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Transformational Leadership and Job Satisfaction of Retired Army Noncommissioned Officers in South Korea

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Walden University

COLLEGE OF MANAGEMENT AND TECHNOLOGY

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Terra Williams

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2012

ABSTRACT

Transformational Leadership and Job Satisfaction of Retired Army Noncommissioned

Officers in South Korea

by

Terra L. Williams

M.B.A.H.M., American Intercontinental University, 2005

M.I.T., American International University, 2003

B.S.I.S.M., University of Maryland University College, 2002

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Applied Management and Decision Science

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Abstract

Organizations, including the military and their managers, have used transformational

leadership for over 30 years to increase job satisfaction. The purpose of this correlation

research study was to determine whether a relationship existed between transformational

leadership and job satisfaction among retired Army noncommissioned officers who had

rejoined the military workforce in South Korea. The research question was grounded in a

synthesis of theories concerning transformational leadership and job satisfaction. The

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ5X), the Job Descriptive Index (JDI), and

Job in General (JIG) scales were used to gather data from 141 participants. Univariate

analyses were used to document that MLQ5X transformational leadership subscale scores

were high among the participants, and that they were satisfied with their jobs along all

JDI/JIG subscales, except opportunity for promotion.   Linear regression analysis and the

chi-square test of independence were used to test associations between MLQ5X and

JDI/JIG scores. The results from the linear regression indicated no significant relationship

existed between transformational leadership and job satisfaction. To compensate for

violations of parametric assumptions, a chi-square test was conducted with MLQ5X and

JDI/JIG scores recoded into high/low transformational leadership and 3 levels of

satisfaction (dissatisfied, undecided, satisfied). A significant association between

transformational leadership and job satisfaction was observed. The combined results

contributed to the conclusion that transformational leadership can contribute to job

satisfaction, but that it can also lead to dissatisfaction if organizational conditions do not

support the approach. The study contributes to positive social change by inform planning

to improve higher morale and increased productivity among soldiers.

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Dedication

First and foremost, to God be the glory, because without faith and determination, I could not be the person I am today. He guides me to be determined and humbles me when I need to slow down and focus. To my boys, Demettrius, David, and Tyrend, thank you all for allowing me to focus on my goals, even though you all had to sacrifice a lot of my time for me to do so. I hope you all understand the importance of education and remember that *knowledge is power*: with it, you can achieve anything and everything your heart desires, but without it, you will never know how far you could have gone in life. I hope all of you pursue your dreams and aspirations.

To Keith Duane Green, my friend, thank you for being there for me during this time and for allowing me to do what I needed to complete this degree. Even though you may think your role in my accomplishment was very small, it was enough not to go unnoticed. You understood why I spent the majority of my time doing homework instead of going out to enjoy myself and you understood why I continued to push myself towards completion. You were my rock when I thought I couldn't do it, you listened to me when I needed to vent, and you continued to inspire me without even trying. I love you for that reason and many more. Now let's go change the world together.

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together, but it never changed how I felt about you all and we always found a way to laugh and joke together. Thanks to my godmother, Johnnie, thank you for everything you do for me and my family. You know I love you and your family as my own. Thanks to Priscilla, Stacie, Sheron, Carmen, LaShanda, Sandra F., Melissa, Denovia, Janice, Sandra T., Christine, TaWanna, LaTrisha, Patrice, LaKisha, and Veronica, the sisters I never had, but who keep me grounded and on track with things I needed to accomplish. We may not talk all the time or see each other as often as we like, but you all are near and dear to my heart and I would not trade you for anything. I love you girls.

I am forever grateful to all my soldiers. Thank you for allowing me to share some knowledge with you; I hope you all will continue to strive for the best and pursue your educational goals. To all my friends and everyone else I did not mention, but who helped contribute to the successful completion of this dissertation, I thank you and appreciate you all.

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To Linda, thank you for all you help as well and for sharing tips, comments, and advice, no matter what. I will make sure I take heed to your advice and share with others, so they won't make the same mistakes.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Background of the Problem

Little is known about transformational leadership and job satisfaction as it relates to retired Army noncommissioned officers. The majority of retired Army noncommissioned officers begin a second career immediately after retiring to help compensate for the pay they no longer receive after leaving the military service. Even though the majority will return to work for the military as a Department of Defense employee for a variety of reasons, one of the most important reasons that most retirees mention when they speak at the Army Alumni Career Program (ACAP) retirement briefings is that they will have the opportunity to retire again before they reach the retirement age of 65. Retired Army noncommissioned officers go through their own transformation by preparing themselves for life outside the military, whether they work for the government or not.

As the U.S. Army goes through transformation by reducing its forces, its officers, noncommissioned officers, and soldiers try to adapt by staying battle-ready at all times to accomplish their many missions and protect the nation with fewer people. To accomplish these missions and guide soldiers in the right direction, a certain type of leadership style is required (Department of the Army, 1999, p. 1-1). Each of the various leadership styles has its place in many organizations, but studies show that managers prefer transformational leaders (Department of the Army, 1999, p. 1-2).

Transformational leaders are important in today's society, to include the military workforce and the employees who work for the military workforce. For an organization

to be prosperous, transformational leaders need to strive to inspire their employees to complete the mission while coming up with new ideas to maintain a competitive edge (Bass, 1985). This can only occur if the leaders possess people skills and are not afraid to engage their employees in important conversations involving mission accomplishment to generate ideas (Bass, 1985).

The first person to identify and define transformational leadership was Burns in 1978: "A leader's ability to ensure his/her followers are committed to raising one another's morale and motivating each other to get the job done" (p. 426). A transformational leader moves beyond self-gratification, shows her followers that she cares about their well-being, and focuses on the mission and vision of the organization (Burns, 1978). The second person to redefine transformational leadership was Bass (1985) who included "charisma/idealized influence, inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation" (p. 25).

Taking the characteristics in the order of Bass (1985), charisma/idealized influence means being a mentor and role model with outstanding qualities and values. Inspirational motivation means the ability a leader has to formulate a vision to make it clear enough for everyone to understand and, at the same time, show them what he expects from them to make the vision a reality. Individualized consideration was described as the ability of leaders to act as coaches and mentors to their followers by providing their own personal time and tools for their followers personal development and growth. Finally, intellectual stimulation means leaders boost their people to make decisions on their own as well as being able to be creative and innovative while working.

Kezar and Eckel (2008) indicated transformational leaders are capable of empowering their employees to become independent and to accomplish any tasks without fear. The same transformational leaders have enough confidence in their employees to know things will be done correctly. In 1993, Deming indicated that transformational leaders need to be capable of learning the "psychology of individuals, groups, society, and change" (p. 98) for transformation to be successful. Deming also indicated transformational leadership was necessary for transformation to take place in any organization. Transformational leaders know that transformation will not be spontaneous; they must have a theory in place first. They understand why transformation is important to their organization and feel compel to accomplish the transformation for themselves and their organization.

Problem Statement

There is a gap in the literature on transformational leadership and job satisfaction among retired Army noncommissioned officers who returned to the military workforce (Gal, 1987). Several studies have been done on transformational leadership and job satisfaction, but no one studied retired Army noncommissioned officers who rejoined the military workforce. According to high-ranking U.S. military officials, the transformational leadership style is necessary in today's Army (Department of the Army, 1999, p. 1-1), especially in light of the conflicts in which the United States is involved. Transformational leadership is at its best in times of change, crisis, or instability (Department of the Army, 1999, p. 15).

Throughout military history, missions have been accomplished with the input and ideas of subordinates, whether enlisted or commissioned (Department of the Army, 1999, p. 16). These military leaders may be good at what they do, but every mission does not dictate a transactional leadership style; that is, one in which a leader defines what will be done and how it should be done with no input from subordinates (Burns, 1978). This type of leadership style is the opposite of transformational leadership, but can produce the same results: getting the mission done. Transactional leaders' subordinates complete the task in hope of receiving some type of recognition. When morale is low and a mission needs to be accomplished, a transactional leader may not be the best suited for the mission (Department of the Army, 1999, p. 44). This reasoning is why different leadership styles are used for different situations, although the most preferred s the transformational leadership style (Department of the Army, 1999, p. 1-1).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative correlation research study was to determine whether a relationship existed between transformational leadership and job satisfaction among retired Army noncommissioned officers in South Korea. The main intent was to determine whether transformational leadership had any impact on job satisfaction of retired Army noncommissioned officers living in South Korea who rejoined the military workforce. Job satisfaction of retired Army noncommissioned officers who work for the military may have an impact on current and future subordinates, as well as on the morale and productivity of the U.S. Army. An anonymous electronic survey was used to gather

the data needed to answer the research question, while linear regression analysis and the chi-square test of independence were used to test the hypotheses.

Nature of the Study

The approach of this correlation study was quantitative and the design was non-experimental, using an electronic survey. The approach was chosen to determine whether the independent variable (transformational leadership) and the dependent variable (job satisfaction) had any impact on the target population. The sample for this study was 149 retired Army noncommissioned officers who had rejoined the workforce and the setting was South Korea. The researcher used data collected from the MLQ5X and the JDI/JIG to determine whether a relationship existed between the two variables. The instruments were used to examine the interrelationship between the variables as well as the impact they had on the population. Linear regression analysis and the chi-square test of independence were used to analyze the data collected. The methodology used in this study appears in detail in Chapter 3.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

This quantitative correlation study was an examination of two variables: transformational leadership, including demographic factors, and job satisfaction. The following research question guided the study: What is the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction among retired Army noncommissioned officers in South Korea? The following null and alternate hypotheses guided the study:

H_0: There is no significant relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction among retired Army noncommissioned officers in South Korea.

Ha: There is a significant relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction among retired Army noncommissioned officers in South Korea.

Theoretical Base

The theoretical base of this study was two-fold: transformational leadership and job satisfaction (see Figure 1).
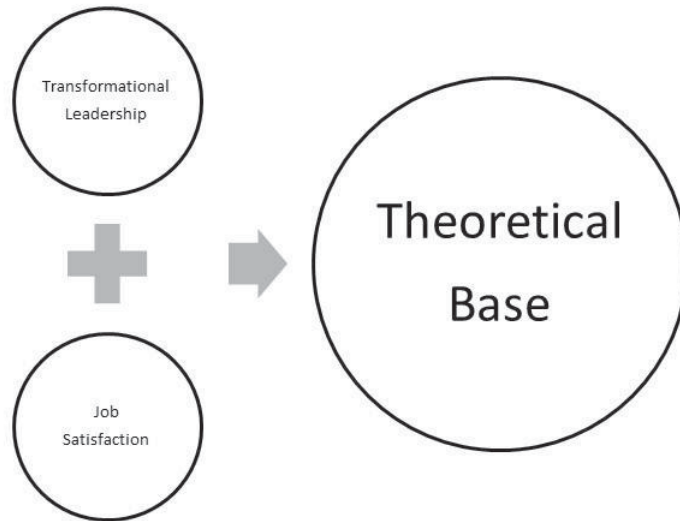
Figure 1. Theoretical base: Transformational leadership and job satisfaction.

The leadership theory known as transformational leadership was developed by Burns (1978) and redefined by Bass (1985), both of whom agreed this type of leadership style was important in any organization. It allows leaders to give their followers the

opportunity to help make their workplace a better place by enabling them to use innovative ideas to help shape the organization ("A World Anew: The Latest Theories of Leadership," 2006, p. 35). The followers have a voice and the leaders have the chance to see what their followers can do.

Literature had inadequate information on the impact of transformational leadership on military organizations or the retired military population (Department of the Army, 1999, p. 16). A few studies exist on transformational leadership involving the military and the noncommissioned officers of the different military branches, but no information was available on retired noncommissioned officers of any branch of service. Military leadership is similar to transformational leadership in that both involve motivating people to get the job done. Military leadership is an effective tool used by all branch of services, while transformational leadership is used by most organizations. The U.S. Army has instilled military leadership in its soldiers, regardless of the rank structure they often rely on when they transition to the civilian workforce.

Sosik, Potosky, and Jung (2002) indicated that transformational leadership has been an effective tool since the 1980s, used by leaders who took their followers' thoughts and ideas into consideration. Transformational leaders had the ability to motivate their followers to get the job done. Nielsen, Randall, Yarker, and Brenner (2008) suggested evidence linking transformational leadership to employee psychological well-being, although they were unsure whether this was due to direct relationship between leadership's behaviors or followers' perceived work characteristics.

The second theoretical base of this study was job satisfaction. Transformational leadership and job satisfaction have been linked in many research studies; however, not enough information exists on transformational leadership and job satisfaction concerning active military or retired Army noncommissioned officers. Hellriegel and Slocum (2007) stated that job satisfaction has been studied since the early 1920s; researchers and employees have shown increased interest since the 1940s (Klein, 2007). Military commanders have conducted several internal studies to determine the level of job satisfaction in a given unit. Sometimes researchers combined the surveys with equal opportunity assessments to help a new commander fully engage the strengths and weaknesses of their company (Department of the Army, 2008, p. 53). Several studies on job satisfaction suggested happiness and satisfaction drives employees to complete their work (Mardanove, Heischmidt, & Henson, 2008). If employees are not happy or satisfied, they will not be productive to the organization. High achievers will go above what is expected of them to complete the work, as well as do anything extra, because they are self-confident and highly motivated (Weiner, 1980).

Researchers indicated that job satisfaction had a direct link to increased productivity among employees (Long, 1992). Pivotal theorists such as Maslow (1954) and Herzberg (1966) examined job satisfaction and employee needs based on the employee's own needs and behaviors, believing that motivation was linked with job satisfaction and work productivity. In contrast, Locke (1969) indicated employee satisfaction was based on what they wanted from a job rather than what the job had to offer. Webb (2009) wrote that job satisfaction could have a direct impact on

organizational cost, because it could force an organization to decide whether to pay to keep its rising star or to settle for a mediocre employee. Some managers would rather settle for a mediocre employee than pay the salary of a rising star (Webb, 2009). Job satisfaction is important to organizations, whether civilian or military.

Definition of Terms

Some terms appear repeatedly throughout this study. Even though the terms may seem common to some, they may seem abstract to others. Defining them was necessary in the context of this study.

Job Description Index/Job in General (JDI/JIG) Survey. Instruments used to measure the five factors that lead to job satisfaction (Bowling Green University, 2011).

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ5X). This instrument is used to measure the preference, behaviors, attitudes, and styles of leaders on a bigger scale than the Job Description Index/Job in General (JDI/JIG) Survey (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Noncommissioned officer (NCO). This term describes an enlisted member of the armed forces, such as a corporal, sergeant, or above, appointed to a rank conferring leadership over other enlisted personnel (Department of the Army, 2002).

Retired noncommissioned officer. This term describes an enlisted personnel of the armed forces from the rank of sergeant or above who has retired after serving 20 years or more on active duty (Department of the Army, 2002). Even though retired noncommissioned have retired from the military, the majority have returned to the workforce to maintain the lifestyle they had in the military.

Assumptions

This study included three assumptions. The first was that all participants would provide honest responses because of their rank and their value for integrity. The second assumption was that only participants who met the criteria would receive the e-mail and complete the survey, especially because the snowball method was used in the survey. The final assumption was that all participants read the criteria and completed the survey in its entirety after they met the requirement, especially because they had the option not to complete the survey if they chose not to do so.

Limitations

The study had two limitations. The results may not be generalizable, due to using a nonprobability sampling method to recruit a specific group of retired Army noncommissioned officers. Specifically, a purposive sample of retired Army noncommissioned officers who returned to the military workforce who met the inclusion criteria completed the survey. Merriam (1998) pointed out that nonprobability sampling weakens the external validity of research findings; however, the use of this method is appropriate to reach the target population from which the most information can be gathered.

A second limitation of this study was the correlational design itself. This type of design is used to measure relationships among two or more variables and has the tendency not to make the necessary causal inferences (Singleton & Straits, 2005). Aczel and Sounderpandian (2006) indicated, "Even if a correlation exists between variables, it does not necessarily mean that one variable causes the correlation between the other one"

(p. 452). Although majority of the statistical analysis reveal a relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction, a claim cannot be made that transformational leadership and job satisfaction has an impact on retired Army noncommissioned officers who had rejoined the military workforce.

Scope and Delimitations

The scope of this study involved the use of an electronic survey to determine whether a relationship existed between transformational leadership and job satisfaction among retired Army noncommissioned officers. Transformational leadership was operationalized by using the MLQ5X scale developed by Avolio and Bass (2004), while job satisfaction was operationalized by using the JDI/JIG scales by Bowling Green State University (2011). The delimitations that confined this research were as follows: (a) only one branch of service participated, excluding the other branches of military services; (b) only retired Army noncommissioned officers who were currently working participated, excluding retired Army noncommissioned officers who were not currently working; and (c) only retired Army noncommissioned officers in one general location participated, excluding retired Army noncommissioned officers outside of South Korea.

Significance of the Study

Results of this study added to the body of knowledge on job satisfaction in the U.S. Army and on the influence of transformational leadership on job satisfaction from the perspective of retired Army noncommissioned officers who returned to the military workforce. As military deployments increase, retired Army noncommissioned officers could have a mitigating influence on the impact of future soldiers during the crisis by

sharing the impact of transformational leadership on job satisfaction through enhanced leadership behavior. The job satisfaction of future noncommissioned officers might be improved and may have a positive influence on future soldiers and the mission. The findings of the study may help improve the quality of life of future noncommissioned officers and their subordinates, improve morale, instill teamwork, and most importantly, give soldiers a reason to remain enlisted. Findings may help the U.S. Army retain its noncommissioned officer strengths. The soldiers of these noncommissioned officers will continue to be mentored and trained on daily missions, while promoting a positive social change.

Summary and Transition

In summary, transformational leadership and job satisfaction has been studied often; however, there is no literature addressing the variables as related to retired Army noncommissioned officers who had rejoined the military workforce. Addressing this concern may provide soldiers with information on the importance of job satisfaction and may increase work productivity. If ignored, the Army could risk a drop in morale, less teamwork, and the loss of valuable soldiers. Transformational leadership and job satisfaction are the theoretical bases that guided this study to determine whether transformational leadership and job satisfaction had an impact on retired Army noncommissioned officers who returned to the military workforce.

In Chapter 2, the literature on transformational leadership, job satisfaction, noncommissioned officers, and the leadership theory that guides the research is reviewed. Chapter 3 contains an overview of the study's methodology, including the research

design, research questions and hypotheses, population, sample and sample size,

instrumentation, data collection and data analysis. Chapter 4 consists of analysis of the

collected data. In Chapter 5, conclusions are drawn from the data gathered for the

research study by providing an interpretation of the findings, limitations of the study,

recommendations for action, recommendations for further study, and implications for

social change.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

The current research study was an exploration of whether a relationship existed between transformational leadership and job satisfaction as it related to retired Army noncommissioned officers living in South Korea who returned to the military workforce. Although there is a plethora of literature written on transformational leadership and job satisfaction, extensive research revealed that there is no literature on retired Army noncommissioned officers as well as those who returned to the military workforce. This chapter contains an overview of the literature on transformational leadership and job satisfaction; it encompasses historical data on the variables and relates them to current works, showing how both are important in today's society and describing how both affect retired noncommissioned officers of the U.S. Army.

