also an interval variable.

Multicollinearity

I evaluated multicollinearity values by examining the variance inflation factor (VIF) and tolerance values. VIF values for the independent variables yoga, trust, and interaction were 11.657, 12.870, and 22.567, respectively, as shown in Table 2; these values indicate a violation of the assumption of multicollinearity. I recreated the model using the standardized variables to remediate the presence of structural multicollinearity. As shown in Table 3, the VIF values for the independent variables, yoga, trust, and interaction, were 1.002, 1.027, and 1.025, respectively.

Table 2*Coefficients Yoga, Trust, and Interaction*

Model	Collinearity statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
1 Constant		
Yoga	.086	11.657
Trust	.078	12.870
Int	.044	22.567

Table 3*Coefficients Using Standardized Yoga, Standardized Trust, and Interaction*

Model	Collinearity statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
1 Constant		
Yoga	.998	1.002
Trust	.974	1.027
Int	.975	1.025

Independence of Residuals

I utilized the Durbin-Watson statistic to validate the independence of residuals. The Durbin-Watson statistic will always have a value between 0 and 4; a value of 2 means there is no autocorrelation detected in the sample analyzed (Van Dusen & Nissen, 2019). Values from 0 to 2 indicate a positive autocorrelation, and values from 2 to 4 indicate a negative autocorrelation (Van Dusen & Nissen, 2019). Using the standardized variables, I calculated the Durbin-Watson statistic at 1.788 (see Table 5), which is close enough to 2, indicating the independence of residuals.

Linearity, Independence of Residuals, Homoscedasticity, Outliers, and Normal Distribution of Errors

I examined the scatterplot of the residuals (see Figure 7) to assess linearity, independence of the residuals, homoscedasticity, and normal distribution of errors. The examination indicated no significant violation of these assumptions. The normality distribution of errors assumption was assessed by viewing the normal probability (P-P plot) in Figure 8. The tendency of the points to depict a reasonably straight line from the bottom left to the top right indicates no violations to the assumption of normality.

Figure 7

Scatterplot of the Residuals

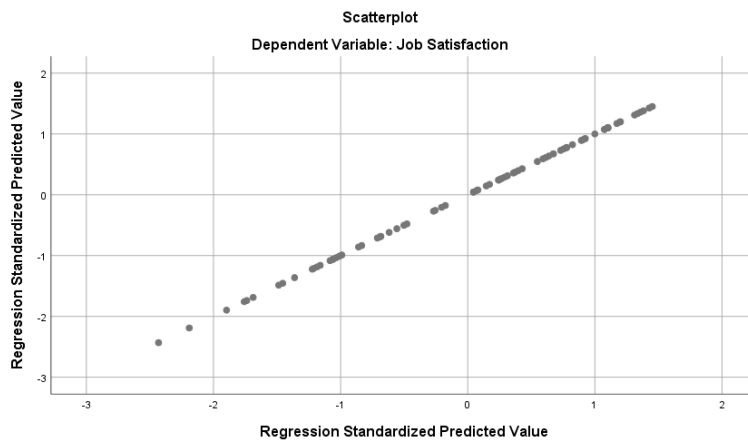
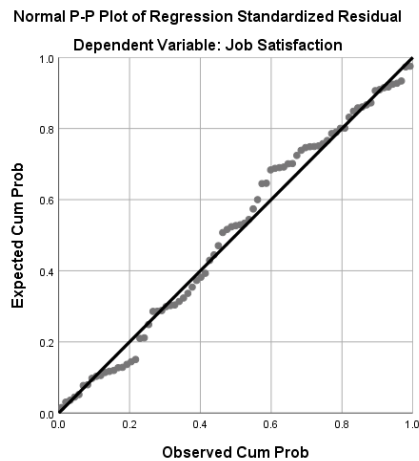


Figure 8

Normal Probability (P-P Plot)



Descriptive Statistics

A total of 81 participants completed the survey. Thirty-five participants (43.21%) had a weekly yoga practice, and 46 participants (56.79%) did not have a weekly yoga practice indicating a proportionate number of participants from each group. Table 4 includes descriptive statistics for the study variables.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Job satisfaction	138.47	18.413
Yoga	1.57	.498
Trust	130.06	41.812
Interaction	203.049	94.902

Inferential Statistics

I used standard multiple linear regression, $\alpha = .05$ (two-tailed), to examine the moderating effect of practicing yoga on the relationship between employee trust in

leadership and employee satisfaction. The predictor variables were yoga, trust in leadership, and the interaction between yoga and trust. The dependent variable was employee job satisfaction. The null hypothesis was that yoga practice did not moderate the relationship between employee trust in leadership and job satisfaction. The alternative hypothesis was that yoga practice moderates the relationship between employee trust in leadership and job satisfaction. I assessed the assumptions of multicollinearity, outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals. I recreated the model using the standardized variables to remediate structural multicollinearity; however, I did not observe any severe violations in any of the remaining assumptions.

