1-1-2011

Leadership Styles and Faculty Satisfaction in the State University System of Florida

Justin Ted Bateh
Walden University

Walden University

College of Management and Technology

This is to certify that the doctoral study by

Justin Bateh

has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,
and that any and all revisions required by
the review committee have been made.

Review Committee
Dr. Wilton Heyliger, Committee Chairperson, Doctor of Business Administration Faculty

Dr. Kathleen Barclay, Committee Member, Doctor of Business Administration Faculty

Dr. Annie Brown, University Reviewer, Doctor of Business Administration Faculty

Chief Academic Officer
Eric Riedel, Ph.D.

Walden University
2013

Abstract

Leadership Styles and Faculty Satisfaction in the State University System of Florida

by

Justin Ted Bateh

MBA, Nova Southeastern University, 2008

BBA, University of North Florida, 2006

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Business Administration

Walden University

2013

Abstract

Universities must retain satisfied employees to enhance productivity and reduce turnover.

Leadership represents one of the fundamental factors in job satisfaction. The purpose of

this correlational study was to examine the relationship between perceived academic

administrator leadership styles and the satisfaction of faculty members. The independent

variables were the transformational, transactional, and passive/avoidant leadership styles

of academic administrators as evaluated by faculty members. The dependent variable

was job satisfaction of full-time faculty members. The Multifactor Leadership

Questionnaire was used to identify the leadership style of an administrator as perceived

by faculty members. Spector's Job Satisfaction Survey was used to assess a faculty

member's level of job satisfaction. One hundred four participants from a state university

in Florida completed the online survey. A logistic regression model was developed, and

the statistically significant correlations indicated that (a) faculty members who identified

transformational leadership as dominant had increased job satisfaction, (b) faculty

members who identified transactional leadership as dominant had increased job

satisfaction, and (c) faculty members who identified passive/avoidant leadership as

dominant had decreased job satisfaction. Based on a 95% significance level, there was a

significant relationship between the 3 leadership styles and job satisfaction. Using this

model, academic leaders can take further action by refining their leadership styles on the

basis of their faculty members' indicated preferences. The study results may contribute

to social change by making academic administrators aware of effective leadership models

that promote higher job satisfaction among faculty in universities.

Leadership Styles and Faculty Satisfaction in the State University System of Florida

by

Justin Ted Bateh

MBA, Nova Southeastern University, 2008

BBA, University of North Florida, 2006

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Business Administration

Walden University

2013

UMI Number: 3566772

UMI

Dissertation Publishing

ProQuest

Dedication

      I would like to dedicate this study to my wife, Lora; my parents, Ted and Jackie; and my brothers, Eric and Tyler. Thank you for your continued support throughout my academic pursuits. Thank you to my wife, Lora, for her never-ending support while I completed this study, for understanding the sacrifice we had to make as a family, and for her patience during times when we could not see the light at the end of the tunnel. Thanks to all for believing in me.

Acknowledgments

My father always told me that it takes a village to raise a child. I believe it takes an entire community of support for an individual to earn a degree at highest level of scholarship. To my wife, Lora Bateh; parents, Ted and Jackie Bateh; and brothers, Eric and Tyler Bateh, thank you for the support and understanding close to home. To my friends, thank you for understanding why I couldn't have a social life the past few years. To Dr. Terry Sawma, thank you for your flexibility, for your support, and for continuing to remind me that I am working towards access into an exclusive club, and that this degree is my passport. To Mark Bateh and Joe McGurrin, and my second family at Informed, thank you for the flexibility, support, and patience over the years, and for facilitating many of hands-on business experiences and learning opportunities that have allowed for me to grow to this point. To all of the business faculty, staff, and administrators at Florida State College at Jacksonville, thank you for your support, especially to my faculty colleagues for allowing me to vent from time to time and providing encouragement. To a mentor, Jim Farah, thanks for setting an example that one should always continue one's education. To my doctoral study chair and adviser, Dr. Wilton Heyliger, for his mentoring and for teaching me what it means to be a scholar. I would also like to acknowledge the rest of my committee members: Dr. Kathleen Barclay and Dr. Annie Brown. Thank you for your efforts. To all faculty, scholars, academics, businesspersons, friends, family, mentors, deans, and anyone else who has given me an opportunity, provided support, or offered guidance—I sincerely thank you.

Table of Contents

iii

List of Tables

List of Figures

Section 1: Foundation of the Study

An organization's success depends on hiring and retaining satisfied employees (Cordeiro, 2010). Faculty members play a vital role in the success of higher education institutions (Cordeiro, 2010). Through increased job satisfaction, greater employee retention helps colleges and universities achieve adequate faculty allocations (Froeschle & Sinkford, 2009). Faculty job satisfaction and its relationship to retention in higher education are business-related issues, as a 5% increase in retention can lead to a 10% reduction in costs (Wong & Heng, 2009). A similar increase in retention can further result in substantial productivity increases, to as much as 65% (Wong & Heng, 2009).

Increased job satisfaction and better retention of faculty reduce the need for costly faculty selection and hiring, and higher retention adds financial stability to the institution (Froesche & Sinkford, 2009). Faculty members who remain with the institution for a long time develop experience and expertise that reduce the need for costly training of newly hired faculty members (Froesche & Sinkford, 2009). Finally, business people and entrepreneurs understand that truly sustainable advantage usually grows from innovations and creativity (Mutjaba, 2009).

The competition in the higher education sector is constantly changing, and higher education institutions cannot survive without retaining extraordinary faculty members who are innovative and creative (Mutjaba, 2009). Based on Mutjaba's argument, it appears that higher education institutions that have effective leadership procedures have a better likelihood of retaining high-quality faculty members, which may enable them to outperform their competitors and improve their financial standing. Therefore, my

hypothesis for the present study relates to the argument that the relationship between academic administrator leadership styles and the job satisfaction of faculty members has a significant bearing on the academic and financial standing of higher education institutions. One such institution, specifically a Florida state university, is the focus of this study.

Background of the Problem

Universities in the United States experience high levels of faculty turnover (Klein & Takeda-Tinker, 2009). Most universities use faculty search committees that screen initial applications and, simultaneously, represent a massive investment of financial resources and faculty time (Cordeiro, 2010). The ability to hire and retain effective faculty remains a serious problem for higher education institutions (Wong & Heng, 2009). Job satisfaction plays a vital role in retaining faculty (Wong & Heng, 2009).

University leaders represent one of the fundamental factors in job satisfaction (Wong & Heng, 2009), and consequentially, they affect faculty turnover in higher education institutions. Faculty members often complain about the quality of institutional environments in which they operate, and their intentions to leave relate to the quality of social relationships among them, other faculty members, and administrators (Wong & Heng, 2009). Most faculty members see their leaders and administrators as highly incompetent and lacking critical communication skills, and dissatisfaction with leadership predisposes faculty members toward leaving their positions (Klein & Takeda-Tinker, 2009).

Faculty member dissatisfaction with leadership in higher education contrasts with the intellectual satisfaction gained by faculty members. Faculty members report enjoying a sense of professional belonging when they develop satisfying collegial relationships with peers (Klein & Takeda-Tinker, 2009). While faculty members need the support of their leaders to pursue projects requiring autonomy and innovativeness, colleges and universities face the lack of trained and qualified leaders who know how to assist faculty members by providing the needed level of support (Mutjaba, 2009).

Colleges and universities experience lack of trained leaders for a number of reasons. As members of the baby boomer population retire, which creates a smaller workforce population, colleges draw new faculty management members from a smaller pool of qualified applicants (Campbell, Syed, & Morris, 2010; Finch, Allen, & Weeks, 2010). Apart from the fact that hiring and retaining talented college faculty leaders may be extremely costly and time consuming (Green, Alejandro, & Brown, 2009), generational differences play one of the major roles in faculty members' continued dissatisfaction with leaders (Salahuddin, 2010). The difficulties seen in the State University System of Florida brings these generational difficulties to the surface. As the State University System of Florida is in the process of launching the New Florida Initiative, enrollments will likely increase across all universities within the system (State University System of Florida, 2012). This increased enrollment may result in rapid transformation of leadership positions because of the need for a larger teaching faculty (Lawrence & Bell, 2012). This may push administrators to assume new leadership

responsibilities, and many leaders may not understand the importance of encouraging an open and productive conversation with faculty members (Lawrence & Bell, 2012)

Administrators selected for the new leadership positions may have little understanding of how their leadership decisions affect faculty members' satisfaction with their job (Klein & Takeda-Tinker, 2009). As faculty leaders retire, filling vacant faculty positions will also require much evaluation and thought. Research into a state university within the State University System of Florida, through the present study, may expose differences that exist between the motivations and desires of the academic leaders and faculty workers.