Leadership has been very important to companies throughout history. Leadership has many definitions, but each definition provides the purpose of the word. Merriam-Webster.com described leadership (2012) as "the position or office of a leader; the capacity to lead." The U.S. Army defined leadership as "the process of influencing others to accomplish the mission by providing purpose, direction, and motivation while operating to accomplish the mission and improving the organization" (Department of the Army, 2006, p. 1-2).

There is a gap in the literature concerning the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction as it relates to the U.S. Army (Gal, 1987). There is a greater gap between transformational leadership and job satisfaction as it

relates to retired Army noncommissioned officers. Because of this gap, extensive research was necessary on transformational leadership and job satisfaction. The search encompassed information on noncommissioned officers to provide understanding of noncommissioned officers. Chapter 2 contains analysis and synthesis of promising and contemporary research studies and paradigms concerning transformational leadership and job satisfaction to inform understanding of retired Army noncommissioned officers who returned to the military workforce.

Before beginning a historical overview on the literature several resources, including the Walden University database, were used to search for peer-reviewed articles, dissertations, professional websites, and theoretical books. Walden University database included the following search engines: ProQuest Central, PsycARTICLES, ERIC, PsycINFO, and EBSCOhost. The key words used to search these databases were *transformational leadership*, *job satisfaction*, *transformational leadership and job satisfaction*, *noncommissioned officers*, *transactional leadership*, *military*, *officers*, and *retired noncommissioned officers*. The search yielded over 225 articles, but only 165 articles were relevant to the topic.

Historical Overview

According to Gardner (1990), leadership has been dispersed evenly throughout our society; it begins with the government and continues on and on (p. xiii). Since the beginning, leadership has been the main focus of any successful organization and has been the driving force that kept organization in line and constantly competitive. If an organization had mastered the concept of leadership, then for the most part, it could

survive. However, the world is a new world with a need for new leadership; people have taken leadership for granted for thousands of years (Boyatzis & McKee, 2005). In order to change leadership, it must be defined. According to Yukl (2010), leadership can be defined in many ways, as long as the overall meaning is not lost. "Leadership has been defined in terms of traits, behaviors, influence, interaction patterns, role relationships, and occupation of an administrative position" (Yukl, 2010, p. 2). Yukl cited 10 additional definitions for leadership, but the overall meaning leads to influencing others to get the job done, without rewards or punishment.

Transformational Leadership versus Transactional Leadership

Several types of leadership styles have been described over the years, but the most popular leadership styles today are transformational leadership and transactional leadership. Studies have shown that both can co-exist in an organization and may be useful individually at times, depending on the circumstances at hand. Transformational leadership is the most widely used leadership style because it has the ability to motivate people to take care of business (Bass, 1985). According to Bass, transformational leaders are capable of empowering their employees to become independent and to accomplish any tasks without fear. These same leaders have enough confidence in their employees to know employees will do things correctly.

In contrast, transactional leadership is more of a dictator-type of leadership style, which allows leaders to dictate expectations to their employees. Transactional leadership is "characterized by an exchange of rewards for performance, and by a precise clarification of the work required in order to obtain rewards" (Ben-Aur, Yagil, & Oz,

2005, p. 90). If the work was not done correctly, employees received no rewards and most likely were disciplined. Transactional leaders mainly define what will take place and how it should be done, with no input from the employees (Burns, 1978). Their employees complete the task in the hope of some type of recognition.

Rowold (2008) indicated that transformational leadership and transactional leadership "become apparent when empirical results focusing on the relationships between these leadership styles and organizational outcomes are considered" (p. 404). Most studies favor transformational leadership over transactional leadership. The statistical data available favored transformational leadership overall. Transformational leadership tends to have a positive impact on overall employee performance. Transactional leadership may not be the most popular type, but is often needed when trying to stabilize an organization (Burpitt, 2009). Transformational leadership might be the leadership style of choice for majority of the organizations, but transactional leadership may be necessary at times to keep an organizational afloat. The focus of this study was on transformational leadership.

<div align="center">

Transformational Leadership

</div>

Burns (1978) first identified transformational leadership and it was still one of the most sought after leadership styles. Burns indicated that transformational leadership was centered on ethics and morals, and believed leaders should base all their decisions around them ("A World Anew," 2006). Burns explained his view on transformational leadership as a way for leaders to show concern for their followers' well-being, both morally and ethically.

Not all leaders conduct business with ethics and morals in mind. The choice not to use such ethics could be perceived as a reason for the need for organizational change, to this day. Transformational leadership moves beyond one's self-gratification, focusing instead on the mission and vision of any given organization (Burns, 1978). Transformational leadership is considered leader-focused and hierarchal, because it shows the difference between the old and new ways in leadership (Rost, 1991; "A World Anew," 2006) through interaction between leaders and followers. As previously noted, most studies dealing with transformational leadership tended to focus on leaders and not on the followers; however, both leaders and followers are parts of transformational leadership, with the main focus on characteristics such as "inspiration, trust, passion, and commitment" ("A World Anew," 2006, p. 35).

According to Murphy and Drodge (2004), transformational leadership has been redefined to include "charisma/idealized influence, inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation" (p. 7). The redefinition was done with the implementation of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) to help examine the four factors. Ben-Zur et al. (2005) indicated the four behavioral attributes or personal factors had an important impact on transformational leadership. Nielsen and Munir (2009) suggested transformational leadership was capable of helping to uplift followers to reach beyond their self-worth. For this to happen, the leader must have clear values integrated within his/her character (Hashim, Razikin, Yusof, Rashid, & Hassan, 2010). These same values affect the principles of an organization and its

approach to any goals (Newstrom & Davis, 1993), as well as an impact on organizational values.

Charisma/Idealized Influence

Charisma/idealized influence is usually connected with being a mentor and role model with outstanding qualities and values (Neilsen & Munir, 2009). Idealized influence focuses on the followers' interaction with their leader and their leader's behavior towards them (Chan & Chan, 2005); leaders who display this type of behavior tend to represent transformational leadership at the level that was considered highly favored, and their followers tend to trust them (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Equally important, leaders who exhibit this type of behavior are self-confident, self-determined, have a high level of self-esteem, and are valued both ethically and morally when it comes to their conduct (Chan & Chan, 2005). Idealized influence shows trust and understanding, which was once considered radical when accepting change in an organization (Jandaghi, Matin, & Farjami, 2009). A leader who has idealized influence is capable of persuading followers to do the job without even trying hard because the followers trust and respect their leaders (Chan & Chan, 2005; Hashim et al., 2010; Jandaghi et al., 2009; Kezar & Eckel, 2008;). These same leaders have the ability to achieve their goals and not use their power for personal gain (Jandaghi et al., 2009), which makes working easier for everyone.

Inspirational Motivation

Inspirational motivation is the ability of a leader to formulate a vision in terms clear enough for everyone to understand, and at the same time, show the employees the

expectations to make the vision a reality (Nielsen & Munir, 2009). Leaders who possess this ability can persuade people to do what is necessary by building esprit de corps to get the job done (Chan & Chan, 2005). Inspirational motivation consists of optimistically speaking of the future, enthusiastically speaking about what needs to be done, expressing an attractive perspective of the future, stating confidence that the aims will be met, drawing an excited picture of what should be considered, and taking up challenging problems (Jandaghi et al., 2009). Leaders who possess this ability provide artistic ways to get their point across, as well as to reach the intended goal (Chan & Chan, 2005). As long as leaders continue to communicate a positive vision for their organization and their employees, their followers will continue to be inspired and motivated (Inness, Turner, Barling, & Stride, 2010). Motivation can be the key to success.

Intellectual Stimulation

Nielsen and Munir 2009 explained intellectual stimulation as present in leaders who boost their people to make decisions on their own as well as to be creative and innovative while working. Intellectual stimulation is seeing followers advance from dependent to independent (Chan & Chan, 2005). Jandaghi et al. (2009) added, "Intellectual stimulation is very important in organizational change" (p. 213) and allows leaders to encourage their followers to change their way of thinking concerning problem solving and to use new and creative ideas to resolve the problem. Such leaders give their followers the ability to have a voice and to create new ways of doing business to help their organization to thrive.

Jandaghi et al. (2009) showed that intellectual stimulation entailed reinvestigating and questioning basic assumptions; looking for various perspectives when resolving the problems; forcing others to look at the problem from different views; encouraging nontraditional thinking to address traditional problems; and encouraging revision of ideas that are not yet questioned (p. 213). The main concept of intellectual stimulation is to allow followers to pay extra attention to their work while thinking of new ways to do their job through organizational change (Chan & Chan, 2005). Stimulating employees' minds can inspire endless ideas.

Individualized Consideration

Individualized consideration is the ability for leaders to act as coaches and mentors to their followers by providing their own personal time and tools for their followers' personal development and growth (Neilsen & Munir, 2009). Leaders are known to take care of their followers individually, to make sure everyone learns, and to assure some type of trust and sharing develops (Chan & Chan, 2005). Individualized consideration exists when leaders reach out to their followers and help them to self-actualize by providing a supporting environment (Kezar & Eckel, 2008)). Paying attention is one of the most important aspects of transformational leadership, because leaders help their employees to reach their potential while giving them more responsibility (Jandaghi et al., 2009). Jandaghi et al. also indicated that individualized consideration entailed spending time in teaching and coaching; treating others as persons, not just group members; and paying attention to others as persons who are the owners of different needs, capabilities, dreams and wishes. Transformational leaders help others to

develop and grow their own capabilities, listen to others demands and interests, develop individuality, and facilitate individuals' growth. The primary concept to remember about individualized consideration is that leaders must treat their followers differently as individuals, because each individual has different needs, abilities, and aspirations (Menaker & Bahn, 2008). Showing consideration towards everyone is essential to accomplish any mission or organizational change.

Transformational leadership is about change, innovation, and entrepreneurship, which evolves into a process that was systematic (Tichy & Devanna, 1990). Transforming an organization involves complexity and competitiveness, but can be easily understood if done by the right person. To become a transformational leader, an individual must have the ability to transform companies, save employees' jobs, create teamwork among workers, and still do what is required of a leader. Transformational leadership has three themes, the first of which is revitalization "by recognizing a need for change, creating a new vision, and institutionalizing change" (Tichy & Devanna, 1990, p. xiii). Revitalization involves letting the organization know that change is necessary to survive. Once this change is accepted, the transition process must start, and management must be aware that the process does not always go smoothly. Forming a new vision involves getting everyone to focus personal ideas on where the organization should go in the near future. This vision must be accepted by all and must fit the organization's philosophy and style. Institutionalizing change involves letting the organization know it will survive the change. The organization must be able to make the change a reality by walking the walk and talking the talk.

Deming (1993) indicated that transformational leaders needed to be capable of learning the "psychology of individuals, groups, society, and change" for the system to work (p. 98). Leaders must also understand a system to grasp what is required of them. Deming defined a system as "a network of interdependent components that work together to try to accomplish the aim of the system" (p. 98). Interdependence is necessary among the components for communication and cooperation to exist between them (Williams, 2010). Deming denoted that a good example of a system that works well is an orchestra, because they do not aim for self-gratification, but instead to support one another.

Leadership

In 1993, Deming indicated that transformational leadership is necessary for transformation to take place in any organization. Transformational leaders know the transformation will not be spontaneous; they must have a theory in place first. They understand why transformation is important to their organization and usually feel compelled to accomplish the transformation for themselves and their organization. These same leaders understand that great frustration often accompanies great ideas. This frustration usually comes from the leader's peers, who might not be on board with the idea at first. T responsibility of the leader is to convince them that the great idea will benefit the organization. Deming (1993) stated, "Acceptance and action on a great idea depend on simplicity and brevity in presentation" (p. 120).

Management of People

Deming (1993) pointed out that management might be at a stable state; however, transformation needs to move out of its present state and into a stable state. Even though

management is responsible for solving problems and putting out fires, they must still go

through transformation. Deming indicated that transformation leadership would take

management to a new method of reward when everyone has been restored to interactions

with the rest of the world. Transformation leadership will be possible when cooperation

on problems of common interest between people, divisions, companies, competitors, and

countries are dealt with collectively (Williams, 2010). Transformational leadership can

bring about good things such as greater innovation, applied science, technology,

expansion of markets, improved service, and greater material reward for everyone

involved (Williams, 2010).

For transformation to take place, management must engage the people who work

for them; this involves transformational leaders. Deming (1993) suggested the following

to help managers manage their people: managers must be able to understand and convey

to their people the meaning of a system, the aim of the system, and how teamwork

functions to make the system work. Managers of people, also known as transformational

leaders, must understand that people are different. A manager should be able to

capitalize on such differences by placing people in areas of development. Managers of

people also make sure they have a number two person and a number three person, in case

their number one person does not fit in the equation and reinforcements are needed. Most

importantly, managers of people understand the benefits of cooperation and the losses

that come with competition among people and groups, and they strive to keep the playing

ground leveled by creating teamwork.

The Department of the Army (1999) published information on transformational leadership in Field Manual 22-100, *Military Leadership.* The field manual indicated transformational leadership has the ability to transform subordinates by inspiring them to go above and beyond the call of duty to accomplish the mission. Subordinates are inspired by their leaders to grow professionally and personally while enhancing the organization. Transformational leaders are capable of motivating subordinates individually and as team members. Leaders task their subordinates, then sit back and watch them perform above their potential. Such leaders allow their subordinates to use their own ideas to devise better ways to accomplish the mission. Leaders know transformational leadership does not work well in every situation, but as long as there is room for change, there is room for a transformational leader. Transformational leadership is at its best when there is change, a crisis, or instability in an organization.

Kouzes and Posner (2002) tried to gain a better understanding of the qualities of transformational leaders by asking people they considered to be great leaders to write detailed memoirs to determine what characteristics a leader should possess ("A World Anew," 2006). The authors did not learn much, but they discovered behaviors that were apart of transformation leadership. The five behaviors entailed (a) challenging the process by searching for opportunities and experimenting along the way; (b) inspiring a shared vision by motivating people toward a vision and expecting an outcome; (c) enabling others to act by fostering collaboration and self-development with the intent to inspire growth; (d) modeling the way by setting an example and hoping for feedback; and (e) encouraging the heart by celebrating achievements and continuing to motivate others

("A World Anew," 2006, p. 36). Active transformational leadership exists when an individual chooses a behavior to raise a follower's consciousness concerning pursuing goals and values within the organization (Rukmani, Ramesh, & Jayakrishnan, 2010). The ability to choose is an important aspect for everyone, because the leader knows what is best for the follower and the follower trusts the leader's judgment.

Several researchers worked to determine whether a connection existed between transformational leadership and performance related outcomes. Avolio, Zhu, Koh, and Bhatia (2004), Jung and Sosik (2002), Jung and Avolio (2000), and Nemanich and Keller (2007) showed that emotional consent, belief and similarity, teamwork and effectiveness, and goal simplicity and upkeep for innovative thoughts were all found to facilitate the affiliation between the two. Researchers noted that, together, both have the ability to suggest followers' perceptions of work characteristics correlate with transformational leadership, performance relationships, and well-being (Nielsen et al., 2008). Nielsen et al. specified all elements were important to the follower because leaders take the time to encourage new ideas, solve problems, and facilitate job completion. Some researchers believe transformational leadership works better in education, sports, and healthcare. Other scholars suggest transformational leadership works wherever a strong leader exists.

Murphy (2005) suggested that having transformational leadership in the workplace could help minimize stress (as cited in Jameson, 2010). Transformational leadership has the ability to resolve inadequate performance and behavior to complete the mission and keep the customers happy. Jameson indicated that with transformational leadership on board, both leaders and followers are willing to strive for perfection to keep

the organization afloat by practicing good safety measures and providing a healthy work environment for all. This allows for room for improvement that does not hinder the employees from learning and growing within the organization. Mistakes are allowed, with the intent to learn from them as a group and find ways to improve and to avoid repetition of the error.

Murphy (2005) indicated that transformational leaders are capable of persuading followers to be the best they can be by providing purpose and direction. Teamwork becomes a vital part of the process because it allows the organization to work together to get the job done. Everyone works together when problems arise to get to the final product, and everyone wins when the job is a success. Satisfaction is the reward for accomplishing the task and everyone is content.

Transformational leaders are capable of shaping employees and guiding them in the optimal direction for the organization (Murphy, 2005). When offered such guidance, most employees stay in their job out of respect and loyalty, others remain for security, and even others remain for rewards and recognition more than any other reason. Such employees seek acknowledgement for their part in helping the organization and have every right to want recognition from their leaders. Transformational leadership allows employees to get in touch with their creative side and expand their way of thinking. The employees have the opportunity to help identify solutions for the organization. Feeling important in the workplace is a necessity, and employees tend to work their best when they know their leaders care.

Transformational leadership has been the alternative way to understand a leader's effectiveness for a very long time now; it is evident that it is a successful tool when it comes to organizational change (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006). Judge and Piccolo (2004) indicated transformational leadership style has a positive effect on followers' attitudes, behaviors, and performance. Transformational leadership is more successful than any other leadership style when dealing with organizational change, especially during the time of crisis (Judge & Piccolo, 2004).

In 2010, Yukl indicated much remains to be learned about transformational leadership, but offered some suggestive guidelines for leaders to follow to inspire others to seek self-improvement. The six guidelines follow.

First, articulate a clear and appealing vision. Once a vision is either revised or created it should be clear enough for the organization to understand the purpose, objective, and priority of it to move to the next step. Communication plays an important role for this vision to be accepted by employees. A good way to communicate this vision is the use of "colorful, emotional language that includes vivid imagery, metaphors, anecdotes, stories, symbols, and slogans" (Yukl, 2010, p. 289). Such tools are used to "excite the imagination, engage the listener, invoke symbols" (p. 289), and make an emotional appeal.

Second, explain how the vision can be attained. Once articulation of the vision has taken place, the leader should also make sure the vision is feasible. For this to happen, the leader must make a connection between the vision and the strategy to make it work. This is possible if "a few themes that are relevant to the values of the

organization" are present (Yukl, 2010, p. 290). Themes are used to provide labels to help the organization understand issues and problems that might arise. Leaders should be aware that they are incapable of knowing all the answers in obtaining the vision, but should let everyone know they will ensure the vision is attainable.

Third, act confident and optimistic. Leaders must act confident and be optimistic; confidence is expressed in words and by actions. The organization will not have faith in a vision if the leader does not show faith in it as well. If the leader shows confidence, the organization can show the same. A leader's behavior can become contagious. Leaders must let the organization know where they stand so far and highlight the positive aspects of the vision rather than what remains to be accomplished or the negative aspects of the vision. Leaders' behaviors can reveal to the organization whether the vision is uncertain by leaving clues such as saying "I guess," "maybe," and "hopefully" or showing frowns, nervous gestures, weak postures, and the inability to make eye contact (Yukl, 2010, p. 291).

Fourth, express confidence in followers. Not only should the leader be confident, but the organization must have confidence as well. The employees must be confident about their ability to help achieve the vision. People tend to perform better when their leader has high expectations for them and shows confidence in their ability to perform well. If the job is difficult or dangerous, a leader must foster confidence in his/her subordinates to enable them to accomplish the job.