The model as a whole (see Table 5) significantly predicted employee satisfaction, $F(3, 77) = 64.950, p = .000, R^2 = .717$. The R^2 value of .717 indicated that approximately 72% of the variation in employee job satisfaction is accounted for by the linear combination of the predictor variables (yoga, trust, and the interaction between yoga and trust). In the final model, trust was the only significant contributor ($t = 13.85, p = .000$). The independent variable trust has a slope of .375, representing a .375 increase in job satisfaction for a one-unit change in the trust variable, while all other variables remain constant. The final regression equation is

$$\text{Job Satisfaction} = 80.399 + 2.127 * \text{Yoga} + .375 * \text{Trust} - .029 * \text{Interaction}.$$

Table 6 includes a summary of the linear regression of the study variables.

Table 5*Model Summary*

Model	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	Std. error estimate	Change statistics					
					R ² change	F change	df1	df2	Sig. F change	Durbin-Watson
1	.847	.717	.706	9.988	.717	64.950	3	77	.000	1.788

Table 6*Summary of Linear Regression of Study Variables*

Model	<i>B</i>	<i>Beta</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CI for <i>B</i>
Yoga_Cent	2.127	.058	.948	.346	[-2.339, 6.593]
Trust_Cent	.375	.852	13.854	.000	[.321, .429]
Interaction	-.029	-.032	-.520	.604	[-.140, .082]

Analysis Summary

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the moderating effect of practicing yoga on the relationship between employee trust in management and employee job satisfaction. I assessed the assumptions of multicollinearity, outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals. I recreated the model using the standardized variables to remediate structural multicollinearity; however, I did not observe any severe violations in any of the remaining assumptions. The model as a whole significantly predicted employee satisfaction, $F(3, 77) = 64.950, p = .000, R^2 = .717$. In the final model, trust, was the only significant contributor ($t = 13.85, p = .000$). Yoga was not a significant contributor ($t = .948, p = .346$); the interaction variable between yoga and trust was not a statistically significant contributor ($t = -.520, p = .604$).

Theoretical Discussion of Findings

I relied on the LMX theory as the theoretical framework for this study.

Researchers have used LMX theory to explain the relationship quality between the leaders and employees based on the leaders' abilities, such as trust development and team building (Bauer & Green, 1996). Hence, trust is a crucial construct underlying the LMX theory. Dik et al. (2014) found that employees must recognize and use personal strength and build trust-based relationships with their leaders to increase job satisfaction. Abu Bakar et al. (2014) established that leaders increase employees' job satisfaction by improving the LMX relationship quality. My study's findings extend the LMX theory's knowledge and the relationship between job satisfaction, employee trust in leadership, and practicing yoga. As applied to this study, the LMX theory held that I found a relationship between trust and employee job satisfaction. My study's findings extended the LMX theory and established that participation in a yoga program does not moderate the relationship between employee trust and job satisfaction.

Applications to Professional Practice

Many leaders cannot explain what contributes to employee categorization into in-groups, and out-groups, establishing a gap in the LMX theory research (Banks et al., 2013). As applied to this study, the LMX theory held that I found a relationship between trust and employee job satisfaction; however, practicing yoga did not moderate the relationship between employee trust and job satisfaction. With a significant relationship between employee trust in leadership and job satisfaction, organizational leaders need to

invest in research aiming to identify methods that moderate the relationship between employee trust and job satisfaction.

Implications for Social Change

The goal of LMX is to offer everyone the same level of respect and the same opportunities to thrive; after that, moving forward, individuals can create their realities in the workplace (Henson & Beehr, 2018). The implications for positive social change include the potential for employees to feel empowered to transform and create positive change within themselves, their households, and their communities.

Incorporating a weekly yoga practice may promote improved health, mental relaxation, self-efficacy, resilience to stress, and peace of mind. Practicing yoga may also improve participants' interpretation of their abilities to accomplish goals. Individuals practicing yoga may be happy, feel inner freedom, and have improved physical strength. Flexibility, endurance, and improved mood may be other effects for individuals practicing yoga. Practicing yoga may increase the quality of life at work, at home, and within the community.

Recommendations for Action

This study indicated that having a weekly yoga practice did not moderate the relationship between employee trust in leadership and job satisfaction; however, the LMX theory held that I found a significant relationship between employee trust and job satisfaction. I recommend business leaders invest in further research aiming to develop safe and ethical workplace programs that encourage employees to trust their leaders.