Problem Statement

Seventy-seven percent of employees in the United States have reported dissatisfaction with their jobs (Mardanov, Heischmidt, & Henson, 2008), and as DeConinck (2009) reported, job dissatisfaction eventually leads to voluntary turnover. The estimated salary premium required to replace one dissatisfied faculty member totals $57,000 (Finch et al., 2010). The general problem is that since the State University System of Florida launched the New Florida Initiative, increased enrollments created the need for faculty members to assume administrative positions with leadership responsibilities (Austin, 2012). Some new administrators lack knowledge of how their leadership style impacts faculty member job satisfaction (Lawrence & Bell, 2012). The specific business problem is the lack of a model for Florida university administrators to predict how leadership styles will impact job satisfaction of faculty members, and thus turnover rates.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between perceived academic administrator leadership styles and job satisfaction of full-time faculty members. The design of the study was correlational and nonexperimental. The independent variables were the transformational, transactional, and passive/avoidant leadership styles of academic administrators as evaluated by faculty members. The dependent variable was job satisfaction of full-time faculty members. The population consisted of 567 full-time faculty members within the university, including professors, associate professors, assistant professors, instructors, and lecturers (Bozeman & Guaghan, 2011). The minimum number of participants required for significant study results was 81, and 104 participated. The location of the study was an institution within the State University System of Florida, which had experienced increased demand for new leaders since the launch of the New Florida Initiative. The study results may contribute to social change by creating awareness of effective leadership models that promote higher job satisfaction in Florida universities.

Nature of the Study

Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods are the three methods used in research. Quantitative research methods examine the relationship between variables (Schweitzer, 2009). Additionally, quantitative methods rely on collecting and analyzing numerical data (Schweitzer, 2009). Qualitative research would not be appropriate to answer the research question because qualitative research enables a researcher to detect themes and to develop hypotheses, rather than to test hypotheses (Baxtor & Jack, 2008).

Likewise, a mixed methods study that would incorporate a qualitative component along with the quantitative was not necessary, as the research questions and hypotheses would be best answered with quantitative data, which allows for generalization by making possible a much larger sample (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2011). The data for this study were numeric indicators of the variables of interest, and hence the study was quantitative. The method of data analysis was logistic regression—a form of regression appropriate for dependent variables measured on a binary scale—to test the primary hypotheses (Siemsen & Roth, 2010).

I used a correlational design in this study because the quantitative data I collected from a large sample were more suited to this type of analysis (Schweitzer, 2009). The benefits of using a quantitative correlational approach are that the findings may generalize to the larger population of faculty members beyond the sample (Schweitzer, 2009). By using logistic regression as the primary analysis tool, this study design controlled for possible confounding variables (Siemsen & Roth, 2010).

Research Question

I evaluated the relationship between academic administrator leadership styles and faculty job satisfaction within an institution in the State University System of Florida. Using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass & Avolio, 2012) and the Job Satisfaction Survey (Spector, 2011), I sought to answer the following primary research question and secondary questions:

Primary Research Question 1: What is the relationship between perceived administrator leadership styles and job satisfaction of faculty members?

Secondary Research Question 2: What is the relationship between perceived transformational leadership styles and job satisfaction of faculty members?

Secondary Research Question 3: What is the relationship between perceived transactional leadership styles and job satisfaction of faculty members?

Secondary Research Question 4: What is the relationship between perceived passive/avoidant leadership styles and job satisfaction of faculty members?

Hypotheses

I sought to answer the research questions by testing the following hypotheses:

$H1_o$: There is no significant relationship between leadership styles and job satisfaction of faculty members.

$H1_a$: There is a significant relationship between leadership styles and job satisfaction of faculty members.

$H2_o$: There is no significant relationship between perceived transformational leadership styles and job satisfaction of faculty members.

$H2_a$: There is a significant relationship between perceived transformational leadership styles and job satisfaction of faculty members.

$H3_o$: There is no significant relationship between perceived transactional leadership styles and job satisfaction of faculty members.

$H3_a$: There is a significant relationship between perceived transaction leadership styles and job satisfaction of faculty members.

$H4_o$: There is no significant relationship between perceived passive/avoidant leadership styles and job satisfaction of faculty members.

H4ₐ: There is a significant relationship between perceived passive/avoidant leadership styles and job satisfaction of faculty members.

Interview/Survey Questions

The survey questions originated from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5X; Bass & Avolio, 2012), which is a quantitative survey and not a qualitative questionnaire, and Spector's Job Satisfaction Survey (2011). See Appendix A for the complete MLQ 5X survey and Appendix B for the complete Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS). See Appendix C for the complete demographic survey.

Theoretical Framework

Relationships of leaders with their followers are extremely complicated. The path-goal theory of leadership remains one of the most popular theoretical frameworks explaining the process of leadership and leaders' interactions with followers. Robert J. House developed the theory, and its principal metaproposition is that effective leaders engage in behaviors that complement subordinates' environments and abilities (as cited in Northouse, 2010). By doing so, they compensate for the deficiencies of subordinates and heighten employee satisfaction as well as individual and work unit performance (Northouse, 2010).

The following are the main assumptions of path-goal theory: (a) path-goal theory is a theory regarding the supervisor-subordinate relationship (Northouse, 2010); (b) leader behaviors are acceptable and satisfying for subordinates as long as they produce immediate satisfaction and create the foundation for future satisfaction in them (Northouse, 2010); (c) leaders motivate their followers to the extent that they produce

satisfaction among followers and complement the organizational environment by offering

support, guidance, and rewards, when needed (Northouse, 2010); (d) situational

characteristics such as the nature and complexity of task, the quality of the workplace

environment, and the characteristics of followers predetermine the amount of time and

effort leaders spend to improve subordinate performance and satisfaction (Yukl &

Mahsud, 2010); and (e) leaders are effective only when they direct attention toward the

needs and preferences of their subordinates, display concern for their subordinates'

wellbeing, and can create and sustain a psychologically supportive and friendly work

environment (Wang & Howell, 2012).

Vecchio, Justin, and Pearce (2008) used path-goal theory to explore the potential

of transformational and transactional leadership models to predict performance

satisfaction among followers. Fry and Kriger (2009) also mentioned path-goal theory as

an example of a contingency approach to leadership, which focuses on finding the

appropriate fit between a leader's behavior or style and the organizational conditions.

Contingency approaches focus on how leadership, subordinate characteristics, and

situational elements influence one another (Northouse, 2010). Despite the paucity of the

empirical literature, path-goal theory exemplifies a promising theoretical framework for

the study of leaders' behaviors and their effects on job satisfaction among followers.

Definition of Terms

The following list defines key terms used in the present study:

Passive/avoidant leadership style: For the purpose of the present study, this

category includes two leadership styles: management by exception and laissez-faire

leadership. In active leadership by exception, the leader monitors performance and acts only if it fails to meet the expected standards (Bass & Riggio, 2006). In passive management by exception, the leader waits for a problem to arise before taking action (Bass & Riggio, 2006). In the laissez-faire leadership style, the leader is less directly involved; he or she focuses only on the top-level issues while delegating the routine operations of the institution to subordinates (Simplicio, 2011).

Path-goal theory of leadership: Leader behaviors are acceptable and satisfying for subordinates as long as they produce immediate satisfaction and create the foundation for future satisfaction (Northouse, 2010). Leaders motivate their followers by offering support, guidance, and rewards, when needed (Northouse, 2010). Situational characteristics and the characteristics of followers predetermine the amount of time and effort leaders spend to improve subordinate performance and satisfaction (Yukl & Mahsud, 2010).

Transactional leadership: This style of leadership emphasizes smooth running of the organization by making sure that (a) there is maintenance of the system and (b) there are clear goals. The leader puts emphasis on administrative issues and assesses the needs of subordinates to satisfy those needs in exchange for work. In essence, this model could qualify as "leadership by bartering" (Zembylas & Iasonos, 2010, p. 168).

Transformational leadership style: In this style, the leader actively works to shape the organizational culture by constructing a shared vision (Zembylas & Iasonos, 2010). The leader is charismatic and motivates employees through acting as a role model as well as providing inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized

consideration (Zembylas & Iasonos, 2010, p. 372). Leaders value respect, autonomy, and the pursuit of higher goals (Bodla & Nawaz, 2010).

Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations

Assumptions

I assumed that participants would complete the survey in its entirety and with complete honesty. I assumed that the Florida state university studied represents and is typical of other universities in the State University System of Florida, especially in the area of the faculty members' and faculty leadership relations.

Limitations

I sought to determine the relationship between perceived academic administrator leadership styles and full-time faculty job satisfaction within the State University System of Florida. Logistic regression allowed me to determine whether perceived leadership styles affected the probability of faculty members expressing satisfaction with their job. The coefficients from the logit models showed the size of the effect each independent variable has on the odds of job satisfaction, controlling for other potentially confounding variables such as demographics (Senter, 2012). I presented p-values alongside the coefficients to determine if the results of the effect size analysis were statistically significant. I used a significance level of .05. I used a two-tailed test for statistical significance. The study results may provide information regarding the relationship between leadership and job satisfaction. However, the possibility remained that the results of the study might not have correlated with job satisfaction.

Delimitations

The study sample included a single state university in the State University System of Florida out of 11 state universities. The study focused on academic administrators and full-time faculty at a specific public university, so the results of the study may not apply to 2-year community colleges or other 4-year state colleges. Furthermore, as the study sample included only a government-operated university, the results may not apply to for-profit, private colleges or universities, nor may the results apply to private sector corporations.

Significance of the Study

A study's potential to close the existing research and practice gaps usually depends upon the degree of a study's significance for practical application. In this section, I discuss the significance of the present study for better understanding and practice of business and positive social change.