Fifth, use dramatic, symbolic actions to emphasize key values. A leader can only reinforce values by making sure to spend time working on the vision personally, as well.

Leaders must ask questions, make decisions, and reward people for their actions. Symbolic actions can be more influential when risks and personal loss are involved. "The effect of symbolic actions is increased when they become the subject of stories and myths that circulate among members of the organization and are retold time and again over the years to new employees" (Yukl, 2010, p. 291). Leaders' emphasis of key values is essential, no matter what the circumstances.

Finally, lead by example. Leaders must set the example at all times to encourage subordinates to follow. If leaders do right in their day-to-day interaction with their subordinates, the subordinates will follow throughout the duration of the vision, whether it's easy or complicated. Leaders must be role models whether they want to or not, because their subordinates look to them for guidance. Some of the things required from subordinates can be unpleasant, dangerous, unconventional, or controversial; however, leaders must lead their subordinates through such tasks to accomplish the mission (Yukl, 2010, pp. 289-291).

Transformational leadership has the ability to make followers more aware of their positions and to value their work. Followers often put their personal interests aside to save the organization. Leaders are capable of empowering their followers to accomplish the mission while empowering the organization as a whole. Leaders must provide critical support and encouragement for their followers to have confidence to do what is necessary. This is how leaders earn trust and respect from their organization. Now that transformational leadership has been analyzed and synthesized, job satisfaction is examined next.

Job Satisfaction

According to Vroom (1964), research emphasis had been placed on job satisfaction since 1935. However, Hoy and Miskel (1987) viewed job satisfaction as a crucial element for the general efficiency of an organization, while Conley (1989) viewed job satisfaction as the primary component of the work environment that drives the organization's climate. Yang (2009) indicated that job satisfaction is an employee's effectiveness within the organization, while Yukl (2010) suggested that satisfaction allows the organization to determine how effective their leaders are in the organization.

Job satisfaction has been a pivotal point for organizations for quite some time because it helps determine the rate at which a mission is completed. Job satisfaction depends on an employee's behavior towards the job at hand. An employee will do the best work when satisfied and the bare minimum when unsatisfied. The leader's behavior is important as well, because it may influence the employees' level of job satisfaction, which in turn can determine whether the employees will do what is necessary to complete the job.

In 1969, Locke proclaimed that job satisfaction is a pleasant emotive state resulting from one's personal achievement. Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969) suggested that job satisfaction deals with the employee's feelings towards his or her job. Most researchers suggested that managers always pursued job satisfaction within their organization and that managers played a vital role in maintaining job satisfaction. Leat and El-kot (2009) indicated that job satisfaction has many definitions in the business world, but is mainly examined from a global construct or within multiple components

within the working environment. Csikszentmihalyi (2003) suggested an employee's mental and physical abilities play a vital role in job satisfaction. Hunt (1999) suggested that job satisfaction allows an employee to view job satisfaction from either intrinsic or extrinsic aspects of employment, which may have either a positive or a negative effect.

According to Long (1992), job satisfaction has a positive effect on employees' behavior, which in turn makes the organization look good. A study completed by Komala and Ganesh (2007) showed that job satisfaction was one of the most significant issues that managers must address, and it nearly always has some type of impact on the organization. The authors suggested job satisfaction involves interaction among the characteristics of the employee, the workplace, and the organization.

To depict what causes an employee to be either satisfied or dissatisfied, Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) indicated that intrinsic motivators must exist for an employee to be satisfied, but the absence of the intrinsic motivators does not automatically mean the employee is dissatisfied. Herzberg et al. indicated that extrinsic factors had to exist as well, but do not, alone, lead to job satisfaction. Later, Herzberg (1966) suggested managers could reduce the extrinsic factors that involved dissatisfaction, but could not complete eliminate them.

Heslin (2005) and Mardanove et al. (2008) agreed that happy or satisfied employees tend to more productive than those who are unsatisfied (as cited in Miles, 2010). Herzberg (1966) proposed "five factors that stood out as strong determiners of job satisfaction: achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, and advancement" (pp. 72-73). Herzberg suggested "achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, and

advancement" played important roles in job satisfaction and suggested that for an employee to have some type of job satisfaction, three out of five factors had to be met. If at least three of five factors were not present, the employee's work ethics would have a long-lasting impact on another employee's attitude and the impact would be short-lived. Locke (2005) indicated that job satisfaction deals with what people really want from their job and what they must have to keep them satisfied within the workplace.

Ahmadi and Alireza (2007) viewed job satisfaction as associated with the way employees' perform on the job, their attitude towards their co-workers, their ability to stay motivated while at work, and whether they feel up or down while at work. Vroom (1964) indicated that job morale plays an important part in job satisfaction. If a person experiences low morale, his/her interaction with employees while at work is not good; however, if a person experiences high morale, his/her interaction with employees while at work is good. Moorman (1993) found that basic job necessities were focused on employees' abilities to do the job, to enrich teamwork, and to feel self-worth, while the rest of the necessities focused on rewards and promotions. Vroom (1964) also indicated that behavior played a vital role in job satisfaction and suggested that turnover, absences, accidents, and job performance tended to affect people's behaviors. As long as a person remains satisfied, he/she will be reluctant to leave the job. However, when employees are not satisfied, they struggle at times, trying to determine whether they really want to do the job.

Webb (2009) viewed things differently than other researchers did concerning job satisfaction. Webb believed that job satisfaction is viewed differently concerning the cost

of replacing a star performer or staying with mediocre personnel. It costs more to hire a new person and train them up to standards. An increase in job satisfaction can lower retention. If leaders have to replace their experienced workers, the process is long and expensive. First, the organization has to advertise for the vacancy, then interview for the vacancy, then hire someone who fits the job description, then train the individual for the job, and finally hope the person likes the job enough to stay. Few people consider what goes into hiring a replacement for a vacancy. Leaders sometimes regret the process because it can be time consuming.

Today's organizational issues deal with keeping the best employees (Rukmani et al., 2010). As the economy changes, so do employees' minds when it comes to making decisions on whether to stay with the current organization or to move on to better their careers. Leaders play a vital role in shaping employees, but if they can't keep the employees motivated, the personnel will go somewhere else. Most people leave their jobs because they are not satisfied with their working conditions and something triggers them to leave, whether their boss, their co-workers, or the job itself. Leaders need to find ways to keep their valuable employees, especially in the U.S. Army.

Nurses are the most difficult personnel to retain in U.S. Army hospitals due to lousy pay, lousy work hours, and dissatisfaction overall (Zangaro & Johantgen, 2009). During wartime situations, nurses' stress levels are high and they seem to feel more under-appreciated than do their civilian counterparts. Most U.S. Army nurses leave because they entered the military with expectations and ideas of what they wanted to do

for their country, but when their expectations were not met, they made the decision to leave their respective services.

Too many U.S. Army personnel leave the military without reenlisting for additional years due to the operational tempo (Huffman, Adler, Dolan, & Castro, 2005). Castro and Adler (1999) suggested the downsizing of the U.S. Army in 1990 as well as the increase in U.S. Army operations caused soldiers to make decisions about whether to leave the military at the first opportunity. Researchers have mixed opinions about whether operational tempo has anything to do with the increase in military turnover rates. For example, Giacalone (2000) and Sullivan (1985) strongly believed that high operational tempo had a huge impact on soldiers leaving the military, while others (Castro, Huffman, Adler, & Bienvenu, 1999; Reed & Segal, 2000) suggested that high operational tempo kept soldiers in the U.S. Army. Sullivan's studies on Marine and Navy officers showed a high increase in turnover due to work overload. Giacalone found the same results as Sullivan's by reviewing responses from the military transition program. Sanchez, Bray, Vincus, and Bann (2004) implied that the best way for the U.S. Army to keep its knowledgeable personnel was to give them what they needed to reenlist.

Transformational Leadership and Job Satisfaction

Most of the research on transformational leadership has showed that the focus of transformational leadership is mostly on employee work motivation and performance, suggesting the likelihood that transformational leadership assists with job satisfaction (Yang, 2009). Employees who are satisfied are committed to doing what is necessary to get the job done. Zhou, Li, Zhou, and Su (2008) showed that job satisfaction aligns with

organizational performance because employees are more interested in the work at hand than the monetary aspects of the work. Others noted that employees who are satisfied are more productive than are employees who are dissatisfied (Al-Aameri, 2000).

Transformational leadership and job satisfaction intertwine because both have the opportunity to stimulate employees to perform beyond their wildest dreams while recognizing change (Yukl, 2010). Leaders know that diversity exists throughout the organization because everyone has a different ethical background, but the use of transformational leadership has the ability to provide support and encouragement to help create solutions to some of the problems arising when employees are not satisfied. Satisfaction causes employees to trust their leaders and tends to motivate them to perform the work. As a result, using transformational leadership has the ability to increase employee job satisfaction.

The use of transformational leadership has the capability to produce job satisfaction, project confidence and optimism about goals and followers' abilities, and provide a clear vision of institutional goals and mission (Webb, 2009). Transformational leaders encourage creativity through empowerment and rewarding experimentation, set high expectations, create meaningful and satisfying work environments, and establish personal relationships with followers. All of these abilities can help lead to job satisfaction. Leaders are responsible for making sure it happens, for making sure the tools are in place to make job satisfaction work, and are maintained once they work for the organization. Follow-up needs to take place to get feedback and adjust accordingly.

Researchers have suggested that transformational leadership increases job satisfaction (Nielsen & Munir, 2009), and transformational leadership decreases the amount of job-related stress normally reported (Sosik & Godshalk, 2000). Nielsen and Munir also indicated that transformational leadership reduces the burnout effect. If leaders incorporate transformational leadership into their daily workflow, the business will go a lot smoother because several researchers found this leadership style is necessary to promote job satisfaction. As long as the employees are happy, the job will go smoothly without complications, but if the employees are not happy, leaders should expect some type of friction at work.

Noncommissioned Officers

In the U.S. Army, noncommissioned officers have existed since 1775. They are considered, "the backbone of the Army" (Department of the Army, 2002, p. V). They lead the way in mission accomplishment and soldiers' welfare. Noncommissioned officers have a creed (Elder & Sanchez, 1998) to live by and hold dear to their hearts: it is what makes them someone their soldiers want to emulate. Noncommissioned officers live and breathe the Army's core values. The acronym "LDRSHIP" makes up the Army values and stands for "loyalty, duty, respect, selfless-service, honor, integrity, and personal courage" (Department of the Army, 1999, pp. 2-2 - 2-3).

The noncommissioned officers' history goes from the birth of the United States Army in 1775 to the present. The timeline for noncommissioned officers is throughout the existence of the U.S. Army. It describes the roles of the noncommissioned officer

throughout the years and why they are "the backbone of the Army" (Department of the Army, 2002, p. V).

In the beginning, from 1775 to 1840, noncommissioned officers "duties and responsibilities were established by Inspector General Friedrich von Steuben in his *Regulations for the Order and Discipline of the Troops of the United States"* (U.S. Army, 2009, ¶ 2). Noncommissioned officers were carefully chosen for promotion and were usually promoted by the regimental commander. The chevrons worn on the uniform of noncommissioned officers were introduced in 1821 by the War Department; they went through several changes from then until 1860, when they were worn upside down in a "V" shape. In 1840, a distinctive sword was adopted to give the NCO Corps more prestige, and remains in existence for use during special ceremonies today.

From 1861 to 1885, noncommissioned officers led the way with the regimental colors and the national colors for commanders to maintain alignment and to know what units were on the battlefield. During the Indian Wars, noncommissioned officers were recognized as small-unit leaders and were heavily relied upon to guide the troops. The noncommissioned officers were highly respected. In 1885, the first retirement system came about, allowing enlisted men who served 30 years to retire with 75% of their active pay and allowances (U.S. Army, 2009, ¶ 3).

From 1902 to 1909, the noncommissioned roles were defined further. Inspector General Friedrich von Steuben's book went from five to six pages of instruction to 417 pages with the birth of the *Noncommissioned Officers Manual* in 1909, which reflected the birth of a modern Army (U.S. Army, 2009, ¶ 1). The best thing that happened to the

noncommissioned officers corps was in 1902, when the chevrons shrank in size and were

turned right side up in the point position in which they are worn today.

From 1930 to 1948, the noncommissioned officer ranks were reorganized.

Officers were allowed to select noncommissioned officers they felt were worthy of the

position. However, they had to learn their duties strictly as they went along. The

noncommissioned officers corps added five more ranks, "master sergeant, technical

sergeant, staff sergeant, sergeant, and corporal," thanks to Congress (U.S. Army, 2009, ¶

1). The additions helped to distinguish seniority and to protect the ranks. Later on, the

technical ranks were created to further distinguish between the noncommissioned officers

and to help with promotion opportunities. By 1955, the technical ranks went away and

the specialist and below ranks appeared (U.S. Army, ¶ 1).

From 1949 to 1959, the noncommissioned officers had the same experience in

World War II as they did in World War I, but with a lot more experience in leadership.

However, due to the loss of soldiers, commanders were forced to promote within the

ranks, which left newly promoted noncommissioned officers learning on the job. Also

during World War II, the Women's Army Corps was created, which allowed women to

become part of the noncommissioned officers ranks for the first time. In 1945, Congress

allowed soldiers who had 20 years of service the chance to retire, but they had to stay in

the U.S. Army Reserves until they reached 30 years of service. After World War II, the

U.S. Army began to invest more in the noncommissioned officer training by creating

training plans and schools for them. Noncommissioned Officers' Academy was

established, and eventually a U.S. Army education program was established to allow

noncommissioned officers the chance to pursue education credits while in the military (U.S. Army, 2009, ¶ 1-5).

From 1951 to 1970, noncommissioned officers ranks went through turbulence during the Korean War when the U.S. Army decided to downsize the Army and to allow the Reserves and National Guard to leave active duty. Most of the noncommissioned officers only had two years of service and no outstanding leadership abilities or training, but they had the drive and ambition to do what was needed of them. During these years, most units conducted their own leadership training. In 1958, the U.S. Army added two more ranks to the noncommissioned officers corps (master sergeant and sergeant major) to help add structure and to delineate more responsibility (U.S. Army, 2009, ¶ 3). At this time, the "ranks of the noncommissioned officers consisted of corporal, sergeant, staff sergeant, sergeant first class, master sergeant, and sergeant major" (U.S. Army, ¶ 3).

In 1963, the Secretary of the Army integrated a pilot drill sergeant course to help train new recruits (U.S. Army, ¶ 5). The success of this pilot course eventually led to the opening of the Army Drill Sergeant School. Originally, the school was mainly for men, but in 1972, six women from the Women's Army Corps went through the drill sergeant program (U.S. Army, ¶ 5). Soon afterwards, in 1966, the "Army Chief of Staff created the position Sergeant Major of the Army (SMA)" (U.S. Army, 2009, ¶ 2). General Harold K. Johnson indicated that the SMA would serve as advisor and consultant for all enlisted ranks and for the Army Chief of Staff.

From 1970 to 2000, the noncommissioned officers were in the spot light again during the Vietnam War. This war was considered a junior leaders' war and commanders

relied heavily on their noncommissioned officers. President Lyndon B. Johnson,

however, prohibited the use of noncommissioned officers from the reserve components.

This decision forced the U.S. Army to establish the "Noncommissioned Officer

Candidate Course" for soldiers to attend for more leadership training, and upon

graduation, they "were promoted to sergeant and the top ten percent of the class was

promoted to staff sergeant" (U.S. Army, 2009, ¶ 1). Some noncommissioned officers felt

that it was wrong to promote them so soon just for passing a school and labeled these

noncommissioned officers as "Shake & Bake NCOs" (U.S. Army, ¶ 1). They also felt

that the newly promoted noncommissioned officers undermined the prestige of the corps.

 "The U.S. Army implemented the Noncommissioned Officers Education System"

(U.S. Army, ¶ 4) in 1971 to help enhance noncommissioned officers' performance and

abilities. At the time, the school only taught three levels:

- Basic Noncommissioned Officer Course (BNCOC) to help provide basic leadership skills to noncommissioned officers at the squad and team level;

- Advanced Noncommissioned Officer Course (ANCOC) to help provide advance technical knowledge and skills to seasoned noncommissioned officers; and

- the Sergeants Major Academy to help prepare senior noncommissioned officers for positions of sergeant major at the division and higher headquarters level (U.S. Army, ¶ 4).

 Later, the Primary Leadership Development Course (PLDC) was incorporated

into the NCOES, with mandated attendance for noncommissioned officers to get

promoted to staff sergeant (U.S. Army, ¶ 4). In 1973, The Sergeant Morales Club was

created in Europe to represent the most distinguished noncommissioned officers who

portrayed the highest level of integrity, professionalism, and leadership. Thirteen years

later, the "Sergeant Audie Murphy Club was created in Fort Hood, Texas" to represent

noncommissioned officers who represented the "Army and unit traditions that contribute

to esprit de corps and superior performance of duty" (U.S. Army, ¶ 5-7). Eight additional

years passed before the club had spread Army-wide. These years were very busy for the

U.S. Army and its noncommissioned officers because they were involved in numerous

conflicts such as Grenada, Panama, and Somalia, while trying to keep the peace in

Rwanda, Haiti, Bosnia, and Kosovo. The Army's fight in Kuwait showed that leadership

was important in the training and preparation of soldiers and was why the U.S. Army

won this battle.

Years later, the U.S. Army relooked at all echelons and decided to revise the

Noncommissioned Officers Education System (NCOES) to move away from the Cold

War way of leading and training noncommissioned officers. This led to renaming the

Primary Leadership Course to the Warrior Leaders Course: the new course was designed

to "better prepare soldiers for war from the lessons learned in Iraq and Afghanistan"

(U.S. Army, 2009, ¶ 11).

Finally, from 2001 to the present, noncommissioned officers viewed their way of

life totally differently when the United States was attacked on September 11, 2001, on its

own home soil by al-Qaeda. The attack on the World Trade Center left America

devastated because the country was not prepared for such an attack. The attack

immediately sent the United States to war with Islamic fundamentalists in Afghanistan.

Between the Special Forces and the Northern Alliance, the U.S. Army was able to defeat

the Taliban. In 2003, the 3rd Infantry Division invaded Iraq to continue to fight against

the war on terror. Many soldiers, noncommissioned officers, officers, and civilians lost

their lives daily to help protect America's way of life. These men and women "continue

the history and traditions of those who went before them" by doing what they do best,

training as they fight and taking care of soldiers (U.S. Army, 2009, ¶ 8).

The noncommissioned officer ranks, existing since the beginning of the United

States Army in 1775, were created to help distinguish among enlisted soldiers. The

noncommissioned officer ranks went through several changes between the years of 1775

through 1958, but remain strong today. According to U.S. Army (2009), the

noncommissioned officer ranks consist of the following:

- Corporal: This rank is the base of the corps, holds the position of a squad leader, and must train soldiers, make sure soldiers maintain their personal appearance, and look out for soldiers' welfare.