I aim to continue researching the impact yoga may have on business. I also hope to present my study at professional conferences and publish my study in peer-reviewed journals and the ProQuest dissertation database.

Recommendations for Further Research

To examine the moderating impact of practicing yoga on the relationship between employee trust in leadership and job satisfaction, I implemented a survey. I collected a convenience sample, which may have limited the potential to generalize the results to only the population sample—utilizing convenience sampling decreases the potential to generalize the results (Landers & Behrend, 2015). I recommend a future quasi-experiment study to examine the moderating effect of practicing yoga on the relationship between employee trust in management and job satisfaction. Examining the moderating effect of practicing yoga on the relationship between employee trust in management and job satisfaction using a quasi-experiment within a specific organization allows the researcher to provide the same yoga practice with the same duration to all the study participants.

A quasi-experiment may extend the findings regarding the moderating effect of practicing yoga on the relationship between employee trust in management and job satisfaction in the same population. A quasi-experiment creates empirical research to estimate the impact of an intervention on a target population without random assignment. In a quasi-experiment, the researcher may conduct pre-and post-testing. The researcher carries out a test on a single group once before introducing the intervention and a second

time after completing the intervention. The researcher analyzes the observed changes between the pre and post-tests to determine the intervention's effectiveness.

Reflections

I started practicing yoga in 2010 and have experienced a positive personal transformation associated with yoga practice ever since. The DBA doctoral process augmented my personal experience with yoga and allowed me the opportunity to become a scholar-practitioner. I ensured that my personal worldview did not create a study bias throughout the entire DBA journey. I focused on representing the opinions of the study participants without my personal bias. Thus, I anonymously collected the data using a web interface and did not review or analyze the data until I collected the minimum number of samples. I relied on the data I collected to address my research question.

The DBA experience at Walden University has been a long journey with ups and downs but a never dull moment. I am thankful to all my committee members and grateful to Dr. Kate Andrews for putting up with me as long as she did. A big thank you to peers and friends that crossed path with me.

Conclusion

The LMX theory held I was able to show a statistically significant relationship between employee trust in leadership and employee job satisfaction. This study indicated that having a weekly yoga practice did not moderate the relationship between employee trust in leadership and job satisfaction. The variable practicing yoga did not achieve statistical significance; however, it is acceptable to use an independent variable in the regression model without the variable achieving statistical significance if the variable has

an important magnitude and precision (Laerd Statistics, 2015). The 95% confidence interval shows that the difference between job satisfaction for those who practice yoga and those who do not could be as high as 6.593. Therefore, the strength of evidence supports keeping the independent yoga variable despite the lack of statistical significance. By understanding the relationship between employee trust in leadership and job satisfaction, business leaders could effectuate significant organizational changes to improve the organization's overall health.

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Appendix A: Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey (Chathoth et al., 2011)

Integrity

1. My organization treats me fairly and justly.
2. My organization takes significant measures to lead me in the right direction.
3. My organization has sound policies to guide me.
4. My organization encourages openness in the relationship among employees.
5. My organization communicates with me openly and honestly.
6. My company tells me the truth whether it is pleasant or not.
7. My company tells me everything I need to know.

Commitment

8. My organization tries to maintain a long-term commitment with me.
9. My organization shows confidence in my knowledge.
10. My organization has built a long-lasting relationship with me.
11. My company is willing to invest in me.
12. My organization shows confidence in my skills.
13. My organization values my input.
14. I feel loyal to my organization.

Dependability

15. I can rely on my organization's management to keep its promises.
16. I am willing to let my organization make decisions for me.
17. My organization helps me to deal with all my crises.

18. My organization guides me when I do not have the skills, knowledge, or capabilities to handle the situation.
19. My organization has a well-established mentorship program for me to obtain guidance from senior employees.

Appendix B: Permission to Use the Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey

Note: Test name created by PsycTESTS

PsycTESTS Citation:

Chathoth, P. K., Mak, B., Sim, J., Jauhari, V., & Manaktola, K. (2011). Trust and Employee Satisfaction Survey [Database record]. PsycTESTS.

<https://doi.org/10.1037/t24191-000>

Test Shown: Full

Test Format:

This measure uses the 10-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 10 = *strongly agree*).

Source:

Chathoth, Prakash K., Mak, Brenda, Sim, Janet, Jauhari, Vinnie, & Manaktola, Kamal. (2011). Assessing dimensions of organizational trust across cultures: A comparative analysis of U.S. and Indian full-service hotels. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 30(2), 233-242. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2010.09.004>

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Appendix C: Job Satisfaction Survey (Spector, 1985)

JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY Paul E. Spector Department of Psychology University of South Florida Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved.		
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

PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.							
Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994. All rights reserved.		Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
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 D: Permission to Use the Job Satisfaction Survey

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