Reduction of Gaps

University administrators in the United States currently face high faculty turnover rates (Klein & Takeda-Tinker, 2009). Reasons why faculty members leave their jobs are numerous. Lack of institutional support and failure to keep up with one's discipline reduce organizational commitment and increase turnover intentions among faculty (Taylor & Berry, 2008). Administrators play a crucial role in the development of positive organizational cultures (Taylor & Berry, 2008). Contextual properties of educational institutions permit or impede the sense of belonging in faculty members (Xu, 2008a). Nonetheless, the relationship between job satisfaction and leadership styles of faculty

administrators remains unclear. Administrators may use the results of this study to close the existing gap in the understanding of the effect of leadership style and improve faculty retention. The study meets the aim to measure the factors affecting job satisfaction of faculty members. The results are useful to enable faculty leaders to adjust their policies in ways that promote faculty member satisfaction with their jobs.

The academic administrators selected for leadership positions may not understand if their leadership style negatively affects faculty job satisfaction; in fact, the academic administrators may not even be aware of their leadership style. This lack of understanding may be a serious business problem (Klein & Takeda-Tinker, 2009). However, researchers and policy makers assume that college administrators should develop collaborative ties. Administrators should also support and implement mentoring objectives for all faculty members (Fuller, Maniscalco-Feichtl, & Droege, 2008). The results of the study provide administrators with information that may guide their leadership decisions impacting their faculty, may lead them to improve and adjust their leadership styles, and consequentially, may result in faculty members' increased satisfaction with their jobs. This, in turn, will help higher education institutions reduce their costs by minimizing voluntary turnover and the costs of selection and training associated with turnover.

Implications for Social Change

Higher education is one of the central drivers of positive social change, and the quality of social progress directly depends upon the quality of higher education in the United States (Billiger & Wasilik, 2009). Faculty satisfaction is a complex construct that

is difficult to predict, describe, and explain (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009). Faculty members must perceive that their teaching is effective for their students and professionally beneficial for themselves (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009). Increased job satisfaction should result in greater productivity (Froeschle & Sinkford, 2009). This, in turn, should expand the pool of educational resources provided by higher education institutions for positive social change.

Social change is impossible without talented leaders and inspired followers. The faculty is instrumental in the success of higher education (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009). Great attention should be paid to faculty perceptions of both institutional and departmental leadership (Chung et al., 2010). At present, faculty dissatisfaction with leadership largely negates the intellectual satisfaction that could be gained from being part of higher education staff (Marston & Brunetti, 2009). The present study results can contribute to the development of effective leadership models in education and raises public awareness of the importance of effective leadership in public, state universities. This knowledge will enable higher education professionals to enhance their leadership decisions and, consequentially, drive positive social change.

A Review of the Professional and Academic Literature

Leadership and job satisfaction are two of the most extensively studied areas in the quest to enhance human and organizational performance (Northouse, 2010). A substantial body of evidence supports the positive impact of transformational leadership on job satisfaction across occupational sectors (Northouse, 2010). Amidst sweeping waves of reforms in primary and secondary education, in the United States and

internationally, transformational leadership emerged as the foremost leadership style,

often explored in the context of teachers' job satisfaction and organizational culture and

climate (Leithwood & Sun, 2012).

The literature review in this study came from the following EBSCO databases:

Academic Search Premier, MasterFILE Premier, Business Source Premier, ERIC,

PsycINFO, and PsycARTICLES. Keywords used either individually or in conjunction

with other keywords included *colleges*, *universities*, *higher education*, *faculty*,

leadership, *transformational leadership*, *transactional leadership*, *job satisfaction*, *work*

satisfaction, *organizations*, *organizational commitment*, *turnover*, *autonomy*, *teaching*,

research, *support*, *mentoring*, *governance*, *departments*, *academic*, and *disciplines*. The

journals in which the articles appear span a wide range of scholarly and business

disciplines. In the literature, I extensively reviewed the relationship between faculty job

satisfaction and discovered that the leadership practices of administrators have gained

less attention than business practice as a focus of research. Leadership style is typically

one of a number of factors examined as a prospective source of faculty satisfaction or

dissatisfaction (Klein & Takeda-Tinker, 2009). Specifically, faculty members'

relationships with the department chair may play a prominent role in satisfaction (Klein

& Takeda-Tinker, 2009).

The association between the job satisfaction and retention of college faculty

members is more complicated than many have assumed. College faculty leaders must

convey respect and recognition for professional expertise and autonomy, foster collegial

relationships, and compensate faculty members fairly for the time and energy they invest

in their work (Xu, 2008a). The implementation of effective practices is likely to bolster

satisfaction and reduce turnover (Wong & Heng, 2009).

Because this study investigated the relationship between academic administrator

leadership style and the job satisfaction of faculty at a Florida state university, the

literature review included recognition of past studies' results on what factors lead to job

satisfaction. Faculty members desire clear and reasonable expectations for performance

and tenure, support for teaching, professional development opportunities, autonomy,

opportunities for advancement, fair salary and benefits, positive work-life balance, and a

sense of collegiality (Akroyd, 2011; Austin, 2012; Xu, 2008a). Faculty members favor

shared governance and involvement in decision making (Lawrence & Bell, 2012). The

conditions that elicit faculty members' job satisfaction and commitment and also those

that provoke dissatisfaction, and turnover intentions are under the control of institutional

leaders and amenable to change (Lawrence & Bell, 2012). Job satisfaction is crucial for

the university because dealing with faculty turnover is expensive (Cordeiro, 2010; Finch

et al., 2010). There are the financial costs of recruitment, hiring, and training new faculty

members, along with the time and energy invested in the search, hiring, and socialization

processes (Cordeiro, 2010).

Contemporary Leadership Theories

Transformational and transactional leadership. Comparison and contrast of

transformational and transactional leadership offer a valuable perspective on leadership

theory. Historically, theories of leadership focused exclusively on the characteristics of

the leader (Bennis, 2010; Derue, Nahrang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011; Yukl &

Mahsud, 2010). According to Li and Hung (2009), transformational leadership shifted

the emphasis from the leader to the quality of the relationship between leaders and their

followers. Li and Hung noted that transformational leaders show similar values and

inspirational motivation. High-quality workplace relationships are fundamental to

positive work outcomes (Li & Hung, 2009). Transformational leadership seems to foster

"the building and maintenance of social networks in the workplace, and . . . both vertical

and lateral forms of social ties help facilitate employees' higher levels of task

performance and active participation in citizenship behaviors" (Li & Hung, 2009, p.

1141). Invoking Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Bass and Riggio (2006) pointed out that

transactional leaders secure and maintain power by focusing on their followers' lower

order needs while transformational leaders encourage their followers toward self-

realization. In contrast, transactional leadership puts emphasis on administrative issues

and assesses the needs of subordinates to satisfy those needs in exchange for work

(Zembylas & Iasonos, 2010).

Comparison and contrast of transformational and transactional leadership often

lead to preference for one over the other, but not always. Bass and Riggio (2006)

recognized that the most effective leaders use both transformational and transactional

leadership. In fact, Yukl and Mahsud (2010) decried the dualistic approaches to

leadership that emerged during the 20th century, such as the juxtaposition of task-oriented

and relationship-oriented leadership and transformational and transactional leadership.

Yukl and Mahsud considered the ability to be versatile and adapt one's leadership style to

the demands of the situation to be a hallmark of an effective leader. Bass and Riggio's

model of transformational leadership has undergone many changes since its inception in the 1980s. This model meets the criteria of a full-range model, spanning transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

The four-I model provides the basis for transformational leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Bass and Riggio (2006) noted that this model includes four main aspects: idealized influence (or charisma), inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation. Bass and Riggio stated that *idealized influence* refers to behaviors that elicit respect, admiration, and trust from followers. This aspect of transformational leadership includes leadership by example, which the principal *modeling the way* embodies as described in the *Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership* (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). Supporting these findings, Deluga (2011) collected survey data from 86 subordinate-supervisor groups employed in a variety of organizations. He found that perceived fairness emerged as the supervisor trust-building behavior most closely associated with desired organizational citizenship behaviors in subordinates. *Inspirational motivation* refers to the ability to communicate a compelling vision that spurs action toward individual and collective goals (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Bass and Riggio stated that leaders who practice *intellectual stimulation* seek ideas, opinions, and input from their followers to promote creativity, innovation, and experimentation. Bass and Riggio also asserted that *individualized consideration* involves actively listening and being sensitive to each person's needs for growth, learning, and recognition.

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) captures the full range of leader behaviors, which include those that distinguish between transformational leadership,

transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Bass and Riggio's (2006) factor analysis of the MLQ showed significant correlations between individualized consideration and transactional contingent reward leadership. Transactional leadership can serve as a foundation for building transformational leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Bass and Riggio also stated that contingent reward leadership molds expectations for performance and fairness and works to build trust between the leader and followers. Contingent reward is implicit in the role of fair and competitive salary and compensation in the satisfaction of college faculty (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Researchers such as Rowold and Scholtz (2009) and Lenhardt, Ricketts, Morgan, and Karnock (2011) have studied the MLQ alone or in conjunction with the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI). Rowold and Schlotz, using the MLQ, found transformational leadership to relate to job satisfaction. Similarly, Lenhardt et al. found statistically significant results of transformational leadership relating to job satisfaction using the LPI and MLQ. Lenhardt et al. concluded that increasing transformational leadership behaviors would likely result in positive employee outcomes, which would produce "benefits including a more enduring and meaningful working relationship between a superintendent and his or her employees, potential cost savings, and financial benefits from an increase in employee performance, and employee retention" (p. 29).