- Sergeant: This rank has the most impact on soldiers because sergeants are responsible for making sure soldiers complete all their daily tasks. Sergeants can be responsible for up to 10 soldiers at a time, but most importantly, they are the first to set an example for soldiers.

- Staff Sergeant: This rank has more responsibilities than sergeants have, but usually has the rank of a sergeant under them. They are tasked to develop, maintain, and utilize their soldiers' potential.

- Sergeant First Class: This rank is usually held by a seasoned soldier. They must advise and assist the platoon leader in the daily activities of the platoon and its soldiers. They are also responsible for making quick and accurate decisions in the best interests of the soldier and the U.S. Army.

- Master Sergeant: This rank gives guidance from the bottom to the top. They are considered the principal noncommissioned officer with the responsibility to mentor and dispatch leadership and other duties to both soldiers and noncommissioned officers alike.

- First Sergeant: Also considered a principal noncommissioned officer, with responsibilities of a company of 62-190 soldiers, a first sergeant must be the provider, disciplinarian, and wise counselor for his soldiers. The first sergeant advises his company commander while making sure all soldiers are trained.

- Sergeant Major: With the responsibility of a battalion level from 300 to 1,000 soldiers, they influence all soldiers directly under them and assist officers at the battalion level.

- Command Sergeant Major: This rank has the responsibility of a brigade level of from 3,000 to 5,000 soldiers. The rank functions without supervision and is expected to be able to handle all soldiers, no matter the situation. They are considered multifaceted and provide recommendations to everyone.

- Sergeant Major of the Army: Only one person at a time can wear this rank and the position is usually held for four years. The Sergeant Major of the Army is considered the senior enlisted advisor for all enlisted personnel and the

consultant to the Chief of Staff, which is a four-star General. He oversees and

mentors all noncommissioned officers as well.

Transformational Leadership and Job Satisfaction as Related to the U.S. Army

Researchers have conducted many studies on transformational leadership and job

satisfaction, but only a few relating both elements to the U.S. Army. Some of the most

influential leaders in the U.S. Army have been transformational leaders. The U.S. Army

is a fast-paced, high-tempo organization that is forever changing, depending on the

requirements of the missions at hand. Every time a change occurs, the leadership must

convince the soldiers why change is necessary for the organization. The hardest part for

these leaders occurs when they must convince soldiers what their job will be when they

must deploy to protect the United States. Many soldiers are satisfied with their jobs and

will do what is needed of them. Other soldiers are scared, do not like what they do, or do

not like who they work for, but must be convinced to do what is necessary on a daily

basis and in time of war or be punished in accordance with Army Regulation 27-10,

Uniform Code of Military Justice.

The healthcare arena in the U.S. Army faces many challenges. Not only must

they take care of soldiers and their family members, personnel must do more work with

fewer people, and more importantly, they receive less pay than their civilian counterparts

get. Zangaro and Johantgen (2009) indicated the U.S. Army healthcare arena has more

issues recruiting and retaining registered nurses due to poor leadership, overwork, lower

pay, and general dissatisfaction with the organization. Occupational stress has a role in

the lack of job satisfaction in the U.S. Army (Ahmadi & Alireza, 2007; Stetz, Stetz, &

Bliese, 2006), suggesting that life stressors can promote job dissatisfaction. Ahmadi and Alireza indicated the U.S. Army personnel have additional stressors, such as 12- to 24-hour shifts, change of duty stations (voluntary or involuntary), disciplinary actions, and deployment, which can lead to dissatisfaction. The U.S. Army offers soldiers incentives to reenlist, but the offers are not enough to retain soldiers if they are dissatisfied.

Gap in the Literature

Most of the research supported the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction; but little research addresses transformational leadership and job satisfaction related to the U.S. Army (Me-lien, Wen-long, & Shu-lien, 2010). Future research is necessary to expand study of transformational leadership and job satisfaction in the U.S. Army to help increase retention (Lytell & Drasgow, 2009; Marshburn & Rollin, 2005; Me-lien et al., 2010). Shamir and Ben-Ari (1999) indicated the U.S. Army experiences ongoing change and needs transformational leaders to create balance, especially when dealing with job satisfaction. Transformational leadership training is essential in the U.S. Army to promote job satisfaction. Army leaders would benefit from transformational leadership training by increasing effectiveness and overall teamwork performance, which would lead to job satisfaction (Ashkanasy & Tse, 2000).

The literature reviewed did not contain any supporting documentation in reference to transformational leadership and job satisfaction among noncommissioned officers or retired Army noncommissioned officers. A majority of the articles addressed only commissioned officers or officers as a whole. Noncommissioned officers are vital to the U.S. Army as well, because they help train the sons and daughters of America

(Department of the Army, 1999). Commissioned officers delegate orders to noncommissioned officers to accomplish the mission, and the noncommissioned officers ensure completion of the mission with the help of subordinates. Noncommissioned officers are also responsible for motivating and inspiring subordinates to progress and re-enlist to become future leaders. Teamwork is vital for the U.S. Army to grow in knowledge and strength, because teamwork protects the soldiers when they are in harm's way. The objective of the study was to close the gap between transformational leadership and job satisfaction by using a quantitative correlation study to capture feedback from retired Army noncommissioned officers who had rejoined the military workforce and lived in South Korea.

Conclusion

The literature review contained evidence that a relationship exists between transformational leadership and job satisfaction and included evidence of a relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction as related to the U.S. Army. However, the literature review did not provide evidence that a relationship exists between transformational leadership and job satisfaction as it relates to noncommissioned officers or retired Army noncommissioned officers. Transformational leadership allows leaders to influence others to get the job done while promoting teamwork. Job satisfaction is vital to accomplish the work efficiently. The U.S. Army needs transformational leaders to keep up with the changing operational tempo; the leaders must not only promote change, they must also help promote job satisfaction to complete one mission and move

to the next. Both commissioned or noncommissioned officers need to instill trust and confidence in the subordinates.

Previous research has shown that job satisfaction is necessary for any organization to succeed. To reach job satisfaction, an employee must be happy with his or her job. Job dissatisfaction does not manifest quickly: it normally builds up over time and can grow out of control if unnoticed. Transformational leadership can help guide dissatisfied employees towards a happy median if given the opportunity. If the dissatisfied employees are not helped to find satisfaction, they may leave the organization in search of a workplace that satisfies their needs.

The literature review was vital in determining the current knowledge about the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction in the U.S. Army. Even though previous studies have shown a relationship, no correlation was shown between transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and retired Army noncommissioned officers who had rejoined the military workforce. This review showed the gaps in the literature and explained why further research was needed. The need for social change suggests that transformational leadership and job satisfaction can co-exist in the U.S. Army (see Figure 2).

Theoretical Framework

Transformational Leadership

Retired Army Noncommissioned Officers

Job Satisfaction

An examination of the impact of Transformational Leadership impact on Job Satisfaction of Retired Noncommissioned Officers of the U.S. Army living in Korea

Figure 2. Theoretical framework. The figure depicts a relationship among transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and retired Army noncommissioned officers returning to the military workforce.

Summary

The current study included theories on transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and noncommissioned officers in the U.S. Army. The literature review examined elements important to the study and helped bring to light hypotheses necessary for continued research to find a correlation between transformational leadership and job satisfaction as it relates to retired Army noncommissioned officers who had rejoined the military workforce and lived in South Korea. The lack of research available concerning transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and retired Army noncommissioned officers indicated the need for further research on the enlisted side soldiers. Transformational

leadership and job satisfaction must co-exist in organizations with complex duties (Yang, 2009). Scholars placed much emphasis on transformational leadership and job satisfaction, but too little on relating both components to the U.S. Army. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass, 1985) was used to help measure transformational leadership and the various leadership behaviors associated with it. The Bowling Green State University (2011) Job Descriptive Index (JDI) and Job in General (JIG) scales were used to help measure job satisfaction. Chapter 3 describes the content of the scales and explains why they were important to this research.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative correlation research study was to determine whether a relationship existed between transformational leadership and job satisfaction among retired Army noncommissioned officers who had rejoined the military workforce in South Korea. Chapter 1 contained examination of a possible relationship and addressed the gap in the literature concerning transformational leadership and job satisfaction among retired Army noncommissioned officers who had rejoined the military workforce. The study involved surveying a random sample of retired Army noncommissioned officers who had rejoined the military workforce and currently lived in South Korea to measure their perceptions of transformational leadership and job satisfaction and to determine whether a relationship exists between the two factors since the retirees rejoined the military workforce.

Chapter 2 was a review of the body of knowledge surrounding transformational leadership and job satisfaction and contained discussion of the theoretical framework that guided the literature review. Chapter 3 includes discussion of (a) the research design and approach, (b) the population, (c) the setting and sample, (d) the data collection and analysis, and (e) the participants' protections. The chapter includes an explanation of the reason for using a correlation design to answer the research question as well as the procedure used to accept or reject the null hypothesis.

Research Design and Approach

Quantitative research involves the gathering and interpretation of numerical data to understand, expound, calculate, or control the results from the questions asked and the hypotheses (Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2009). This quantitative study was conducted using a nonexperimental design with an electronic survey, which facilitated gathering the data. The survey method was appropriate because the research variables were well known in the study (i.e., transformational leadership and job satisfaction), al because the design could be used to determine whether a correlation exists.

Gay et al. (2009) indicated that quantitative design requires the use of measures standardized by varying experiences of people related to the situation at hand and fitting them in an assigned numerical order. The most important positive thing about quantitative research was that it was useful to measure the responses of many people to a small number of questions by comparing the answers to the questions and conducting a statistical aggregation of the data. The world does not always rely on numbers, and researchers must convert the data they collect into numbers to draw an assumption (Punch, 2009). For researchers to turn data into numbers, they must use the process of measurement by assigning numbers to people, places, things, or anything else required to perform the research (Punch, 2009).

Punch (2009) reported two types of operations that produced numbers: counting and scaling. Counting, which is an everyday task, is normally not thought of when applying research; however, when researchers count, the count is in respect to something, which in turn deals with a scale or quantity. Scaling is quite different, and when

researchers use this technique, they normally address characteristics, properties, or traits, with a continuum from a great number to a small number of that characteristic, property, or trait. Quantitative data is data collected in the form of numbers that can be counted, scaled, or both. In turn, measurement turns data into numbers to derive a comparison for researchers.

Punch (2009) suggested that counting and scaling are forms of measurement using variables to organize and analyze data. In contrast, Creswell (2003) and Gay et al. (2009) indicated that a quantitative research method might constrain an investigation to predetermined categories, which could limit the researcher in attaining the detailed information. Creswell also indicated that quantitative research provides enough literature at the beginning of the study to provide direction for and to answer the research questions and hypotheses.

The intent of the research was to determine whether a relationship existed between transformational leadership and job satisfaction of retired Army noncommissioned officers of the U.S. Army who had rejoined the military workforce in South Korea. This approach required the development questions and hypothesis statements to determine whether a relationship existed between one or more variables (Creswell, 2003). Regression analysis offers two alternatives from which to choose: a simple correlation and regression and a multiple correlation and regression analysis (Punch, 2009). A simple correlation and regression analysis involves one independent and one dependent variable, while multiple correlation and regression analysis involves more than one independent and dependent variables. The current research involved a

simple correlation and regression analysis with one independent and one dependent variable. Many researchers have used correlation analysis to determine whether a relationship between several different variables existed in conjunction with job satisfaction (Bassett-Jones, 2005; Deshields, Kara, & Kaynak, 2005; Skemp-Arlt & Toupence, 2007; Smerek & Peterson, 2007). The present study was an examination of transformational leadership, which was measured by Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ5X), and job satisfaction, which was measured by the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) and the Job in General (JIG) scale of retired Army noncommissioned officers living in South Korea. Permission was obtained to use the MLQ5X (see Appendix A and Appendix B) and the JDI and JIG scales (see Appendix C and Appendix D).

The purpose of this quantitative correlation research study was to determine whether a relationship existed between transformational leadership and job satisfaction among retired Army noncommissioned officers who had rejoined the military workforce in South Korea. An anonymous electronic survey was used to gather the data necessary to complete the research and the researcher used statistical analysis to test the hypotheses. The host for the surveys was SurveyMethods.com, which allowed collection of the data without tracking the participants. The results from the survey allowed receipt of numerical data from the respondents and performance of a statistical analysis without bias to determine the true findings (Creswell, 2003).
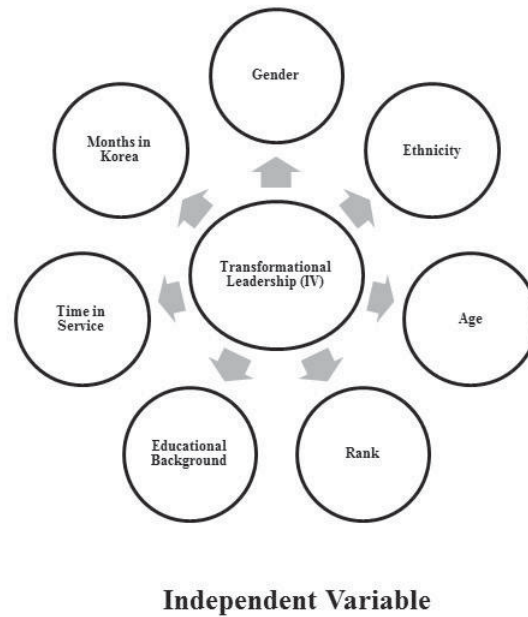
Population

The population of interest and the sampling frame for this study was retired Army noncommissioned officers who had rejoined the military workforce and lived in South Korea. Longevity did not play a factor in this research; the participant could have been in Korea for as little as one month to qualify as a participant. The participants needed to be in the ranks of sergeant to command sergeant major (the Sergeant Major of the Army (SMA) was a participant in this survey) and retired from active duty. Demographic information was collected to gather information on participant gender, ethnicity, age, rank, educational background, time in service, and time in Korea. Current position, leadership position, or occupational skills did not matter for this study as long as the participant was currently working.

Variables

Variables provide ways to validate research; however, many types of variables can be used in many different ways, depending on the research. Quantitative research involves independent, dependent, or control variables, which deal with a cause-and-effect relationship (Punch, 2009). Independent variables are the causes of the research and dependent variables are the effects of the research, and the latter can be used in either experimental or nonexperimental designs (Punch, 2009). Independent variables normally have an impact on the dependent variables. Control variables are variables that are needed at times to remove or control an effect in the research. The independent variables in the present study and their descriptions follow (see Figure 3).

1. Transformational leadership was the ability of a leader to motivate and empower employees to be creative and innovative to accomplish the mission. It was measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ5X; Avolio & Bass, 2004).

2. Gender was measured by selecting male or female.

3. Ethnicity was measured by selecting from (a) African-American (Non-Hispanic), (b) Caucasian (Non-Hispanic), (c) Hispanic, (d) Asian, and (e) Other.

4. Age was measured in whole years by selecting from (a) 36-40 years, (b) 41-45 years, (c) 46-50 years, and (d) 51 and over.

5. Rank was measured by selecting from (a) sergeant (E-5), (b) staff sergeant (E-6), (c) sergeant first class (E-7), (d) master sergeant (E-8), (e) first sergeant (E-8), (f) sergeant major (E-9), (g) command sergeant major (E-9), and (h) command sergeant major of the Army (E-9).

6. Educational background was measured by selecting from (a) less than high school/GED, (b) high school, (c) some college, (d) associate degree, (e) baccalaureate degree, (f) some graduate work, (g) master's degree, (g) doctorate or equivalent, and (h) other.

7. Time in service was measured by (a) 20-23 years, (b) 24-27 years, and (c) 28-32 years.

8. Months in Korea was measured by (a) 0-4 months, (b) 5-8 months, (c) 9-12 months, (d) 13 months or greater.

Independent Variable

Figure 3. Independent variables.

The dependent variable for this study was job satisfaction, which was whether an employee experienced a positive feeling about his or her job that allowed sufficient comfort to be willing to continue accomplishment of the daily tasks. Job satisfaction was measured using Bowling Green State University (2011) Job Descriptive Index (JDI) and Job in General (JIG) measures.

Setting and Sample

The setting for this study was South Korea. Only retired Army noncommissioned officers who had rejoined the military workforce and who currently lived in South Korea

were eligible to participate. The use of snowball sampling was necessary to locate

enough retired Army noncommissioned officers who had rejoined the military workforce

and lived in South Korea. E-mail reminders to participate were sent to the known

participants one week after the initial request, along with a request for assistance to locate

other retired Army noncommissioned officers who rejoined the military workforce and

lived in South Korea. A second e-mail reminder was sent one week later.

Singleton and Straits (2005) referred to samples as a piece of a population or

universe that represents the population or universe. This research included the use of

snowball sampling, which allowed a member of the population to refer another

participant who met the criteria of the survey (Castillo, 2009). The criteria for the

participants included retired Army noncommissioned officers who had rejoined the

military workforce and lived in South Korea. The snowball sampling technique is a non-

probability sampling technique used by researchers to identify potential subjects in

studies where subjects are hard to locate (Castillo, 2009). For example, if only knew a

few people who were retired Army noncommissioned officers who had rejoined the

military workforce and who lived in South Korea were known, current participants could

provide assistance in locating other retired Army noncommissioned officers with similar

characteristics.

The advantages of using the snowball technique were that the process was cheap,

needed little planning, and allowed locating additional retired Army noncommissioned

officers who had rejoined the military workforce and lived in South Korea (Castillo,

2009). The disadvantages of using the snowball technique were that little control

surrounded the sampling method, representativeness of the sample was not guaranteed, and the technique could lead to sampling bias, because participants tend to nominate people they know well who share the same views (Castillo, 2009). The sampling technique was important to the statistical power of the hypothesis testing and the generalizability of the results (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006).

A sample size estimate was obtained using G*Power software (Faul, Erdefelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007). For regression analysis, the estimated size of the sample depended on four parameters: (a) the chosen significance level (α) of the test, (b) the desired level of statistical power (1 - β), (c) an effect size parameter, and (d) the number of predictor variables (Cohen, 1988). The chosen significance level of the test was 0.05 and the desired level of power was 0.95. Effect sizes of 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35 are considered small, medium, and large, respectively (Cohen, 1988). The effect size for this study was 300, and while it could be extremely small, it was likely that it was at least 0.15, if the regression was statistically significant. The effect size of 0.15 was selected, which was a medium effect size according to the scale outlined by Cohen (1988). For a regression analysis with one predictor variable, power = 0.95, α = 0.05, and effect size of 0.15, the estimated sample size was equal to 149, based on a portion size of a population of 300 (Cohen, 1988). Therefore, the minimum sample size was 149.

Accurately designed research must guarantee that power is high to detect reasonable departures from the null hypothesis (Faul et al., 2007). After the sample was collected, a post-hoc power analysis was conducted to ensure that the power was adequate. Data were collected from a purposive sample of 149 retired noncommissioned

Army officers. After completion of 149 surveys, a power analysis was conducted to ensure that the tests rejected the null hypothesis when it was false in reality. If the power was adequate, then the data was used to test the hypotheses. If the power had not been adequate, the survey would have remained open until the power was adequate.

Data Collection

Singleton and Straits (2005) indicated investigators should have no limitations when finding people to help with survey research, as long as the person is willing to participate. However, informed consent is required for all persons to participate. The data collection method used for the present study was e-mail questionnaires, in which an e-mail was sent to participants clarifying the purpose of the survey, the age to participate in the survey, the rights of the participant, and how the information was used. This same e-mail provided a secure link to SurveyMethods.com, which gave participants the opportunity to opt to take or not take the survey. Those who opted to participate in the survey saw the research questions; those who opted not to complete the survey in full did not have access to all the research questions. The Walden University Institutional Review Board (IRB) gave approval to the study before data were collected.

Data Analysis

After the data had been collected, it was entered in SPSS software version 17. The data were analyzed using simple linear regression analysis or a chi-square test of independence, depending upon whether the data met the assumptions of parametric statistics. The significance level was set at 0.05.

Part of a linear regression analysis consists of a Pearson correlation coefficient (*r*), which is calculated as the usual measure of correlation (Aczel & Sounderpandian, 2006). This correlation measures the strength of the linear relationship between two paired variables in a sample (Creswell, 2003). A significant linear correlation between two variables indicates that as the value of the independent variable changes, the value of the dependent variable also changes. Aczel and Sounderpandian pointed out that Pearson's *r* is a measure of association that varies from -1 to +1, with 0 indicating no relationship or a random pairing of values, and 1 indicating a perfect relationship. When the *r* is +1, it is a perfect positive relationship, which indicates that when the value of the independent variable increases, the value of the dependent variable also increases. When the *r* is -1, it is a perfect negative relationship, such that when the independent variable increases, the dependent variable decreases (Aczel & Sounderpandian, 2006).

If there is a significant linear correlation and if *r* is large enough between two variables, regression analysis is appropriate to identify the relationship, with the hope of predicting one variable from the other (Aczel & Sounderpandian, 2006). The findings in this study indicated whether any significant correlations existed and described the linear relationship between the variables.

Because the data in the present study violated the assumptions of parametric statistics, a chi-square test of independence was necessary to determine whether a significant association between the variables of interest was present. Creswell (2003) indicated the chi-square test assesses whether paired observations on two variables, expressed in a contingency table, are independent of each other. According to Aczel and

Sounderpandian (2006), the test of independence, a chi-square probability of less than or equal to 0.05 is commonly interpreted by researchers as justification for rejecting the null hypothesis that the independent variable is unrelated (i.e., only randomly related) to the dependent variable. The alternative hypothesis corresponded to the variables having an association or relationship in which the structure of the relationship was unspecified.

<div align="center">**Instrumentation and Materials**</div>

The data collected for this research involved three instruments. The Avolio and Bass (2004) MLQ5X, the Bowling Green State University (2011) Job Descriptive Index (JDI), and the Job in General (JIG) measure were the instruments used.

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ5X)

Avolio's and Bass' (2004) MLQ5X was used to measure the independent variable, transformational leadership. In this study, noncommissioned officers were measured on perceived leadership behaviors based on four leadership styles. The first leadership behavior was charisma/idealized influence, which was being a mentor/role model with strong values and morals. The second leadership behavior was inspirational motivation, which was being able to formulate a vision to make it clear enough for everyone to understand and at the same time show personnel what the leader expected from them to make the vision a reality. The third leadership behavior was intellectual stimulation, which was being able to boost their people to make decisions on their own, as well as being able to be creative and innovative while working. The last leadership behavior was individualized consideration, which was being able to act as coaches and mentors to their followers by providing personal time and tools for the followers'

personal development and growth. Other leadership behaviors were included in the

MLQ5X instrument, but were not utilized in the present study.

Avolio and Bass (2004) indicated that the MLQ5X is a psychometric instrument

that has been validated in a wide variety of research programs and studies throughout the

world. Northouse (2003) suggested the MLQ5X was one of the most widely used

instruments in leadership research today. The instrument measures the preference,

behaviors, attitudes, and styles of leaders on a bigger scale (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The

MLQ5X can be used to help leaders determine which leadership style they use. It was

also a viable tool to use to work on individual, team, and organizational development.

The MLQ5X required participants to answers questions by using a Likert-type scale,

where 0 = *Never*, 1 = *Once in a while*, 2 = *Sometimes*, 3 = *Fairly often*, and 4 =

Frequently, if not always.

The MLQ5X is the most validated instrument in reference to leadership theory

(Antonakis & Atwater, 2002). The instrument has been tested in both the civilian and

military sectors to validate hypotheses dealing with all types of leadership styles. Bass

(1985) originally developed the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire to test a grounded

theory between transformational and transactional leadership. The first survey had 142

questions, which eventually were reduced to 73 questions. Bass used a panel of 11

judges to help look for answers related only to transformational and transactional

leadership. Eventually, this nontraditional method was considered obsolete and the

current version shows better validity than the older versions.

The MLQ5X was originally validated by researchers using over 3,000 respondents and 14 samples from the MLQ5R. The researchers provided different analysis from the old version to validate the instrument. Howell and Avolio (1993) used a different version of the MLQ to do the same thing; this version was the MLQ (Form 10) version. The testing led to the selection of new items to help distinguish between transformational and charismatic leadership. Scholars from the leadership field reviewed the MLQ to help provide recommendations for adding or removing MLQ items.

To validate the MLQ5X, the Cronbach alpha coefficient was used to report consistencies from the MLQ5X. Results showed reliabilities between 0.74 and 0.94, replicating the efforts of Bass and Avolio (2000). Dumdum, Lowe, and Avolio (2002) conducted a meta-analysis study using the MLQ5X to determine whether transformational and transactional leadership showed correlation with effectiveness and satisfaction. Most of the studies conducted reported MLQ5X reliabilities of 0.70 or higher.

Job Descriptive Index (JDI) and Job in General (JIG)

The last two instruments used to measure the independent variable, job satisfaction, were the revised versions of the Bowling Green State University JDI and JIG instruments. The instruments measured five factors leading to job satisfaction. According to Bowling Green University (2011) and Baltzer et al. (2000), the five factors measured are (a) work at present job, (b) pay, (c) opportunities for promotion, (d) supervision, and (e) coworkers. The JDI had at least 72 one-word or small phrases to

answer with a "yes," "no," or "?" (not sure) answer. The JIG had at least 18 one-word or small phrases to answer in the same manner.

Scoring the results from both the JDI and JIG scales included use of a numerical value for each "yes," "no," or "?". The favorable "yes" received a value of 3 points, while "no" received a value of 0 points and "?" received a value of 1 point. Unfavorable "yes" received a value of 0 points, while "no" received a value of 3 points and "?" received a value of 1 point. After calculating the overall score, a higher score indicated a higher level of job satisfaction while a lower score indicated a lower level of job satisfaction. The validity of both instruments was researched by Baltzer et al. (2000) by using a sequential strategy conducted over a five-year span. There was evidence that both the JDI and JIG were used in other research studies to determine whether job satisfaction existed among individuals in the workforce (Madlock, 2008; Murphy, 2004; Saane, Sluiter, , Verbeek, , & Frings-Dresen, 2003). Saane et al. suggested the consistency of the JDI had a Cronbach's alpha of 0.88 and the JIG had a consistency of 0.91. Similarly, Balzer et al. (2000) suggested the JDI had a Cronbach's alpha consistency of 0.89 and the JIG had a consistency of 0.92.

Protection of Human Participants

To have a participant pool, approval from the Walden University Institutional Review Board (IRB) was necessary. The IRB approval number for this study was 11-28-0112811. After the researcher gained approval, data collection began. The need was imperative to protect the participants from any type of scrutiny by allowing them to remain anonymous. The participants used had to volunteer and give informed consent

before they were used in the research. According to Creswell (2003), the researcher must

make sure all participants are free from physical, psychological, social, economic, or

legal risks. To assure all participants that their rights are protected, the survey included

an informed consent statement at the beginning to assure participants that they were

protected prior to data collection. Based on Creswell (2003), the following information

was included in the informed consent form:

1. The right to participate voluntarily and/or withdraw from the survey at any

    given time, no matter the circumstances.

2. The purpose of the study, so the participants knew why they were

    answering questions and the effect their participation might have had on

    them and on the study as a whole.

3. The procedures of the study, so the participants knew what the study was

    about.

4. The right to ask questions and obtain a copy of the results, especially, to

    have their rights protected.

5. The benefits of the study that would accrue to participants.

In summary, the researcher had responsibilities to all participants involved in the

research study. The researcher was the sole collector of all data. The data collected from

the participants was in the form of an anonymous electronic survey, which ensured

maintenance of confidentiality. All electronic questionnaires involved in this study

remain in a password-protected database and available for review for a minimum of five

years or until no longer required. At the end of five years, all documents will be deleted

from the database. No participant data collected will be shared with any other

participants or with anyone else not vital to the research.

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this quantitative correlation research study was to determine

whether a relationship existed between transformational leadership and job satisfaction

among retired Army noncommissioned officers who had rejoined the military workforce

in South Korea. The results of the simple linear regression analysis indicated no

significant relationship between the variables, none of the variability in job satisfaction

was explained by transformational leadership, and the linearity assumption was violated

for the linear regression analysis. Because of the violation, a chi-square test of

independence was performed to assess whether an association existed between

transformational leadership and job satisfaction. The chi-square test of independence

indicated the alternative hypothesis was accepted as true because the null hypothesis was

rejected. A detailed description of the results appear later in this chapter.

Tools, Data Collection, and Analysis

The survey instruments used in this study were delivered by SurveyMethods.com

to 149 retired Army noncommissioned officers who had rejoined the military workforce

and lived in South Korea. The respondents' data were collected anonymously and

analyzed. Of the 149 respondents who received the survey, 143 respondents completed

the survey past the demographics section. Participants had the right to stop if they did

not feel comfortable answering the questions. Of this number, 141 completed the survey

in its entirety; thus, $n = 141$.

The following three instruments were used in this study with no modifications:

the Avolio and Bass (2004) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ5X), the

Bowling Green State University (2011) Job Descriptive Index (JDI), and the Bowling

Green State University (2011) Job in General (JIG). The MLQ5X has 45 questions that

measure transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles and

effectiveness (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The MLQ5X was divided into four sections—

leadership style, extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction—and used a 5-point scale for

scoring: 0 = *Not at all*, 1 = *Once in a while*, 2 = *Sometimes*, 3 = *Fairly often*, and 4 =

Frequently, if not always. The participant selected one of the five scale possibilities to

answer each question. The results were based on the sum of each question divided by

each section to make up the average. Higher scores indicated greater representation in

that particular leadership style.

The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) scale measured five principal factors of job

satisfaction identified as important throughout many organizations: work, pay,

opportunities for promotion, supervision, and coworkers (Baltzer et al., 2000). The JIG

scale measured the entire aspect of the job. There were 72 items on the JDI and 18 items

on the JIG, which contained five words or less per item. Participants responded to each

by marking "Y" for yes, "N" for no, or "?" for undecided (Baltzer et al., 2000). The JDI

and JIG results were scored by providing numerical points for the responses. If the item

had a "Y," it was scored with 3 points; if the item had an "N," it was scored with 0

points; and if the item had a "?," it was scored with 1 point. The scale was designed to

use reverse scoring for those items that were considered negatively worded by changing

the "Y' to 0 points and the "N" to 3 points, with the "?" remaining at 1 point. The scale

was designed to score 1 point for three or less missing answers for work, supervision, and

coworker, and score 1 point for two or less missing answers for pay and promotion (Bowling Green State University, 2011).

Demographic Variables

After completing the survey questions for the MLQ5X, JDI, and JIG, participants were asked to report the following demographic characteristics: gender, ethnic background, age, rank at retirement, educational background, time in service, and months living in South Korea. Of the retired Army noncommissioned officers who participated in the study, 86 (61%) were males and 55 (39%) were females. Figure 4 shows the distribution of gender.
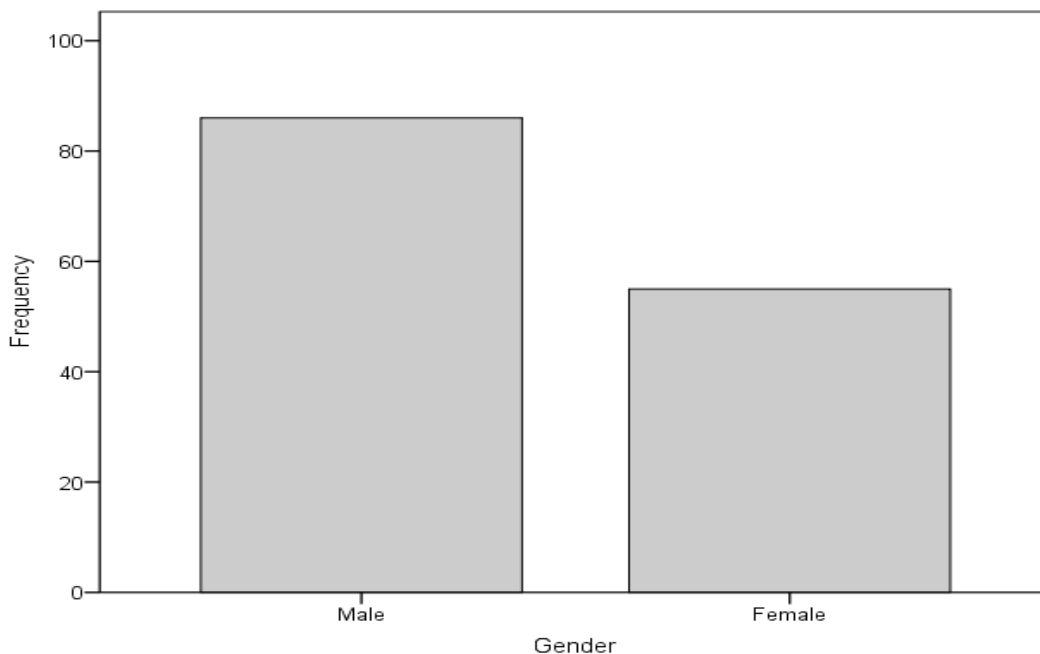

Figure 4. Gender distribution of the participants ($n = 141$).

Participants then were asked to report their ethnic background. Results indicated

36 (25.5%) were Black, 45 (31.9%) were White, 26 (18.4%) were Hispanic, and 34

(24.1%) were Other (Figure 5).
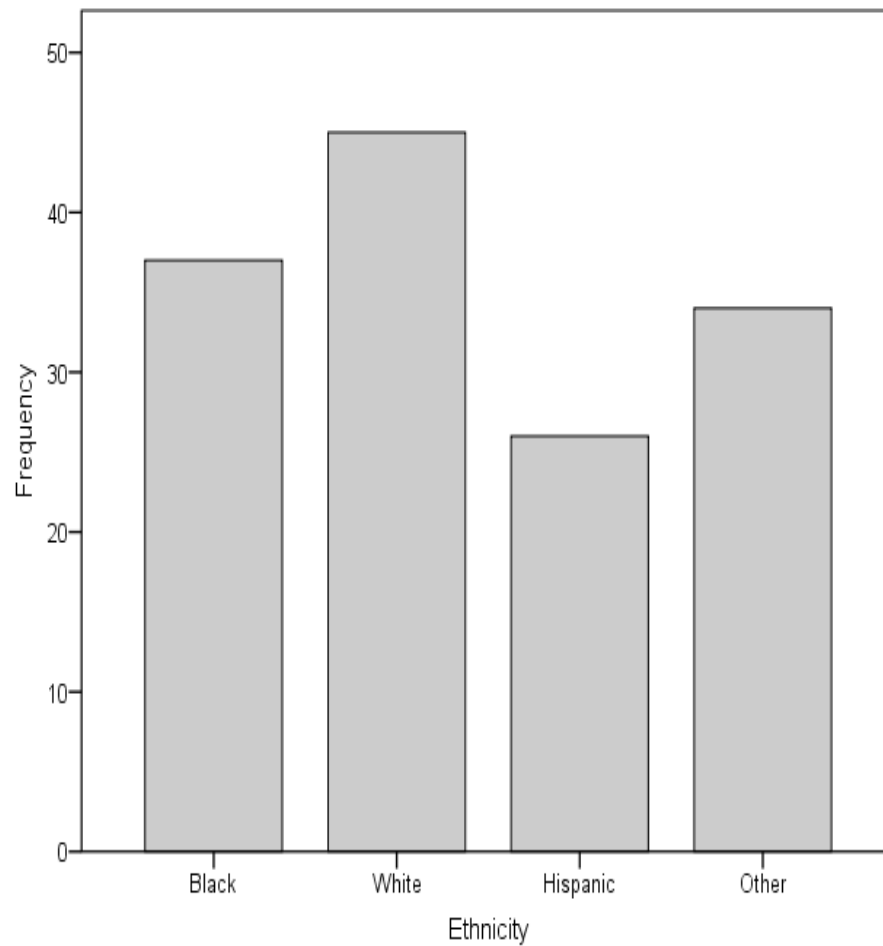
Figure 5. Ethnic background of the participants ($n = 141$).

The next question was the participant's age at retirement. Results showed 27

(19.1%) were between the ages of 36 and 40, 42 (29.8%) were between the ages of 41

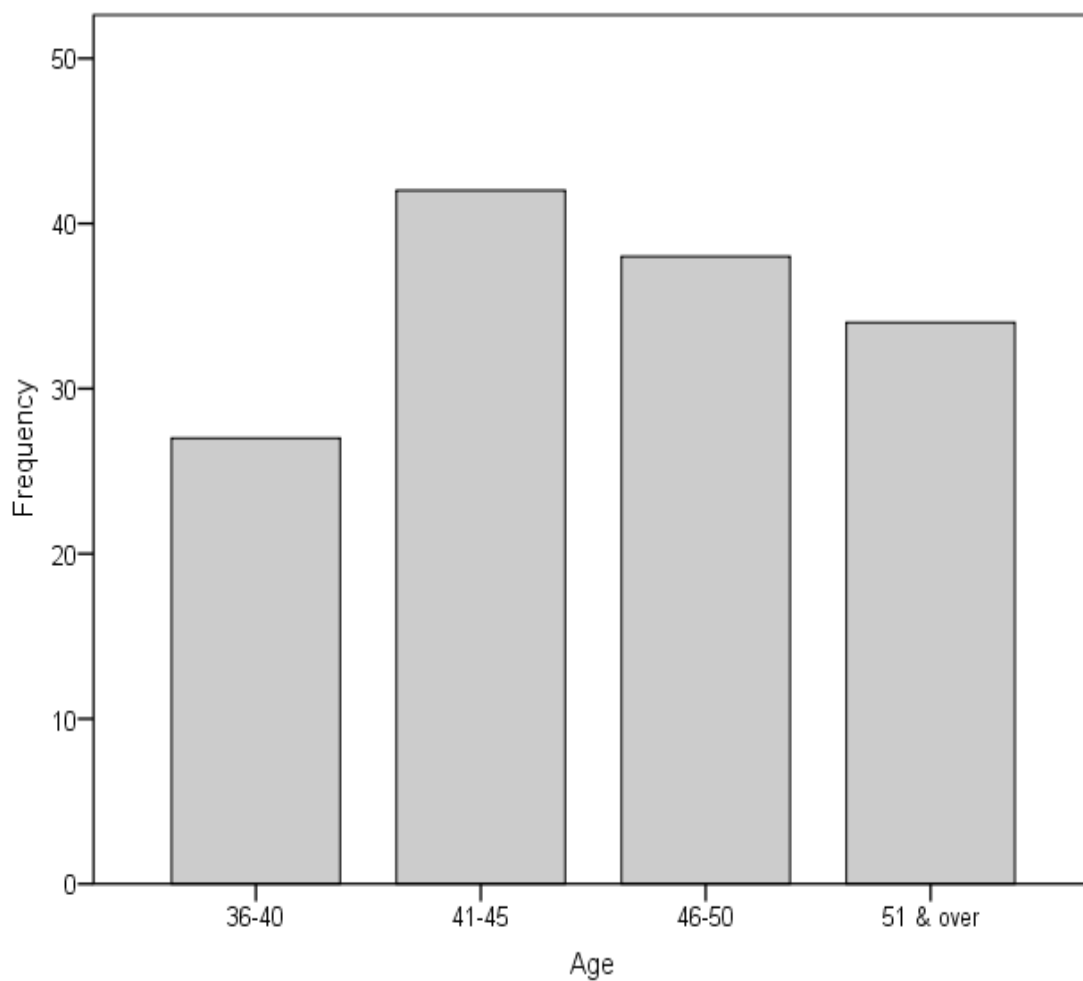and 45, 38 (27%) were between the ages of 46 and 50, and 34 (24.1%) were 51 or older

(Figure 6).