Passive leadership. Two types of leadership contrast with descriptions of both transactional and transformational leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Bass and Riggio (2006) stated that in active leadership by exception, the leader monitors performance. In

other words, the leader acts only if the performance fails to meet the expected standards.

Bass and Riggio also stated that in passive management by exception, the leader waits for

a problem to arise before taking action. Laissez-faire leadership essentially means the

absence of leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Researchers reviewed by Bass and Riggio

found less effective results with management by exception and laissez-faire leadership.

The less effective modes of leadership are far less common than transformational and

transactional contingent reward leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Individualized consideration distinguishes authentic transformational leaders from

pseudotransformational leaders (Bass & Riggio, 2006). In a study of teachers from high-

performing schools, Leithwood and Sun (2012) observed a relationship between the

principals' use of individualized consideration and the importance the teachers ascribed

to a collegial, professional climate. A similar relationship appears throughout the

literature on college faculty job satisfaction (Klein & Takeda-Tinker, 2009). Some

theorists approach individualized consideration from the perspectives of developmental

leadership and supportive leadership (Wang & Howell, 2012). Wang and Howell (2012)

examined the effects of supportive and developmental leadership on employees. Wang

and Howell defined supportive leadership as taking place when leaders express concern

for followers' needs and preferences and take account of these needs and preferences

when making decisions.

Supportive leadership can effectively buffer against job stress (Wang & Howell,

2012). This aspect of supportive leadership (or individualized consideration) may be

especially valuable for faculty members under conditions of organizational change

(Coates, Dobson, Goedegebuure, & Meek, 2010). The behaviors associated with supportive leadership overlap heavily with mentoring, which faculty early in their careers strongly desire (Austin, 2012).

Both supportive and developmental leadership convey the message that the leader cares for the well-being of followers, and both leadership types have positive effects (Wang & Howell, 2012). However, Wang and Howell (2012) observed a strong effect for developmental leadership on affective commitment, career certainty, job satisfaction, and the confidence to perform tasks outside the usual scope of one's job. Of the two types of leadership, developmental leadership may align more closely with transformational leadership (Wang & Howell, 2012). Both developmental and supportive leadership, particularly on the part of the department chair, may have a significant impact on faculty members (Wang & Howell, 2012).

The Leadership Practices Inventory

Unlike the MLQ, which spans the full range of leadership behaviors (Muenjohn & Armstrong, 2008), the Leadership Practices Inventory focuses on transformational leadership (Gill, 2011; Kouzes & Posner, 2007). The 30-item LPI assesses the Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). The qualities embedded in the five practices stem from over 25 years of research by Kouzes and Posner (2007). Kouzes and Posner studied qualities exhibited by managers in a wide variety of industry and organizational settings in the United States and abroad. These five practices, as noted by Kouzes and Posner, are (a) modeling the way, (b) inspiring a shared vision, (c) enabling others to act, (d) challenging the process, and (e) encouraging the heart.

Modeling the way embodies the concept of leadership by example, meaning that the actions of exemplary leaders are congruent with their words (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). Leaders enable others to act; thus, they promote teamwork, collaboration, and empowerment (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). Challenging the process can be construed as leadership for change (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). Leaders who encourage new ideas and novel solutions to problems are those who challenge, seek new opportunities, support creativity, and support innovation (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). Encouraging the heart means that leaders foster involvement by recognizing and rewarding personal contributions and celebrating achievements (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). Recognition for their contribution to the institution is of paramount concern to faculty members (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). Enabling is the most prevalent of the five practices, while inspiring is the most difficult (Kouzes & Posner, 2007).

Use of the LPI offers the advantage of comparison with and validation by a substantial amount of past research. Stout-Stewart (2005) used the LPI in a study of female community college presidents. In addition, Castro (as cited in Derue et al., 2011) used the LPI in a study involving chief academic officers (CAOs), undergraduate deans, and academic department chairs. Using the LPI, Klein and Takeda-Tinker (2009) studied faculty member satisfaction with business faculty leadership. However, there has been some criticism of these studies by Jing and Avery (2011). The prior use of this measure for faculty leadership minimizes problems related to Jing and Avery's criticism. Jing and Avery observed that the hypothesized leadership-performance relationship suggested by past researchers led to inconclusive findings and difficulty in interpreting the results.

Jing and Avery also noted that the many different concepts of leadership employed in different studies make direct comparisons virtually impossible.

Path-Goal Theory

Robert J. House and his colleagues developed the path-goal theory in an attempt to resolve inconsistent and paradoxical findings arising from Fiedler's contingency theory (Northouse, 2010). The contingency theory (a) classified leaders as either task motivated or relationship motivated and (b) indicated that leadership motivation is a relatively fixed and stable characteristic (Northouse, 2010; Vecchio et al., 2008). According to path-goal theory, the leader's role is to create and manage followers' paths toward individual and collective goals, clarify expectations, and enrich the environment when the existing rewards are inadequate (Vecchio et al., 2008). The effects of leadership traits, such as consideration, initiating structure, achievement-oriented leadership, and participative leadership likely depend on contingency factors related to follower characteristics and environmental features (Vecchio et al., 2008). Acceptance of the leadership, work satisfaction, and investment of effort in high performance result from a good match between the leader's actions and the situation (Fry & Kriger, 2009).

Although path-goal leadership first appeared in 1970, preceding transformational leadership, it has been the subject of far less research (Vecchio et al., 2008). House recently presented a model linking path-goal theory to certain aspects of transformational leadership (as cited in Vecchio et al., 2008). According to the model, leaders exercise transactional contingent reward leadership by gaining influence through the use of external incentives that are contingent on followers' performance (Vecchio et al., 2008).

In situations absent the use of extrinsic rewards, the model predicts enhanced impact of transformational leadership (Vecchio et al., 2008). House theorized that articulating a vision, conveying high performance expectations, and providing frequent positive feedback would be especially pertinent to the interaction of path-goal theory and transformational leadership (as cited in Vecchio et al., 2008).

The path-goal theory revealed key aspects of existing theories. Vecchio et al. (2008) tested House's theory in a study of 179 high school teachers and their principals. The findings showed that the leader's vision and intellectual stimulation had greater influence in situations with limited use of contingent reward (Vecchio et al., 2008). A notable finding was that transactional leadership had more influence on performance than anticipated (Vecchio et al., 2008). In fact, the influence of transactional leadership surpassed the influence of transformational leadership (Vecchio et al., 2008). Nonetheless, the findings suggested that transactional leadership might have more potential for explaining performance outcomes than other researchers had recognized (Vecchio et al., 2008).

Another study also revealed complex affects regarding transactional and transformational leadership (Pieterse, van Knippenberg, Schippers, & Stam, 2009). Pieterse et al. (2009) proposed that follower psychological empowerment moderates the relationship of leadership type and follower innovative behavior. Pieterse et al. conducted a field study with 230 employees of a government agency. The results showed that when psychological empowerment was high, transformational leadership positively

correlated with innovative behavior, whereas transactional leadership negatively

correlated with innovative behavior under the same condition (Pieterse et al., 2009).

College and University Presidents

College presidents vary tremendously in their leadership styles, but they all share

the common characteristic of being "the most powerful individual on their respective

campuses" (Simplicio, 2011, p. 110). Their mode of governance plays a pivotal role in

the life of the institution and its human capital (Simplicio, 2011, p. 110). Simplicio

(2011) outlined several styles of leadership in academia, ranging from democratic to

tyrannical. The democratic leader favors shared governance, involving others in

decision-making and encouraging feedback, creativity, and innovation (Simplicio, 2011,

p. 110). Shared governance imbues members of the institution with a sense of pride and

ownership, which in turn stimulates enthusiasm, energy, and motivation (Lawrence &

Bell, 2012). Driven by a shared vision, individuals within a shared governance system

show willingness to exert extra effort to work toward collective goals (Tinberg, 2009). A

democratic system promotes personal and professional growth, and throughout the

organization, members welcome new ideas and change (Lawrence & Bell, 2012).

While most leadership styles have strengths that positively affect a variety of

situations, there are other undesirable styles, such as the laissez-faire leadership style

(Simplicio, 2011). Laissez faire is almost invariably the least effective mode of

leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Simplicio (2011) did not see laissez faire as entirely

ineffective on a college campus. Rather, Simplicio described the laissez faire college

president as one who focuses only on the top-level issues while delegating the routine

operations of the institution to subordinates. Managers such as department chairs, deans, and directors show expertise in their respective fields and, therefore, may be excellent leaders and decision makers within their scope of influence (Simplicio, 2011). However, Simplicio states that the laissez faire college presidents fail to retain a current understanding of what is happening on campus and, perhaps most importantly, the people who comprise the organization. Leadership authors almost universally deride another style of leadership, the autocratic style (Simplicio, 2011). This leader micromanages and attempts to run all aspects of the institution (Simplicio, 2011). Autocratic leadership depresses creativity and innovation and thus is antithetical to intellectual stimulation (Bass & Riggio, 2006). An exaggeration of an autocratic leader is the tyrannical leader who often governs through fear (Simplicio, 2011). While leaders who insist they must be the ultimate authority on all matters are extremely ineffective, they have not disappeared entirely from the landscape of higher education (Simplicio, 2011). The autocratic leader rigidly relies on rules, policies, and protocols, and the institution is likely to be in a state of stagnation (Simplicio, 2011).