Figure 6. Age range of the participants (*n* = 141).

The participants were asked to report the rank at which they retired. Results

indicated 19 (13.5%) retired as a Sergeant or Staff Sergeant, 83 (58.9%) retired as a

Sergeant First Class or Master Sergeant, 29 (20.6%) retired as a First Sergeant or

Sergeant Major, and only 10 (7.1%) retired as a Command Sergeant Major or Sergeant

Major of the Army (Figure 7).
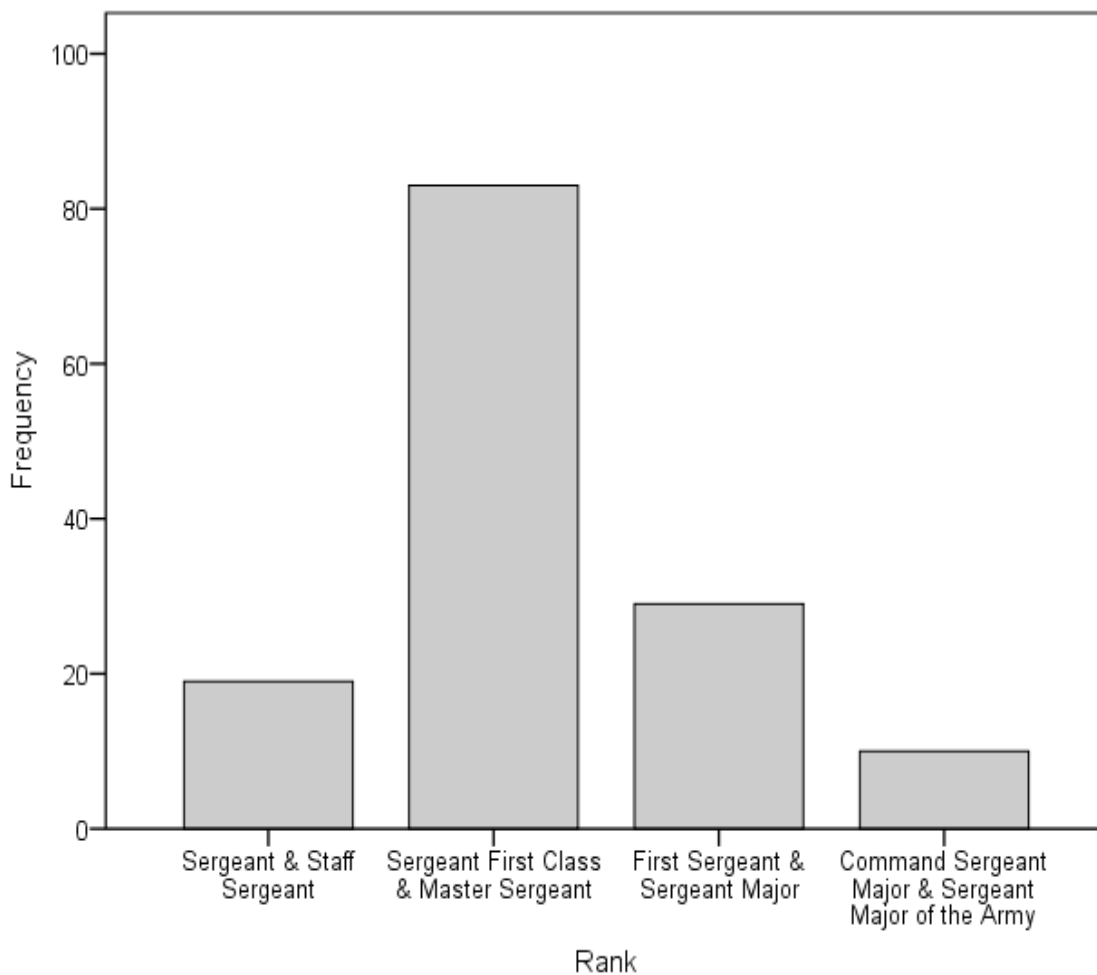
Figure 7. Rank of the participants (*n* = 141).

The participants were asked to list their educational background. Results showed

6 (4.3%) had only a high school diploma, 20 (14.2%) had some college, 26 (18.4%) had

an associate's degree, 40 (28.4%) had a bachelor's degree, 21 (14.9%) had completed

some graduate work, 27 (19.1%) had a master's degree, and only 1 (0.7%) reported other

(Figure 8).
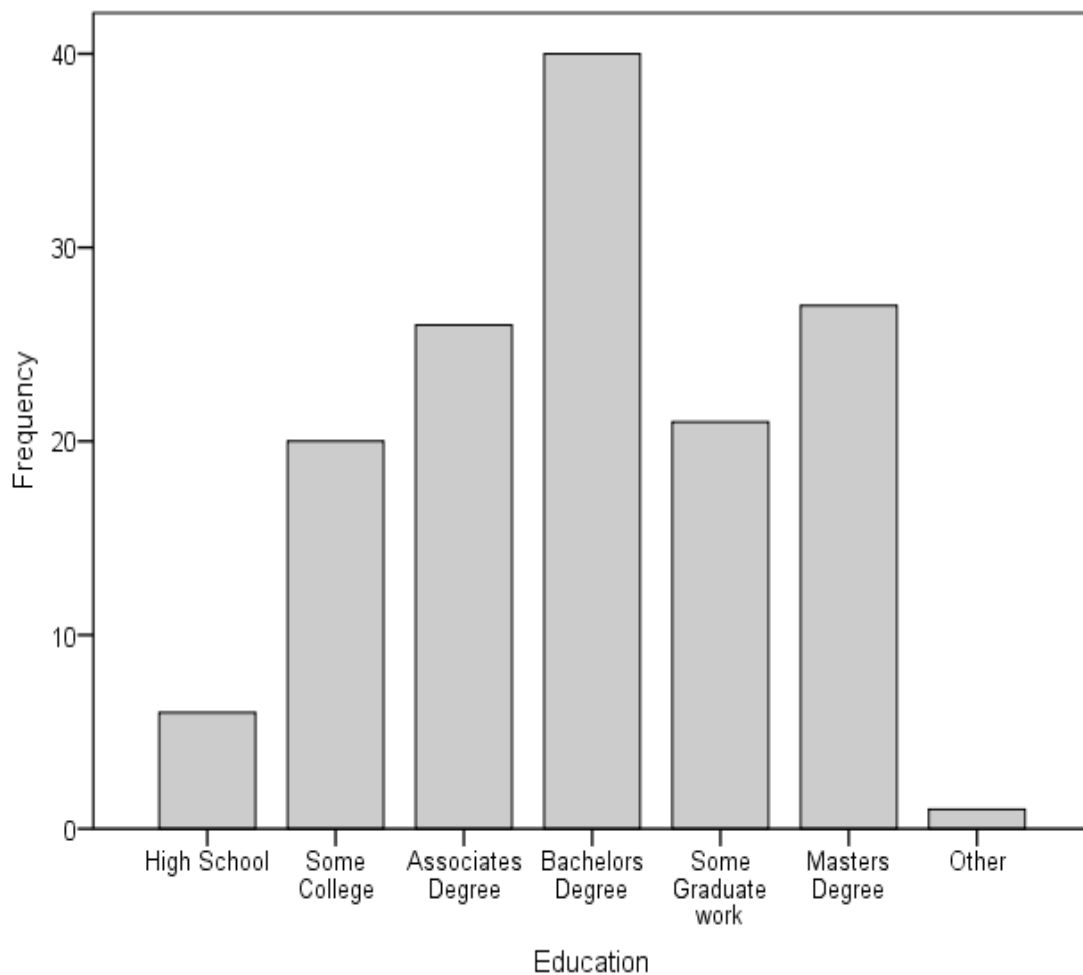
Figure 8. Educational background of the participants (*n* = 141).

The participants were asked how long they were in the service before retiring.

Results showed 66 (46.8%) stayed 20 to 23 years, 52 (36.9%) stayed 24 to 27 years, and

23 (16.3%) stayed 28 to 32 years (Figure 9).
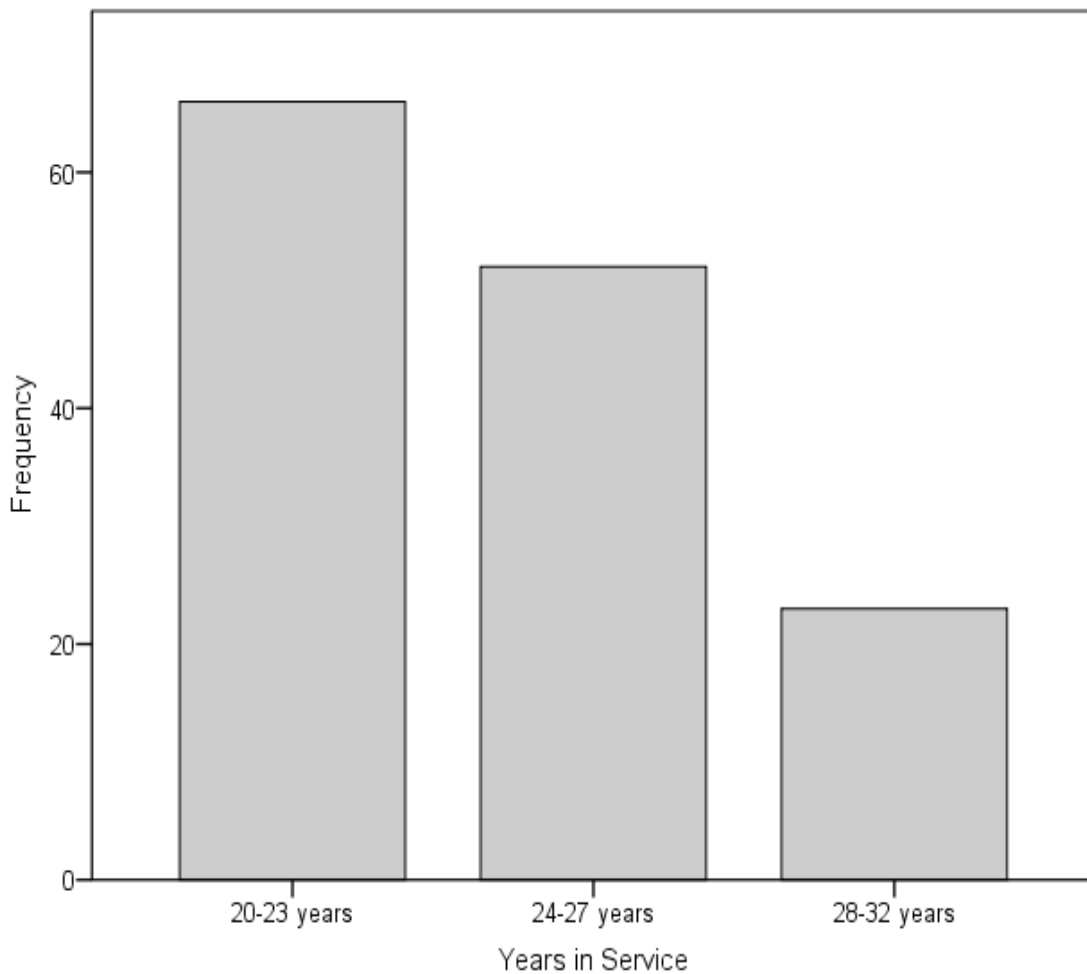
Figure 9. Years in service of the participants (*n* = 141).

The final question asked participants how long they had lived in South Korea. Results showed 7 (5%) had been in South Korea from 0 to 4 months, 9 (6.4%) had been in South Korea from 5 to 8 months, 26 (18.4%) had been in South Korea 9 to 12 months, and 99 (70.2%) had been in South Korea for 13 months or longer (Figure 10).
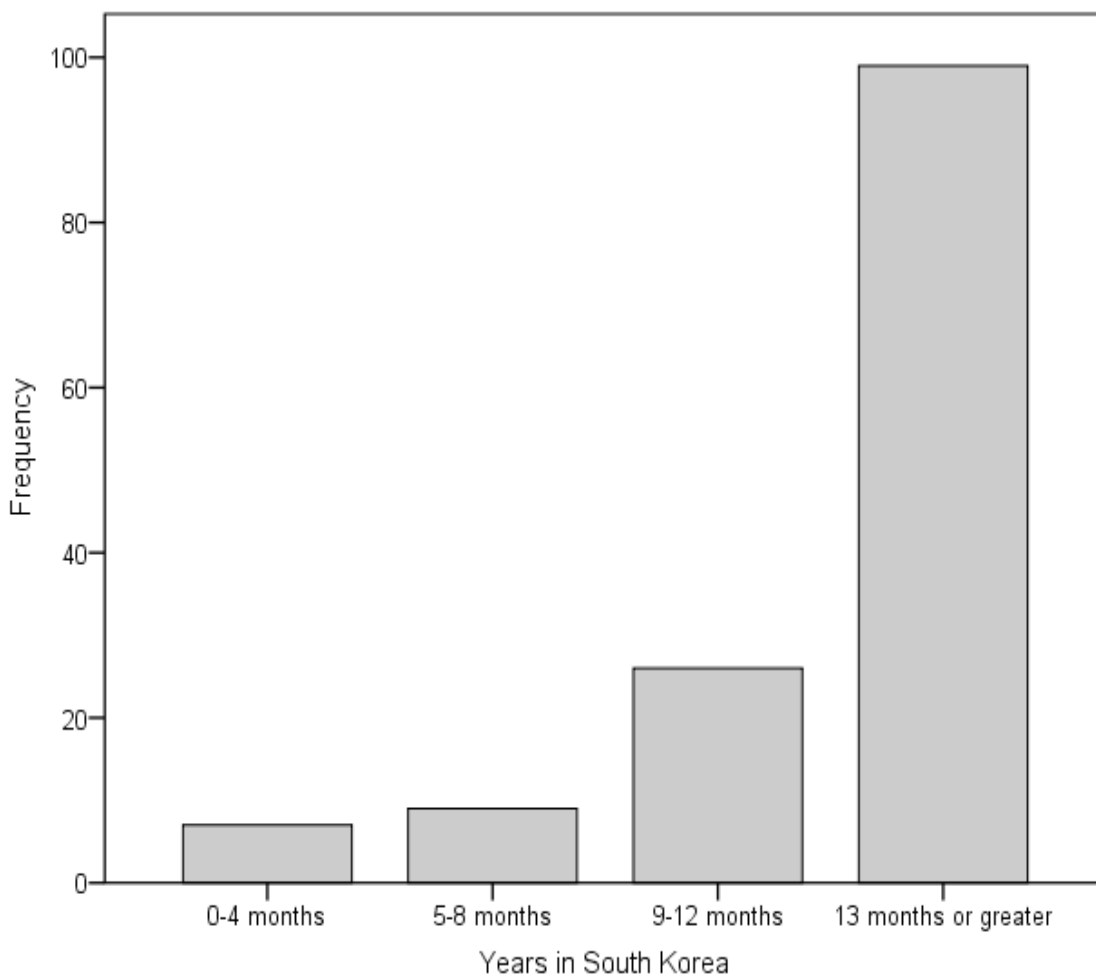
Figure 10. Participant years in South Korea (*n* = 141).

Hypothesis Testing and Assumptions

The research question was addressed by testing the null hypothesis suggesting no significant relationship between the independent variable, transformational leadership, and the dependent variable, job satisfaction. The MLQ instrument was used to assess the transformational leadership style, and the JDI/JIG survey instrument was used to determine job satisfaction.

MLQ: Overall Results

The MLQ was scored by averaging the responses for each leadership style scale with a response ranging from 1 to 5. The transformational leadership scale was composed of idealized attributes, idealized behaviors, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration. MLQ questions 2, 6, 8, 10, 13, 14, 15, 18, 19, 21, 23, 25, 26, 29, 30, 31, 32, 34, and 36 addressed transformational leadership. The transactional leadership scale was composed of contingent reward and management by exception active. MLQ questions 1, 4, 11, 16, 22, 24, 27, and 35 addressed transactional leadership. The laissez-faire leadership scale was composed of laissez-faire leadership and management by exception passive. MLQ questions 3, 5, 7, 12, 17, 20, and 28 addressed laissez-faire leadership. Table 1 contains the results from the MLQ instrument.

As shown in Table 1, the following subscales had a mean score greater than 3.0: idealized influence (attributed; $x = 3.68$, $SD = 0.550$), idealized influence (behavior; $x = 3.59$, $SD = 0.663$), inspirational motivation ($x = 3.55$, $SD = 0.753$), intellectual stimulation ($x = 3.36$, $SD = 0.812$), individual consideration ($x = 3.71$, $SD = 0.500$), and contingent reward ($x = 3.57$, $SD = 0.755$). Three subscales had mean scores below 3.0: management-by-exception active had a mean rating of 2.64 ($SD = 0.824$), management-by-exception passive had a mean rating of 1.26 ($SD = 0.540$), and laissez-faire leadership had a mean rating of 0.56 ($SD = 0.866$). The MLQ survey creators compared the means to national MLQ norms means using a t test. All of the MLQ subscales were significantly higher than the national norms means at the 0.01 level of significance ($p <$

.001, see Table 1), except for the laissez-faire subscale, $t(140) = 0.56$, $p = .353$; see Table

1. The results from the MLQ subscales indicated the participants exhibited high levels of

transformational leadership and transactional leadership, but a low level of laissez-faire

leadership.

Table 1

Comparison of MLQ Survey Results to National Norms

	M National norm	M Sample	SD	t	p
Transformational leadership					
Idealized influence (attributed)	2.97	3.68	.550	15.313	.000
Idealized influence (behavior)	2.74	3.59	.663	15.209	.000
Inspirational motivation	2.76	3.55	.753	12.554	.000
Intellectual stimulation	2.70	3.36	.812	9.650	.000
Individual consideration	2.83	3.71	.500	20.866	.000
Transactional leadership					
Contingent reward	2.87	3.57	.755	11.034	.000
Management-by-exception (active)	1.68	2.64	.824	13.951	.000
Non-leadership					
Management-by-exception (passive)	1.03	1.26	.540	5.167	.000
Laissez-faire	0.63	0.56	.866	-0.933	.353

Note. n = 141; df = 140

The results from the MLQ by leadership style were supported when the scores were summed. The transformational leadership style was the most prevalent within the sample. Transformational leadership ratings had a mean of 3.58 ($SD = 0.606$, see Table 2), while transactional leadership ratings had a mean of 3.11 ($SD = 0.607$, see Table 2). Laissez-faire leadership ratings had a mean of 0.94 ($SD = 0.589$, see Table 2).

Table 2

MLQ Survey Results by Leadership Style ($n = 141$)

Leadership style	*M*	*SD*
Transformational	3.58	0.606
Transactional	3.11	0.607
Laissez-faire	0.94	0.589

JDI/JIG Scale Results

The JDI/JIG provided six facets of job satisfaction, including an overall measure of satisfaction for evaluation. "The JDI measures five principal facets of job satisfaction that have been identified as important across numerous organizations: work itself, pay, promotion, supervision, and people with whom you work on your present job (often referred to as co-workers)" (Balzer et al., 2000, p. 11). The JIG assessed satisfaction with the job in general.

Next, the JDI and the JIG scales were scored by averaging the ratings to determine an overall score for job satisfaction. As instructed, participants entered a Y, N,

or ? beside a word or phrase associated with each scale. Items answered with "Yes"

received 3 points. Items answered with "No" received 0 points. Items answered with "?"

received 1 point. Reverse scores were assigned to items that were worded unfavorably,

such that Y = 0 points and N = 3 points (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Using these scales and

potential scores, the raw score for each participant had the potential to range between 0

and 54 for each subscale. The mean score was 37.4 (n = 141) with a standard deviation

of 8.35.

Then, the raw scores were compared with a neutral or middle value of the

possible range of scores to determine satisfaction for the six JDI/JIG facets. Balzer et al.

(2000) stated, "Without attempting to pinpoint an exact neutral point, we have found it to

be reasonably close to the middle range of possible scale scores (0-54), or around a score

of 27" (p. 24). Hypotheses about differences between means can be tested using t tests.

An analysis of the mean scores using a t test provided additional insight into the

expressed job satisfaction of the participants. By comparing the mean for each subscale

with the neutral point of 27, statistical significant differences were determined.

For the subscales comparison, the null hypothesis no significant difference

between the neutral point and the JDI/JIG subscale sample means. As indicated by the

significances of the JDI/JIG subscale t tests, the null hypothesis was rejected for all

subscales (p < .01, see Table 3), except the "opportunities for promotion" subscale (t =

0.21, p > .05, see Table 3). Therefore, the participants of this study were satisfied with

five facets of their job: work on present job, pay, supervision, people on your present job,

and the job in general, but were not satisfied with the opportunities for promotion.

Table 3

Comparison of JDI/JIG Subscale Means to National Mean

	M (National)	M (Sample)	t	P
Mean JDI/JIG	27	37.4	8.35	.000
JDI subscale				
Work on present job	27	35.3	5.91	.000
Pay	27	33.8	9.66	.000
Opportunities for promotion	27	27.4	0.21	.831
Supervision	27	42.2	10.25	.000
People on your present job	27	43.1	11.00	.000
JIG subscale				
Job in general	27	42.4	10.33	.000

Note. n = 141; *df* = 140

Research Question

The results of the MLQ and the JDI/JIG were used to answer the research

question. Specifically, a simple linear regression analysis was conducted to test the

alternative hypothesis suggesting a significant relationship between transformational

leadership and job satisfaction. The results indicated no significant relationship, $r(140) =$

.008, p = .462, $F(2, 138)$ = .009, p = .924 (see Table 4). None of the variability in job

satisfaction was explained by transformational leadership (r^2 = .000, see Table 4), which

was supported by the random pattern and flat regression line shown in the scatter plot

(see Figure 11).

Table 4

Linear Regression Analysis Correlation Coefficient r, r^2, *and* F

	Value	*df*	*P*
R	0.008	140	.462
r^2	0.000		
F	0.009	2, 138	.924
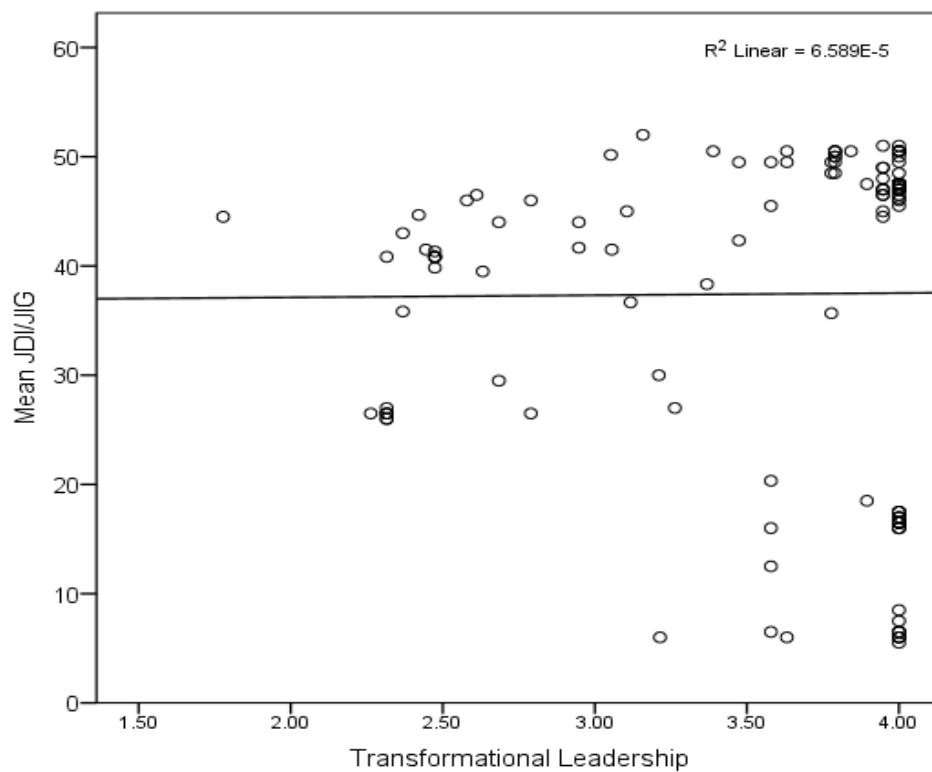
Figure 11. Linear regression of tranformational leadership and JDI/JIG (*n* = 141).

Simple linear regression analysis is based on numerous assumptions, and if any of these assumptions are violated, the regression model's results and conclusions may be incorrect and not accurate (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). Osborne and Waters (2002) indicated the most serious violations of the linear regression assumptions include nonlinearity of the relationship, autocorrelation of error terms, heteroscedasticity of the errors, and/or non-normality of the error distribution. Therefore, the data for this study was assessed to determine whether the assumptions of linearity, normality, homoscedasticity, and independence were valid for the two hypotheses. The assumptions of linearity, homogeneity of variance, and normality were all violated, indicating the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance are robust to violations and the assumption of linearity was much more sensitive to violations (Cohen & Cohen, 1983).

If the relationship is not linear, linear regression analysis will not accurately estimate the relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variable (Pedhazur, 1997). Non-linearity was detected by examining residual plots, which are plots of the standardized residuals as a function of standardized predicted values (Cohen & Cohen, 1983; Pedhazur, 1997). Cohen and Cohen also indicated that when a residual plot displays a random pattern of data points, the assumption of linearity is not violated, whereas a curved pattern or a trend up or down in the data points indicates the linearity assumption is violated. The residual plot for the regression analysis displayed a distinct pattern (see Figure 12); the data were distributed disproportionately below the zero line and a downward trend was visible in the data points. Thus, the scatter plot of the residuals indicated that the data violated the assumption of linearity. Multiple

transformations were used to attempt to avoid the violation of the assumptions of linear

regression analysis; however, none of the transformations was successful in eliminating
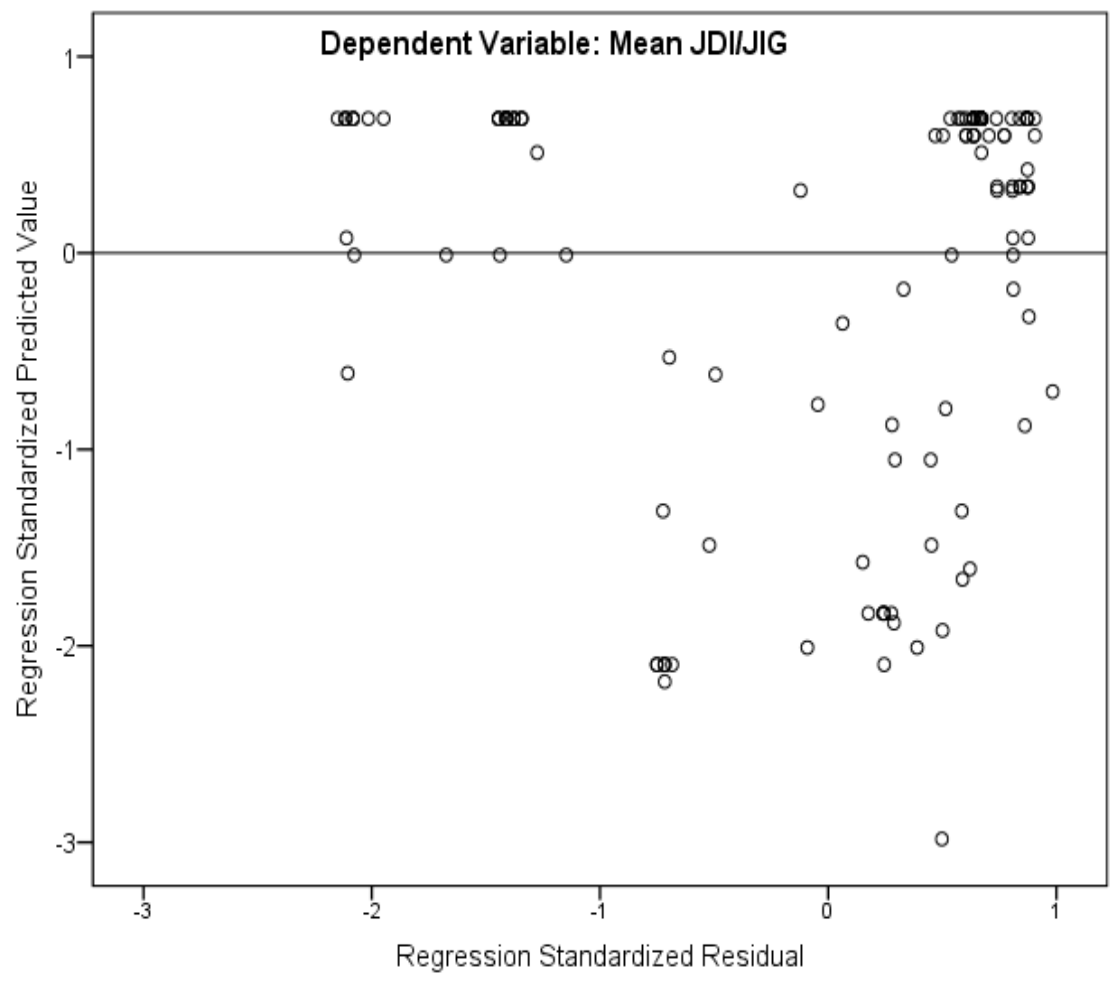
the violation of linearity.

Figure 12. Scatter plot of residuals and predicted values for the linear regression analysis

of transformational leadership and job satisfaction (*n* = 141).

Because the linearity assumption was violated for the linear regression analysis

and none of the attempted transformations were successful in correcting the violation, a

chi-square test of independence was conducted to assess whether a relationship was

present between transformational leadership and job satisfaction. The association

between two categorical variables was tested using the chi-square test of independence

(Creswell, 2003). The null and alternative hypotheses associated with the chi-square test

of independence are that the null hypothesis suggests the two variables are independent

and unrelated. The alternate hypothesis suggests the two variables are dependent and

related.

The chi-square test of independence was used to determine whether an association

existed between two categorical (nominal) variables. This study had two interval

variables, so the variables required modification from interval variables to nominal

variables. The dependent variable, job satisfaction, was an interval variable with scores

that ranged from 0 to 54, so it was re-coded into a nominal variable with three categories:

"dissatisfied" was ≤ 22, "neutral" was $23 - 31$, and "satisfied" was ≥ 32, because "scores

well above 27 (i.e., 32 or above) indicate satisfaction, while those below 27 (i.e., 22 or

below) indicate dissatisfaction" (Balzer et al., 2000, p. 24).

The independent variable, transformational leadership, was changed from an

interval variable with a range of scores from 0 to 4.0 to a nominal variable with two

categories: more transformational leadership and less transformational leadership,

because when discussing transformational leadership, degree or frequency of occurrence

are more accurate (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The creators of the survey stated that it was

better to categorize leaders as more transformational or less transformational, rather than as transformational or not transformational (Mind Garden, 2010). Because a value of 3.0 represented transformational behavior quite often and 4.0 represented transformational behavior frequently, if not always, it was determined that values equal to or greater than 3.0 were "more transformational" and values less than 3.0 were "less transformational."

After the variables were recoded into nominal variables, a chi-square analysis was conducted to determine whether the variables were independent. The chi-square tests of independence indicated the alternative hypothesis was accepted as true because the null hypothesis was rejected ($X^2 = 31.033$, $p < .000$). The results indicated that transformational leadership and job satisfaction were dependent and related, such that when the leadership style was more transformational, participants indicated a higher occurrence of being satisfied with the job than when the leadership style was less transformational (see Figure 13). Some participants had a more transformational leadership style and were dissatisfied with the job, but no participants who had a less transformational leadership style were dissatisfied with the job (Figure 13). There were more participants who were neutral about their job and had a less transformational leadership style than there were participants who were neutral about their job and had a more transformational leadership style (see Figure 13).

The chi-square test has only one assumption, which is that fewer than 20% of the cells have expected counts less than five. The assumption that less than 20% of the cells have expected counts less than five was not violated because only 16.7% of the cells had expected counts of less than five. Thus, the results of the chi-square analysis were valid.
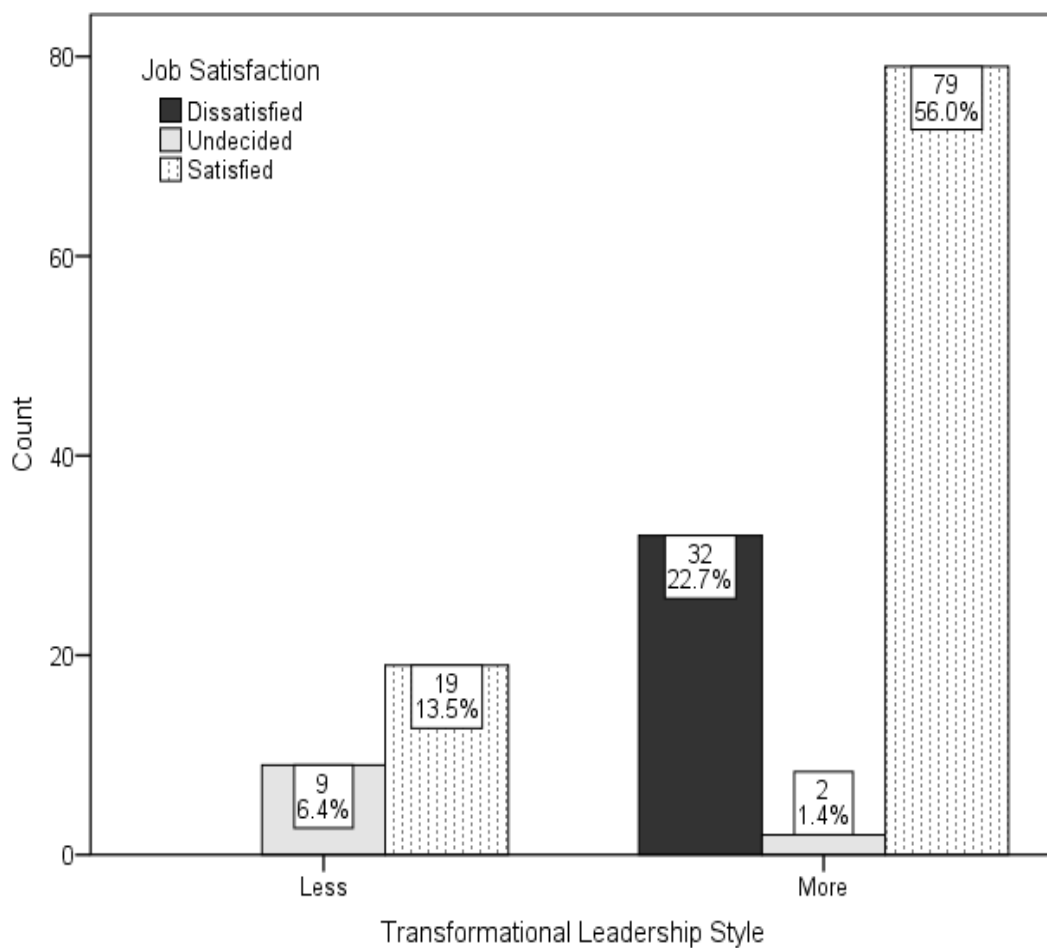
Figure 13. Bar chart for job satisfaction and transformational leadership (*n* = 141).

Power Analysis

According to Cohen (1988), hypothesis testing has four possible outcomes: reject

the null hypothesis in favor of the alternative hypothesis when in reality the null is false,

reject the null hypothesis when in reality it was true, fail to reject the null hypothesis

when in reality it was false, and fail to reject the null hypothesis when in reality it was

true. A Type I error corresponds to rejecting the null hypothesis when it was actually

true, while a Type II error corresponds to failing to reject the null when it was actually false. Thus, a Type II error occurs when the researcher concludes there was no significant effect based on the sample data, when significance was present in the population, which means that a Type II error occurs when the effect is present in the population, but the sample does not exhibit the effect. Type II errors are more common for small samples than for larger samples (Cohen, 1988). The probability of making a Type II error is denoted by β. The power of a statistical test is 1 - β. By definition, the power of a statistical test is the probability that the null hypothesis is rejected, given that it is in fact false (Cohen, 1988), and, therefore, power should be high. Statistical tests that lack power cannot reliably differentiate between the null hypothesis and the alternative hypothesis of interest and are of limited use.

The chi-square test of independence power analysis was conducted using G*Power software version 3.1 (Faul et al., 2007). The power analysis was considered a post hoc power analysis because it took place after the data were collected. According to Cohen (1988), post hoc power analyses are used to assess whether a statistical test had a high probability of rejecting a null hypothesis if it was actually false.