The charismatic leadership style elicits both praise and caution (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Charisma constitutes an essential component of transformational leadership, however, critics such as Bass and Riggio (2006) stated that charismatic leadership fosters dependency in followers. Authentic transformational leadership has the power to help followers realize their own sense of leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Transformational leadership propels followers toward growth and development, not dependency (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

The LPI results present practical and realistic leadership solutions. Utilizing the LPI, Stout-Stewart (2005) explored the attitudes and behaviors of 126 female, community college presidents. These presidents represented a broad range of institutions situated in rural, urban, and suburban communities (Stout-Stewart, 2005). Relatively few participants headed urban institutions; however, geographic locale had no impact on leadership style (Stout-Stewart, 2005). The participants were primarily White and the overwhelming majority held doctoral degrees (Stout-Stewart, 2005). As a group, the doctoral degree holders outperformed their colleagues with masters degrees on the five leadership practices (Stout-Stewart, 2005).

In descending order, the commonest leadership practices were enabling others to act, modeling the way, encouraging the heart, challenging the process, and inspiring a shared vision (Stout-Stewart, 2005). Kouzes and Posner (2007) presented enabling as the most prevalent leadership practice. Enabling involves the exercise of concrete actions that promote self-confidence, independence, and self-direction (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). On the other hand, many leaders are less confident in their ability to inspire (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). The use of encouraging the heart is positive in view of the desire of faculty members for recognition and the dissatisfaction caused by lack of appreciation for exemplary performance (Houston et al., 2006).

Much past research has focused on the prevalence of leadership styles among administrators in higher education according to race or ethnicity. An intriguing finding was that the Latina, Asian, and Native American presidents engaged in encouraging the heart and inspiring a shared vision more than either African American or White

presidents, though the African American presidents scored higher on both measures than

their White counterparts (Stout-Stewart, 2005). These differences illustrated the role of

culture in leadership styles and perhaps the interplay of gender and culture (Ayman &

Korabik, 2010). Stout-Stewart (2005) also examined the prospective role of student

enrollment patterns on the community college presidents' leadership practices. Stout-

Stewart also found that while total enrollment had no significant impact, the proportion of

full-time students influenced the practices of inspiring, enabling, and encouraging. As a

group, the presidents were above average in their use of the five practices (Stout-Stewart,

2005).

Much past research has focused on the prevalence of leadership styles among

administrators in higher education according to gender. Stout-Stewart (2005) suggested

that women may be more inclined than men toward transformational and participative

leadership styles. Ayman and Korabik (2010) presented some evidence for that claim;

however, findings vary according to the situation. The leadership practices of the female,

community college presidents may symbolize a trend away from the hierarchical

structure that has traditionally defined public 2-year institutions (Ayman & Korabik,

2010). Instead, their leadership tends toward a shared governance model (Jenkins &

Jensen, 2010).

Webb (2009) explored the leadership behaviors of top executives of 104 colleges

and universities that are members of the Council for Christian Colleges and Universities

(CCCU). The positions held by the respondents in Webb's study included provost, vice

president of academic affairs, vice president of business or financial affairs, vice

president or dean of student affairs, executive vice president, and several other executive positions. The instrument used in Webb's study was the MLQ 5X-short. Regarding the college executives' leadership styles, the pattern that emerged aligns with Bass and Riggio's (2006) model of effective leadership.

In other words, transformational leadership was the most prevalent leadership style, followed by transactional contingent reward leadership, active management by exception, passive management by exception, and laissez faire leadership (Webb, 2009). Webb found that leaders exercised the three passive modes of leadership to a much lesser degree than the more active and effective leadership styles. Individual influence (behavioral idealized influence) was the most prevalent form of transformational leadership, although it was only slightly more common than inspirational motivation and attributed charisma (Webb, 2009).

Other past research focused on the prevalence of leadership styles among administrators in higher education according to the effectiveness of the styles. As interpreted by Webb (2009), employees were most likely to be motivated and willing to exert extra effort by a leader who displays self-confidence, energy, personal conviction, assertiveness and power, or in a word, charisma. Intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and contingent reward leadership all work together beyond the leader's charisma to create an exciting and energizing work environment (Webb, 2009). The importance of having a fair reward and incentive system cannot be downgraded, and indeed it is essential to building trust (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Laissez faire and both active and passive management by exception diminished the drive to invest extra effort in work (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Simplicio (2011) noted that laissez faire leaders lose touch with their employees. As Simplicio also stated, not only do they not provide feedback and encouragement, but their lack of involvement may make staff members feel that the university leadership does not value them personally or professionally. The strongly positive impact of the leader's charisma on motivation highlights the powerful influence of modeling on behavior (Simplicio, 2011). It seems intuitive that a highly energetic, confident, and enthusiastic leader would inspire the same feelings in others to the advantage of their productivity and performance (Simplicio, 2011).

Much past leadership research focused on the effectiveness of skills and traits. The study by Webb (2009) focused on the leadership behaviors of college and university presidents and their impact on employee job satisfaction.   In this study, Webb noted that college presidents need to possess strong leadership and managerial skills. Planning, fundraising, and budgeting are intrinsic to the position of the college president, and these tasks require the vision, influence, and strong interpersonal skills of an excellent leader (Webb, 2009). The participants were overwhelmingly White (97%) and male (8.16%), with an average age of about 50 years and an average of 7.14 years in their present position as noted by Webb.

Attributed charisma emerged as the leadership quality that accounted for the greatest degree of variance in job satisfaction (Webb, 2009). Webb also noted that the effects of the other leadership behaviors were minimal by comparison. Contingent

reward and individualized consideration, along with attributed charisma, explained the variation in job satisfaction (Webb, 2009). There was a substantial degree of an interrelationship between contingent reward leadership and transformational leadership, which is not unusual (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Leadership for Diversity

In exploring college presidents' transformational and transactional leadership styles as they work to promote diversity agendas on campus, Kezar (2010) found compelling support for the effectiveness of a wide range of leadership behaviors. Most of the presidents saw idealized influence as a powerful force for advancing the diversity agenda, especially in the early stages (Kezar, 2010). Presidents exhibiting leadership by example made a persuasive case for the diversity agenda (Kezar, 2010). Kezar concluded that engaging in ongoing dialogue with the students was a pivotal facet of transformational leadership. Individual consideration gained importance in the mid stages of the diversity project (Kezar, 2010).

Interestingly, a majority of the college presidents of color felt that they could advance the diversity agenda effectively by exercising transactional leadership (Kezar, 2010). Kezar (2010) emphasized that the presidents of color were quite capable of transformational leader behaviors. Kezar assessed the campus diversity climate and perceived that transactional leadership was a superior strategy for achieving their objectives. When presidents engaged in transformational leadership, the leaders of color felt it was essential to have the support of key stakeholders (such as the board) who would publicly express their commitment to the diversity agenda (Kezar, 2010). All of

the presidents attuned themselves to the perceptions of their constituents, which guided their approach to advancing the diversity agenda (Kezar, 2010).

Deans and Department Chairs' Leadership Styles

Much valuable research has emerged from the focus on levels of leadership among administrators in higher education in relation to leadership style. Castro (as cited in Derue et al., 2011) selected the LPI and the Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI) for a study of the leadership practices of CAOs, undergraduate deans, and academic department chairs from 12 Carnegie I research institutions. The deans surpassed the department chairs on all five leadership practices and the CAOs on all practices with the exception of modeling the way, though the differences did not reach statistical significance in Derue et al.'s (2011) study. Similarly, the deans emerged as the most emotionally competent of the three groups of leaders (Derue et al., 2011). There were significantly positive interrelationships between the five practices and emotional self-awareness (Derue et al., 2011). Several traits related to achievement orientation: challenging the heart, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart (Derue et al., 2011). On the other hand, several traits related to developing others: challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart (Derue et al., 2011). There is a relationship between transformational leadership and emotional competence (Derue et al., 2011).

Department chairs have predictable duties. In the performance of these duties, chairpersons must perform four essential roles: leader, scholar, faculty developer, and manager (Petersen & Caplow, 2004). Petersen and Caplow (2004) investigated the

influence of department chairs' leadership and communication styles on their effectiveness as perceived by faculty members. The instruments Petersen and Caplow chose were the Path-Goal Leadership Questionnaire, the Norton Communication Style Instrument, and the Department Chair Role Orientation Instrument. The respondents to Petersen and Caplow's online survey were 86 faculty members drawn from 65 leadership higher education programs. The information on faculty interactions produced four leadership styles: *directive, supportive, participative*, and *achievement-oriented,* according to Petersen and Caplow. The descriptions of the chairs' communication styles included friendly, impression-leaving, relaxed, contentious or argumentative, attentive, precise, animated and expressive, dramatic, open, and dominant (Petersen & Caplow, 2004).

The same study examined the prevalence of leadership style among chairpersons. The most common leadership style appeared as achievement-oriented, followed by directive and participative (Petersen & Caplow, 2004). No department chairs characterized themselves as displaying a supportive leadership style (Petersen & Caplow, 2004). The faculty members viewed achievement-oriented and directive chairs as the most effective (Petersen & Caplow, 2004). In view of this preference, Peterson and Caplow (2004) stated that it is not unexpected that most respondents viewed their chairs as exhibiting a dominant communication style. Petersen and Caplow equated this style with being clear and articulate, which is inherently effective. Demographic characteristics did not influence the chairs' leadership or communication styles in Petersen and Caplow's study. Despite the limited use of supportive leadership, the

faculty members enjoyed a substantial degree of autonomy (Petersen & Caplow, 2004).

Academic faculty place more importance on their professional autonomy than their

relationships with administrators and prefer administrators who respect their

independence and freedom (Marston & Brunetti, 2009).

Related research has focused on leadership style prevalence among administrators

in higher education based on the size of the department. For example, Whitsett utilized

the Leadership Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD) and a Personal

Information Data Sheet to examine leadership styles among the department chairs at a

small private university (as cited in Petersen & Caplow, 2004). Whitsett chose as

respondents 64 faculty members and 7 department chairs (as cited in Petersen & Caplow,

2004). Whitsett chose leadership styles covered by the LEAD: *telling, selling,*

participating, and *delegating* (as cited in Petersen & Caplow, 2004). The predominant

leadership style (reported by both chairs and faculty in Whitsett's study) was selling, a

style in which the leader seeks to get faculty to accept and execute desired behaviors

(Petersen & Caplow, 2004). Similarly, Sirkipes (2011) observed that the size of the

department affected the chairs' behavior, with the heads of smaller departments

preferring a participative leadership style. Pragmatically, it may be easier to manage

participative leadership in a smaller department (Sirkipes, 2011). From that standpoint,

the department chairs may be selecting a leadership style they find most appropriate for

their situation, which is a characteristic of an effective leader (Yukl & Mahsud, 2010).

Their profiles indicated that the department chairs had a moderate degree of adaptability

(Sirkis, 2011).

Some past research emphasized the effects of mentoring as a leadership style or attribute. In a study of nursing faculty by Gutierrez, Candela, and Carver (2012), the faculty members' perceived organizational support, developmental experiences, person-organization fit, and global job satisfaction positively predicted their organizational commitment. Guttierrez et al. (2012) also found that the faculty administrators who used mentoring skills were able to build positive relationships with nursing faculty, which in turn led to increased organizational commitment, productivity, job satisfaction, and perceived organizational support.

Other research focused on the prevalence of certain leadership styles among administrators in higher education, based on chairperson demographic characteristics. Jones and Rudd (2008) explored the use of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership by academic deans or program directors in colleges of agriculture and life sciences at land grant universities. A total of 56 academic leaders responded to Jones and Rudd's survey. As a group, the deans in Jones and Rudd's survey tended to prefer transformational leadership, also making use of transactional leadership. Reliance on laissez faire leadership was minimal (Jones & Rudd, 2008). For all three types of leadership behaviors, the male academic leaders had higher scores than their female colleagues (Jones & Rudd, 2008). This finding by Ayman and Korabik (2010) contradicts the prior research by Jones and Rudd that reported women as more disposed than men toward transformational leadership. Ethnic minority leaders displayed more transformational and transactional leadership behaviors than White academic leaders in the study by Jones and Rudd. The overall pattern was that, irrespective of gender or

ethnicity; the academic leaders made effective use of transformational and transactional leadership (Jones & Rudd, 2008)

Faculty Job Satisfaction

Teaching in higher education requires a considerable amount of diligence and commitment, as well as much unsupervised work. As a result, vital characteristics of faculty members include mental commitment and loyalty, rather than only physical presence (Rashid, & Rashid, 2011).

Perceived unwritten contract. Faculty member satisfaction relies partially on the university meeting their end of an unwritten contract as faculty members fulfill their perceived obligations to the university (Rashid, & Rashid, 2011). Krivokapic-Skoko and O'Neill's (2008) study reinforced the importance of leadership and management showing fairness and equity in relation to the promotion and provision of opportunities for career development. The academics' perceived obligations to the university, in turn, relates to the importance of meeting role expectations, commitment to the job, and student learning (Krivokapic-Skoko & O'Neill, 2008).

Changing Academic Profession Survey. Higher education faced rapid changes during the past decade, according to the results tracked by the Changing Academic Profession Survey (CAPS). The Changing Academic Profession Survey began in 2007 with 19 countries and has continued to expand (Coates et al., 2010). The survey encompassed salaries, job satisfaction, propensity to change jobs, research opportunities, contract conditions, workload, environmental support, and leadership (Coates et al., 2010). Coates et al. (2010) presented the findings with emphasis on the perceptions of

Australian faculty members toward their universities' leadership and compared them to other countries. The study results illuminated the perceptions of American faculty (Coates et al., 2010). The ambitious CAPS project provides a complete overview for further examining faculty job satisfaction and views of leadership in greater detail (Coates et al., 2010).

Administrators exert a substantial influence on the culture and environment of higher education faculty. Coates et al. (2010) stated succinctly, "The environment in which academics work is critical to their perceptions of the job" (p. 381). By extension, the president sets the tone for that environment (Simplicio, 2011). The charted responses in the Coates et al.'s study covered the following issues:

- Faculty members' personal influence in working to shape key academic policies at levels ranging from the department to the institution;

- The degree to which top administrators provide competent leadership;

- How well the university kept faculty members informed about what happens at the institution;

- Problems with lack of academic staff involvement;

- Whether students should have a stronger voice in policies affecting them;

- Whether the administration supports academic freedom.

As an extension of the research on the culture and environment of higher education faculty, further research focused on job satisfaction for higher education faculty based on position level. The Australian academics' satisfaction with leadership not only fell below average, but only the British and Hong Kong faculty scored lower

than the Australians (Coates et al., 2010). In contrast, Coates et al. (2010) found that

U.S. faculties were at the higher end of the spectrum. For almost all the countries, the

levels of satisfaction paralleled the faculty ranks, with senior faculty members expressing

the highest satisfaction, followed by middle and then junior faculty members (Coates et

al., 2010). Coates et al. found that faculty members from China, Mexico, and Malaysia

expressed the highest overall levels of satisfaction with leadership. Coates et al.'s most

striking finding was that, of all the countries, the gap between the satisfaction of senior

and junior faculty members was the most pronounced in the United States. The pattern

for the Australian academics was not remarkably different (Coates et al., 2010).

Characteristics of the culture and environment of higher education faculty lead to

dissatisfaction. In order to assess institutional support, Coates et al. (2010) asked

respondents a broad question. The researchers asked whether conditions in higher

education and research institutions had improved or declined since they began their

career, which preceded questions specific to their institution (Coates et al., 2010). The

questions designed by Coates et al. asked whether the institution had the following

characteristics: (a) good communication between management and faculty, (b) a top-

down management style, (c) collegial decision making processes, (d) a strong

performance orientation, (e) a cumbersome administrative process, (f) a supportive

attitude on the part of administrative staff toward teaching activities, (g) a supportive

attitude on the part of administrative staff toward research, and (h) professional

development for administrative or management activities for individual faculty members.

On a scale of 4.0, the perceptions of support by U.S. faculty were just under 3.0, one of the highest scores in the Coates et al. study. Thus among the countries the U.S. academics were fairly well satisfied with institutional support and top management (Coates et al., 2010).

The same study also considered international differences in faculty satisfaction (Coates et al., 2010). The U.S. academics were also among the most satisfied with the features of their institutional facilities, surpassed only by faculty from Finland, Hong Kong, and Germany (Coates et al., 2010). For institutional support, only Malaysia, China, Korea, and Mexico were higher, although the difference between the United States and Mexico was negligible (Coates et al., 2010). The only troubling finding in the Coates et al. study, although not surprising, was the marked gap in satisfaction between senior, middle, and junior faculty in American higher education. Coates et al. attributed the low satisfaction of the Australian and U.K. faculty members to the fact that the higher education systems have in the past decade gone through massive changes to an unprecedented degree. Only China has experienced a comparable degree of change (Coates et al., 2010). Yet the changes have produced markedly divergent results; Chinese academics have the highest level of satisfaction with leadership and the second highest satisfaction with institutional support (Coates et al., 2010). Coates et al., in response to the contrasting patterns, raised the question of how changes at the institutional and department levels might affect the perceptions of faculty members. In the United States, the inequities in power and influence that affect the satisfaction with institutional

leadership of faculty members at different levels should serve as a springboard for positive organizational change (Coates et al., 2010).

Academic faculty. Qualitative studies offer another avenue for investigation of job satisfaction for academic faculty. Ambrose, Huston and Norman's (2005) qualitative study intended to delve beyond the information that can be produced by a fixed-response survey. A unique feature of the study is that the researchers matched current faculty members with former faculty from the same university (Ambrose et al., 2005). Where possible, researchers matched the two groups by gender and race (Ambrose et al., 2005). Most of the former faculty members in the study had left their positions voluntarily (Ambrose et al., 2005). Most were still academics, and most had gained tenured at their new university (Ambrose et al., 2005). The 62 current faculty members included 42 tenured professors (Ambrose et al., 2005). Contrary to the presumed relationship between job satisfaction and retention, virtually identical proportions of former and current faculty members reported satisfaction with the university (54% and 53%, respectively), noted Xu (2008a). The proportion of former faculty who described their experience as negative was only slightly higher than that for the current faculty (43% and 39%), noted Xu. However, Ambrose et al. (2005) discovered that the participants' detailed descriptions of their experiences were often incongruent with their overall assessments.