The post hoc power for the chi-square analysis depends on four input parameters: (a) the chosen significance level (α) of the test, (b) the size of the sample, (c) degrees of freedom for the test, and (d) an effect size parameter (Cohen, 1988). For the present study, α was set at 0.05, the sample size was 141, and there were two degrees of freedom for the test. The G*Power software was used to calculate the effect size, given the expected and actual distribution of observations, and the post hoc power was calculated

to be 1.000, which indicated the power of the test was exceptionally high and the probability of making a Type II error was negligible. Therefore, the power for the chi-square test of independence was adequate to ensure that the statistical decision was accurate and reliable.

Summary

Chapter 4 contained the results of the analysis of the data collected with the MLQ and the JDI/JIG survey instruments. The data were analyzed using simple linear regression analysis followed by a chi- square test of independence because the data did not meet the assumptions of parametric statistics. The results of the simple linear regression analysis indicated there was no significant relationship, none of the variability in job satisfaction was explained by transformational leadership, and the linearity assumption was violated for the linear regression analysis. None of the attempted transformations was successful in correcting the violation, so a chi-square test of independence was conducted to assess whether an association existed between transformational leadership and job satisfaction. The chi-square test of independence indicated that the alternative hypothesis was accepted as true because the null hypothesis was rejected.

The results indicated that transformational leadership and job satisfaction were dependent and related, such that when the leadership style was more transformational, there was a higher occurrence of being satisfied with the job than when the leadership style was less transformational. Some participants had a more transformational leadership style and were dissatisfied with the job, but no participants who had a less

transformational leadership style were dissatisfied with the job. More participants were neutral about their job and had a less transformational leadership style than participants who were neutral about their job and had a more transformational leadership style. Chapter 5 contains an interpretation of the findings, recommendations for action and further study, and implications for social change.

Chapter 5: Summary, Conclusion, and Recommendations

The purpose of this quantitative correlation research study was to determine

whether a relationship existed between transformational leadership and job satisfaction

among retired Army noncommissioned officers who had rejoined the military workforce

in South Korea. The independent variables were transformational leadership and the

demographic characteristics; the dependent variable was job satisfaction. The population

for this study was retired Army noncommissioned officers of the U.S. Army in South

Korea. An online survey instrument was used to gather information from 141 retired

Army noncommissioned officers on both the independent and dependent variables to test

the hypothesis and answer the research question of the study. Chapter 4 contained the

results of the analysis of the data collected with the MLQ and the JDI/JIG survey

instruments. Chapter 5 contains interpretation of the findings, recommendations for

action and further study, and implications for social change.

Interpretations of Findings

One research question and one set of hypotheses guided the study. The research

question is, What is the relationship between transformational leadership and job

satisfaction among retired Army noncommissioned officers in South Korea? The

hypotheses follow.

H_0: There is not a significant relationship between transformational leadership and

job satisfaction among retired Army noncommissioned officers in South Korea.

H_a: There is a significant relationship between transformational leadership and job

satisfaction among retired Army noncommissioned officers in South Korea.

The findings of the statistical regression indicated no relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction of retired Army noncommissioned officers living in South Korea, although the findings of the chi-square test indicated an association between the two variables. The findings also indicated more retired Army noncommissioned officers were neutral about their jobs and had a less transformational leadership style. The findings did not support the existence of a relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction of retired Army noncommissioned officers in South Korea.

Limitations

The review of the findings showed four possible outcomes from hypothesis testing: Reject the null hypothesis in favor of the alternative hypothesis when in reality the null was false, reject the null hypothesis when in reality it was true, fail to reject the null hypothesis when in reality it was false, and fail to reject the null hypothesis when in reality it was true (Cohen, 1988). A Type I error corresponds to rejecting the null hypothesis when it was actually true, and a Type II error corresponds to declaring there was no significant effect, when there actually was. The smaller the sample, the more likely a researcher is to commit a Type II error, and the ability to provide an accurate and reliable answer would not exist (Cohen, 1988).

The probability of making a Type I error is denoted by α, which is also called the significance level of the test. The probability of making a Type II error was denoted by β, with the power of the statistical test as $1 - \beta$. Cohen (1988) defined the power of a statistical test as the probability that the null hypothesis would be rejected, given that it

was in fact false, and therefore it should be high. Statistical tests that lack statistical

power are of limited use because they cannot reliably discriminate between the null and

alternate hypothesis.

As noted in Chapter 4, a power analysis was conducted for the chi-square test of

independence using G*Power software version 3.1 (Faul et al., 2007). The power

analysis was a post hoc power analysis because it took place after the data had been

collected. According to Cohen (1988), post hoc power analyses are useful to assess

whether a statistical test has a high probability of rejecting a null hypothesis if it was

actually false.

For the chi-square analysis, the post hoc power depends on four input parameters:

(a) the chosen significance level (α) of the test, (b) the size of the sample, (c) degrees of

freedom for the test, and (d) an effect size parameter (Cohen, 1988). For this study, α

was set at 0.05, the sample size was 141, and the test had two degrees of freedom. The

G*Power software was used to calculate the effect size, given the expected and actual

distribution of observations, and the post hoc power was calculated to be 1.000, which

indicated that the power of the test was exceptionally high and the probability of making

a Type II error was negligible. Therefore, for the chi-square test of independence, the

power was adequate to ensure that the statistical decision was accurate and reliable.

The chi-square alternative hypothesis results indicated an association between the

two variables. The nature of the association was that 56% of retired Army

noncommissioned officers had a high level of transformational leadership and were

satisfied with their jobs. The next close association showed 23% of retired Army

noncommissioned officers had a high level of transformational leadership and were

dissatisfied with their jobs, while the third closest association was 13.5% of retired Army

noncommissioned officers had a low level of transformational leadership and were

satisfied with their jobs (see Figure 13). The chi-square analysis indicated a statistically

significant association between the two variables, but there was not a clear relationship

between the two variables because 80% of the retired Army noncommissioned officers

had a more transformational leadership style.

Recommendations for Action

The results of this study could help the military and other organizations develop

strategies to teach and improve future leaders. Teaching leaders to be transformational

leaders may improve the quality of soldiers and employees while also enriching the

organizational environment. Such events would benefit the military and other

organizations by improving operational tempo, improving quality of life, improving

morale, and increasing job productivity. Under the improved circumstances, soldiers

might reenlist in the military and employees might stay longer on a job where they are

satisfied. Organizations could develop strategies, develop leaders, and train the leaders to

know why transformational leadership style is important and why transactional and

laissez-faire leadership approaches are not recommended in an organization needing to

move forward.

Recommendations for Further Study

The use of correlation research in this or any study does not allow

determination of causation (Creswell, 2003). Additional research is necessary to

determine whether other similar populations produce similar findings. Even though the findings for the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction were statistically significant, they may not be practically applicable to real-world prediction of job satisfaction based on the level of transformational leadership style. Additional investigations are needed to determine whether a true relationship exists. Additional research should include the effects of transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles on job satisfaction to see if the results would be the same.

Implications for Social Change

Job dissatisfaction can lead to a high attrition rate and reduce quality of life as well as productivity of employees in any organization (McNatt & Judge, 2008). The findings of this study indicated an association existed between transformational leadership and job satisfaction, but not within the sample of retired Army noncommissioned officers. Using the findings of the current study, organizations could implement strategies to diminish job dissatisfaction and increase job satisfaction. Such changes could lead to increased re-enlistment, improved quality of life, higher morale, and greater productivity for the military and for other organizations.

Conclusion

The relationship between transformational leadership style and job satisfaction was not determined in this study, which led to inconsistency with other researchers' findings. The implications from this study suggested employees are satisfied with their jobs when they are made to feel as though they are a part of a team and have the opportunity to contribute to the organization. If they are inspired, stimulated, challenged,

and informed, the chances of them leaving the organization are lower. Not everyone

works solely for a paycheck or other material objects: Most have ideas to share with

others and want to have a chance to show what they are capable of doing for the

organization. Employers need to recognize the changes in the contemporary workplace

and embrace transformation as a key part of that change. Employees' needs must be

satisfied on the job to improve productivity.

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Appendix A: Permission to Use MLQ5X

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

Third Edition
Manual and Sample Set

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

Contributions by:
Dr. Fred Walumbwa
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Appendix B: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ5X)

MLQ   **Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire**
Leader Form (5x-Short)

This questionnaire is to describe your leadership style as you perceive it. Please answer all items on this answer sheet. **If an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank.**

Forty-five descriptive statements are listed on the following pages. Judge how frequently each statement fits you. The word "others" may mean your peers, clients, direct reports, supervisors, and/or all of these individuals.

Use the following rating scale:

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
0	1	2	3	4

1. I provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts 0 1 2 3 4
2. I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate 0 1 2 3 4
3. I fail to interfere until problems become serious 0 1 2 3 4
4. I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards 0 1 2 3 4
5. I avoid getting involved when important issues arise 0 1 2 3 4
6. I talk about my most important values and beliefs 0 1 2 3 4
7. I am absent when needed 0 1 2 3 4
8. I seek differing perspectives when solving problems 0 1 2 3 4
9. I talk optimistically about the future 0 1 2 3 4
10. I instill pride in others for being associated with me 0 1 2 3 4
11. I discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets 0 1 2 3 4
12. I wait for things to go wrong before taking action 0 1 2 3 4
13. I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished 0 1 2 3 4
14. I specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose 0 1 2 3 4
15. I spend time teaching and coaching 0 1 2 3 4

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always		
0	1	2	3	4		

16. I make clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved ...... 0　1　2　3　4

17. I show that I am a firm believer in "If it ain't broke, don't fix it." ...... 0　1　2　3　4

18. I go beyond self-interest for the good of the group ...... 0　1　2　3　4

19. I treat others as individuals rather than just as a member of a group ...... 0　1　2　3　4

20. I demonstrate that problems must become chronic before I take action ...... 0　1　2　3　4

21. I act in ways that build others' respect for me ...... 0　1　2　3　4

22. I concentrate my full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures ...... 0　1　2　3　4

23. I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions ...... 0　1　2　3　4

24. I keep track of all mistakes ...... 0　1　2　3　4

25. I display a sense of power and confidence ...... 0　1　2　3　4

26. I articulate a compelling vision of the future ...... 0　1　2　3　4

27. I direct my attention toward failures to meet standards ...... 0　1　2　3　4

28. I avoid making decisions ...... 0　1　2　3　4

29. I consider an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others ...... 0　1　2　3　4

30. I get others to look at problems from many different angles ...... 0　1　2　3　4

31. I help others to develop their strengths ...... 0　1　2　3　4

32. I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments ...... 0　1　2　3　4

33. I delay responding to urgent questions ...... 0　1　2　3　4

34. I emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission ...... 0　1　2　3　4

35. I express satisfaction when others meet expectations ...... 0　1　2　3　4

36. I express confidence that goals will be achieved ...... 0　1　2　3　4

37. I am effective in meeting others' job-related needs ...... 0　1　2　3　4

38. I use methods of leadership that are satisfying ...... 0　1　2　3　4

39. I get others to do more than they expected to do ...... 0　1　2　3　4

40. I am effective in representing others to higher authority ...... 0　1　2　3　4

41. I work with others in a satisfactory way ...... 0　1　2　3　4

42. I heighten others' desire to succeed ...... 0　1　2　3　4

43. I am effective in meeting organizational requirements ...... 0　1　2　3　4

44. I increase others' willingness to try harder ...... 0　1　2　3　4

45. I lead a group that is effective ...... 0　1　2　3　4

Appendix C: Permission to Use JDI/JIG

BGSU
Bowling Green State University

Job Descriptive Index (JDI) Office
214 Psychology Building
Department of Psychology
Bowling Green State University
Bowling Green, OH 43403

August 24, 2011

The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) and family of measures – including the Job In General scale (JiG), abridged Job Descriptive Index (aJDI), abridged Job In General scale (aJiG), Trust in Management scale (TiM), Intent to Quit (ITQ), Stress in General (SiG) scale, and Survey of Work Values, Revised, Form U. (SWV) are owned by Bowling Green State University, copyright 1975-2010.

Permission is hereby granted to **Terra Williams** to use these measures in his or her research.

The aforementioned scales may be administered as many times as needed in this course of this research.

Chris Chang
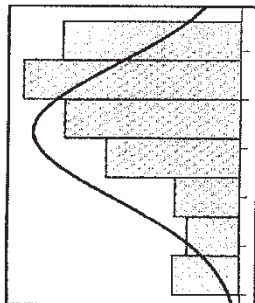
Chris Chang
JDI Research Assistant

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Appendix D: Job Descriptive Index/Job in General (JDI/JIG)

THE
JOB DESCRIPTIVE
INDEX

2009 Revision

including

The Job in General Scale

BGSU®

Bowling Green State University

People on Your Present Job

Think of the majority of people with whom you work or meet in connection with your work. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe these people? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write

Y for "Yes" if it describes the people with whom you work
N for "No" if it does not describe them
? for "?" if you cannot decide

- -

___ Stimulating
___ Boring
___ Slow
___ Helpful
___ Stupid
___ Responsible
___ Likeable
___ Intelligent
___ Easy to make enemies
___ Rude
___ Smart
___ Lazy
___ Unpleasant
___ Supportive
___ Active
___ Narrow interests
___ Frustrating
___ Stubborn

The Job Descriptive Index
© Bowling Green State University
1975-2009

Job in General

Think of your job in general. All in all, what is it like most of the time? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write

Y for "Yes" if it describes your job
N for "No" if it does not describe it
? for "?" if you cannot decide

- -

___ Pleasant
___ Bad
___ Great
___ Waste of time
___ Good
___ Undesirable
___ Worthwhile
___ Worse than most
___ Acceptable
___ Superior
___ Better than most
___ Disagreeable
___ Makes me content
___ Inadequate
___ Excellent
___ Rotten
___ Enjoyable
___ Poor

The Job In General Scale
© Bowling Green State University
1982-2009

Work on Present Job

Think of the work you do at present. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe your work? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write

Y for "Yes" if it describes your work
N for "No" if it does not describe it
? for "?" if you cannot decide

. . . .

___ Fascinating
___ Routine
___ Satisfying
___ Boring
___ Good
___ Gives sense of accomplishment
___ Respected
___ Exciting
___ Rewarding
___ Useful
___ Challenging
___ Simple
___ Repetitive
___ Creative
___ Dull
___ Uninteresting
___ Can see results
___ Uses my abilities

Pay

Think of the pay you get now. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe your present pay? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write

Y for "Yes" if it describes your pay
N for "No" if it does not describe it
? for "?" if you cannot decide

. . . .

___ Income adequate for normal expenses
___ Fair
___ Barely live on income
___ Bad
___ Comfortable
___ Less than I deserve
___ Well paid
___ Enough to live on
___ Underpaid

Opportunities for Promotion

Think of the opportunities for promotion that you have now. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe these? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write

Y for "Yes" if it describes your opportunities for promotion
N for "No" if it does not describe them
? for "?" if you cannot decide

. . . .

___ Good opportunities for promotion
___ Opportunities somewhat limited
___ Promotion on ability
___ Dead-end job
___ Good chance for promotion
___ Very limited
___ Infrequent promotions
___ Regular promotions
___ Fairly good chance for promotion

Supervision

Think of the kind of supervision that you get on your job. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe this? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write

Y for "Yes" if it describes the supervision you get on the job
N for "No" if it does not describe it
? for "?" if you cannot decide

. . . .

___ Supportive
___ Hard to please
___ Impolite
___ Praises good work
___ Tactful
___ Influential
___ Up-to-date
___ Unkind
___ Has favorites
___ Tells me where I stand
___ Annoying
___ Stubborn
___ Knows job well
___ Bad
___ Intelligent
___ Poor planner
___ Around when needed
___ Lazy

Curriculum Vitae

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Civilian Education

Doctor of Philosophy–Applied Management and Decision Science Walden University, Minneapolis, Minnesota	Expected 2012
Master of Business Administration/Healthcare Management AIU Online, Hoffman Estates, Illinois	2004–2005
Master of Information Technology AIU Online, Hoffman Estates, Illinois	2003
Bachelor of Science – Information System Management UMUC, College Park, Maryland	2002

Military Education and Certificates of Completion

Medical Management of Chemical & Biological Casualties Fort Meade, Maryland	2011
Contracting Officer Representative Course Seoul, Korea	2011
DoD Government Purchase Card Course Seoul, Korea	2010
First Sergeant Course Fort Jackson, South Carolina	2010
Field Management of Chemical & Biological Casualties Fort Meade, Maryland	2009
Battle Staff NCO Tripler, Hawaii	2007
Senior Leadership Course Fort Sam Houston, TX	2004
Supervisor Development Program Fort Leonard Wood, Missouri	2001

Advanced Leadership Course	1997
Fort Sam Houston, Texas	
Equal Opportunity Leadership Course	1996
Fort Sam Houston, Texas	
Warrior Leadership Course	1994
Fort Carson, Colorado	
Pharmacy Sterile Products Course	1991
Fort Sam Houston, Texas	
Pharmacy Specialist Course	1991
Fort Sam Houston, Texas	
General Medical Orientation	1991
Fort Sam Houston, Texas	
Basic Training	1990
Fort Dix, New Jersey	

Education and Professional Training and Certificates of Completions:

Wide Area Work Flow (WAWF) Training	2012
Master Resiliency Training (MRT)	2011
Pharmacy Technician National Certification	2011
American Heart Association- Basic Life Saver	2011
Institutional Review Board #11-28-0112811	2011
National Institutes of Health (NIH) Office of Extramural Research	
"Protecting Human Research Participants" #696922	2011
Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative (CITI)	
"Human Subject Training	2006

Professional Experience

United States Army, Yongsan, Korea	2010–Present
NCOIC, Department of Pharmacy	
United States Army, Fort Jackson, South Carolina	2008–2010
NCOIC, Department of Pharmacy	

United States Army, Tripler, Hawaii	2005–2008

NCOIC, Inpatient Pharmacy
S3, Assistant NCOIC; Land & Resources NCOIC
Current Operations NCO–Pacific Regional Medical Command, Hawaii

United States Army, Fort Leonard Wood, Missouri	2000–2005

NCOIC, Inpatient Pharmacy & Support Services
NCOIC, Pharmacy Division
NCOIC, Outpatient Pharmacy

United States Army, Fort Sam Houston, Texas	1996–2000

Assistant NCOIC, Refill Pharmacy
NCOIC, Refill Pharmacy
NCOIC, Main Outpatient Pharmacy
Assistant NCOIC, Main Outpatient Pharmacy
Pharmacy Support NCO

United States Army, Heidelberg, Germany	1994-1996

Pharmacy Specialist
Pharmacy NCO

United States Army, Fort Carson, Colorado	1991–1996

Pharmacy Technician

Military Organizations

Member, Order of Military Medical Merit
Member, Sergeant Audie Murphy Club
Member, Noncommissioned Officer Association
Member, Association of the United States Army
Member, Sergeant's Association