The factors underlying their satisfaction or dissatisfaction fell into seven broad categories in Ambrose's study (Ambrose et al., 2005). Five customarily found in the literature include the following: salaries, mentoring, collegiality, reappointment,

promotion and tenure, and department chairs (Ambrose et al., 2005). The other two categories, which related to regional issues and the interdisciplinary focus of the university, emerged as more unique to the setting than these five stated categories (Ambrose et al., 2005).

Both tangible and intangible incentives motivate faculty members. One study used a concept from Matier's earlier research describing *internal benefits* and *external benefits* (Ambrose et al., 2005). Internal benefits encompass intangible features such as autonomy, influence, sense of belonging, and institutional and personal reputation, along with tangible benefits such as salary and fringe benefits, facilities, and policy (Xu, 2008a). External benefits fall outside the realm of work. External benefits include family, friends, quality of life, and financial issues beyond salary (Xu, 2008a). Ambrose et al. (2005) noted internal factors as significant in the decision to stay or leave while external benefits were not significant in that decision. However, the fusion of low internal benefits at the institution, expectations for high internal benefits elsewhere, and the freedom to leave is likely to spur the decision to leave the institution (Xu, 2008a).

As a relevant extension of internal and external benefits, Xu (2008a) connected these benefits to faculty retention efforts. According to Xu, some faculty members described low external benefits. Examples of external benefits listed by Xu include helping faculty members find suitable housing, assisting their partners or spouses in finding jobs, and helping new faculty members feel less socially or culturally isolated. Though these pose a challenge for the institution to address, external benefits can be especially helpful for faculty members relocating to the area, especially when entering

from another country and culture (Xu, 2008a). According to Xu, taking steps to improve

the internal benefits for faculty members is certainly under the institution's control. As

Xu observed, most of the sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction are common and are

amenable to change by institutional leadership. Further, Xu suggested the need to pay

attention to discipline-specific patterns in future studies of faculty turnover behaviors.

Administrators need to realize that retention efforts should go beyond general human

resources issues. Xu argued that allowing flexibility for deans lead to more efficient and

effective resource utilization than general retention efforts offered.

Research relevant to the present study includes the factors that motivated

longevity for higher education faculty (Marston & Brunetti, 2009). Marston and Brunetti

(2009) examined job satisfaction of experienced and tenured professors at a midsized

liberal arts college. For the purpose of the study, Marston and Brunetti gave the

experienced professors label to tenure track faculty who had been teaching in academia

for a minimum of 15 years. A total of 74 professors responded to the survey, and

Marston and Brunetti subsequently interviewed 25 professors for in-depth responses.

The participants in Marston and Brunetti's study represented the institution's four

schools: Liberal Arts, Science, Education, and Economics and Business Administration.

Marston and Brunetti noted that regardless of the institution's classification as

comprehensive, the campus with about 2,600 students had the "look and feel" of an

undergraduate liberal arts college (p. 325). Marston and Brunetti gave the faculty

members the Experienced Teacher Survey (ETS), on which the respondents rate the

importance of various factors that influence faculty life.

Several prominent intrinsic factors affect job satisfaction for higher education faculty. Interacting with students and helping them learn and grow was the overarching source of satisfaction for the professors as well as motivation to maintain an academic career (Marston & Brunetti, 2009). In fact, a love of learning was evident; the professors enjoyed their subjects and felt they were continually learning (Marston & Brunetti, 2009). Scholarship was an immensely valuable aspect of the professors' careers, which is not surprising given their compelling interest in their academic fields (Marston & Brunetti, 2009). Marston and Brunetti found that professional autonomy in the classroom was a significant source of satisfaction, suggesting that they might have sought a different position had there been policies that impinged on their freedom and flexibility. Extrinsic factors such as tenure or job security, compensation and benefits, and a flexible teaching schedule were also sources of satisfaction and motivation to remain at the university, but these had less of an impact than professional satisfaction (Marston & Brunetti, 2009). For respondents in the Marston and Brunetti study, lack of recognition for work well accomplished was a persistent source of dissatisfaction beyond the actual workload. Similarly, Safi, Khoshknab, Russell, and Rahgozar (2011) sought to identify factors leading to job satisfaction using a descriptive cross-sectional study of 94 faculty members. In a principal component analysis, the motivational domain had the most impact while the economic domain had the least impact on job satisfaction (Safi et al., 2011).

Relationships play a key role in motivating longevity for higher education faculty (Marston & Brunetti, 2009). Marston and Brunetti (2009) also found that the professors'

relationships with their colleagues played a pivotal role in their decision to stay with the

institution than their relationships with administrators (Marston & Brunetti, 2009). The

importance the professors awarded their collegial relationships also had a negative side;

as one professor acknowledged, "it's painful when it is not there" (p. 330). However, the

lack of support this respondent felt from her colleagues motivated the professor to

cultivate relationships with faculty in other departments (Marston & Brunetti, 2009).

Ultimately the college members elected her to a committee, and she found her career

immensely rewarding (Marston & Brunetti, 2009). Other faculty members expressed

frustration or dissatisfaction if they experienced similar lack of support (Marston &

Brunetti, 2009). The qualitative responses in Marston and Brunetti's study were valuable

for illuminating the various individual responses that arose due to similar institutional

conditions. Fuller et al.'s (2008) assertion supports the idea that college administrators

should develop collaborative ties as well as support and implement mentoring objectives

for all faculty members.

Perhaps as a positive aspect, the professors interviewed for Marston and

Brunetti's (2009) study invested more importance in their collegial relationships than

their interactions with administrators. Interviews elicited a number of negative opinions

about the administrators (Marston & Brunetti, 2009). One professor in the Marston and

Brunetti study admitted that he had contemplated leaving on more than one occasion and

that the issue of concern "was administratively induced" (p. 331). Interestingly, only

50% to 60% of leaders admit to being effective in the critical leadership skills needed to

foster quality relations with employees (Newhall, 2012). In studies by Bass and Riggio

(2006), Bennis (2010), and Kouzes and Posner (2007) professors have described the qualities of an ideal administrator. These included the following: sharing common goals with faculty, actively listening and paying attention to faculty members' concerns, being supportive, displaying honesty and integrity, willing to work together with faculty to deal with challenges and solve problems, and being accessible and approachable. Broadly, the professors described the characteristics of an effective transformational leader; however, the administrators they encountered did not necessarily possess those attributes (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Bennis, 2010; Kouzes & Posner, 2007).

Several voluntary duties emerged as key factors that demotivated longevity for higher education faculty (Marston & Brunetti, 2009). Professors in the Marston and Brunetti (2009) study showed little enthusiasm for providing service to the institution. A common concern by faculty members, found by Marston and Brunetti, was that the demands for service were not fair and equitable. One professor felt it was "servitude" rather than service and described the system as "hierarchical" (Marston & Brunetti, 2009, p. 335). Professors reported that their sense of the expectation that they would provide uncompensated service had the following effects: (a) detracted from the time and energy the professors desired to devote to their discipline and (b) seemed exploitive (Marston & Brunetti, 2009). Service was the only factor the professors considered less relevant to their job satisfaction and motivation to stay than the administration (Marston & Brunetti, 2009). Indeed, as described by Marston and Brunetti, a common attitude toward the administrators was "Let them do their thing and leave me alone" (p. 338). Faculty members in the Marston and Brunetti study listed the following as areas in which the

administrators needed improvement to enhance the job satisfaction of their senior faculty: working to build better relationships with faculty, paying attention to faculty concerns, and learning better ways to resolve conflicts.

High workload can negatively affect faculty morale. Houston et al. (2006) focused on workload in their study of job satisfaction among faculty members in New Zealand. The large public university spans several campuses and has a sizable distance education program (Houston et al., 2006). Amidst major changes to the university system, workload policy emerged as a point of contention among increasingly pressured faculty members (Houston et al., 2006). The dataset used for analysis in Houston's et al. study sample came from three sources and covered 3 years. The Work Environment Survey (WES), first conducted in 2002, covered research on work stress and job satisfaction in universities in the United States, Canada, and Australia (Houston et al., 2006). The findings showed that it was not the increasing demands per se that were inducing negative feelings but rather the perception that administrators failed to recognize the faculty members for exemplary performance or supported in change efforts (Houston et al., 2006). There was some disagreement on whether morale was high or low. Respondents in the Houston study displayed high satisfaction regarding certain aspects, which included the following: professional autonomy, the degree of responsibility, and the extent of variety in their work. An excessive workload detracts from the teaching and research that attract individuals to academia (Houston et al., 2006).

The mixed feelings expressed by the New Zealand faculty members in the Marston and Brunetti (2009) study appear commonly in the literature. In interviews,

however, Houston et al. (2006) noted the lack of creative problem solving in response to questions of how faculty members might themselves resolve the workload issues. Focus groups in Houston's et al. study revealed that, in some respects, the university had adopted a culture of blame as opposed to proactive problem solving. Transformational leadership ideally meets the needs of challenging and uncertain conditions (Bass & Riggio, 2006), which may forestall the development of such negative trends. In particular, leadership characterized by idealized influence and intellectual stimulation should be a positive antidote to the passive culture expressed by the respondents in the Marston and Brunetti study.

     Intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. Effective contingent reward (transactional leadership) had a positive impact on organizational commitment. O'Meara and Terosky (2008) conducted hundreds of in-depth interviews of faculty members. O'Meara and Terosky's analysis showed that environmental factors indirectly affected intentions to stay (through the environmental factors' effect on both job satisfaction and organizational commitment). O'Meara and Terosky noted that the external influence of job opportunity exerted a direct, negative impact on intentions to stay. Autonomy, communication, distributive justice, and role conflict had significant total effects on the intention to stay (O'Meara & Terosky, 2008). Autonomy operated indirectly through job satisfaction and organizational commitment, while faculty autonomy signifies trust on the part of the institution (O'Meara & Terosky, 2008). According to past research reviewed by O'Meara and Terosky, opportunities for faculty socialization, communication, and mentoring may enhance affective commitment. While salary can be a pivotal issue,

especially in departments where salaries are low, the perception of fair compensation offers more value to job satisfaction than does a salary cutoff (O'Meara & Terosky, 2008).

    Gender. Interest in gender as a characteristic affecting job satisfaction for higher education faculty has generated many findings. Reybold, Brazer, Schrum, and Corda (2012) studied knowledge and access as related to committee membership. Reybold et al. (2012) noted prior survey research by the Collaborative on Academic Careers in Higher Education included findings that, for women, factors of interest were tenure clarity and expectations, compensation and benefits, the nature of their teaching and research, balancing work and life, job climate and culture, and global satisfaction. Across disciplines, female faculty members expressed lower levels of job satisfaction in several areas when compared with male faculty members (Reybold et al., 2012). These areas were the number of hours worked, the amount of time for research, work/life balance, and the compatibility of the tenure track with raising children (Reybold et al., 2012). When Sabharwala and Corley (2009) explored faculty job satisfaction and retention for women, they too included several demographic, institutional, and career-related factors in their research model, yet they found that males were significantly less satisfied than females, when comparing overall job satisfaction. Seifert and Umbach (2008) explored the effects of demographic characteristics and discipline on job satisfaction using data from NSOPF:99. The framework for the study was Kalleberg's model of job satisfaction, which considers the interrelationships of individual characteristics and intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (Seifet & Umback, 2008). Female

faculty members were significantly less satisfied with their professional autonomy than their male colleagues in the same discipline (Saifert & Umback, 2008). Adding further complexity to this picture, Akroyd, Bracken, and Chambers (2011) found that female college faculty members in general education disciplines expressed more satisfaction with their jobs than female faculty who taught in occupational areas. Women were also less satisfied with compensation and opportunities for advancement than men in the same discipline (Seifert & Umbach, 2008).

      Ethnicity. Ethnicity affects job satisfaction for some higher education faculty. Seifert and Umbach (2008) found that ethnicity did not affect satisfaction with intrinsic rewards, in contrast to prior research reporting lower satisfaction among faculty of color. Akroyd et al. (2011) found that White men tended to be less satisfied than men of color. Faculty members with disabilities expressed lower satisfaction with intrinsic rewards (Akroyd et al., 2011). Asian faculty members and Latino faculty members also expressed less satisfaction with extrinsic rewards in the Akroyd et al. study. Akroyd et al. examined perceptions of equitable treatment. Akroyd et al. found that female and minority faculty members showed sensitivity to the presence of inequitable treatment for both female and minority faculty members. Likewise, Bozeman and Gaughan (2011) found that faculty members expressed dissatisfaction with their jobs when they perceived that the school did not pay according to their worth. Thus, as a summary, women tended to be less satisfied than men, and the tenured tended to be more satisfied than the untenured. In relation to the rationale for the presently proposed study, administration would be able to change any or all of the factors that influence differences in satisfaction and equitable treatment.

STEM disciplines. Research comparing fields of study shows that aspects of a discipline affect job satisfaction for higher education faculty. Bozeman and Gaughan (2011) investigated the roles of individual characteristics, the work, and the institutional environment in job satisfaction using data from the 2004-2005 Survey of Academic Researchers, covering tenured and tenure-track faculty in science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM). The sample in Bozeman and Gaughan's study consisted of 1,794 respondents. Slightly more women than men responded (Bozeman & Gaughan, 2011). The sources of job satisfaction fell into the three broad categories of demographic characteristics, interactions with colleagues, and extrinsic pay motivation (Bozeman & Gaughan, 2011). Collegial relationships played a powerful role in satisfaction; in fact, Bozeman and Gaughan noted that satisfaction was highly dependent upon the respect that colleagues had for the professor and his or her work. Bozeman and Gaughan noted that the respondent's satisfaction with their pay was contingent on their perception that their pay was competitive on the job market. Bozeman and Guaghan further noted that gender had a small but significant impact on job satisfaction. Of all the variables in Bozeman and Gaughan's study, gender had the weakest effect. However, female faculty members frequently feel subjected to a less welcoming climate than their male colleagues, and past research widely recognized the so-called chilly climate for women in the STEM fields (Bilimoria, Joy, & Liang, 2008; Xu, 2008b).

Women in STEM disciplines. Female higher education faculty members express differences in job satisfaction depending on their field of study. Settles et al. (2006) focused on the organizational climate, which women in the sciences experienced

as not amenable to their career progression. The participants in the Settles et al. study were female tenure track faculty members in the natural sciences, engineering, and social sciences. Each respondent in the Settles et al. study held the rank of assistant professor, or a higher position, at a large Midwestern university. Settles et al. addressed experiences such as gender discrimination, sexist climate, positive climate, leadership, job satisfaction, productivity, and influence. The two features of organizational climate, sexist climate and gender discrimination, exerted the highest impact on overall job satisfaction (Settles et al., 2006). Gender discrimination also diminished the influence of women in their department (Settles et al., 2006). Settle's et al. noted that supportive leadership leads to higher job satisfaction. Additionally, Settles et al. proposed that women who experience a positive climate may more likely feel integrated into their department and less likely feel isolated.

Effective leadership by the department chair affected three positive work outcomes: influence, productivity, and job satisfaction (Bilimoria et al., 2008). Bilimoria et al. (2008) also noted that leaders establish the organization's norms, values, and expectations for appropriate behavior. The findings in the study by Bilimoria et al.'s suggested that clearly communicated expectations promote positive outcomes for female STEM faculty. This holds true even after controlling for gender discrimination and sexual harassment (Bilimoria et al., 2008). Bilimoria et al noted that women experienced the climate for women in the social sciences as much more favorable than in the life sciences and engineering. Nonetheless, Bilimoria et al. stated that the two groups were equivalent in job satisfaction, perceived influence, and productivity. Bilimoria et al.

suggested that women in science may develop effective coping strategies that enable

them to transcend a negative environment. However, female STEM faculty members still

have high rates of attrition (Xu, 2008b).

Clinical and professional faculty. A study by Chung et al. (2010), investigated

several characteristics affecting job satisfaction for higher education faculty members

separated into academic and clinical groups. Chung et al. investigated the factors

influencing the job satisfaction of academic faculty and clinical faculty at the University

of Michigan Medical School. Although similar in many ways, their primary mission

revolves around teaching and patient care without the research emphasis that defines

tenure track academic faculty (Chung et al., 2010). There are notable structural

differences between the two tracks. Chung et al. noted that there had been no previous

studies examining and comparing the job satisfaction of the two faculty groups. The

sample included 353 academic track faculty members and 360 clinical track faculty

members (Chung et al., 2010). There were some marked differences between the two

groups (Chung et al., 2010). Men made up three-quarters of the instructional faculty but

57% of the clinical faculty, assistant professors comprised two-thirds of the clinical

faculty, while full professors accounted for more than half the instructional faculty in

Chung et al.'s study. Analysis of the participants' responses in the Chung et al. study

produced the following factors that influence satisfaction: departmental leadership,

autonomy, expectations, balance, basic science research, clinical support, teaching

support, and compensation.

For both groups of faculty, the dominant influences on satisfaction related to autonomy, career expectations, work-life balance, and department leadership (Chung et al., 2010). The role of the department chair is critical in setting the culture of the department (Chung et al., 2010). Chung et al. (2010) also proposed that due to their experience, department chairs may make excellent mentors for younger faculty members. It is noteworthy that while mentorship per se was not a significant factor in the satisfaction of either faculty group, those respondents who had mentors expressed significantly greater satisfaction than those that did not (Chung et al., 2010). However, the clinical faculty members in Chung et al.'s study were much less satisfied with the quality of their mentoring relationships and their opportunities for career advancement. Chung et al. found that, department heads have the capacity to establish formal channels for pairing mentors and protégés. Team and group mentoring are also alternatives to traditional mentorships and have the advantage to exposing the protégés to mentors with different styles and experiences (Chung et al., 2010). Department chairs can also serve as informal mentors through role modeling (Chung et al., 2010). Strategies to enhance faculty job satisfaction more often affect the outcome if undertaken at the department level with the active involvement of the department chair (Chung et al., 2010).

In a study of salary and promotion of clinical faculty, Froeschle and Sinkford (2009) explored dental faculty members' satisfaction and perceptions of their work environment. They conducted the research with 57 faculty members. Status and salary were pertinent issues as lower paid faculty members felt they had fewer resources and opportunities for professional development, including promotion and tenure workshops

and mid-tenure review and feedback (Froeschle & Sinkford, 2010). Respondents in Froeschle and Sinkford's study who said they were not adequately mentored also stated (a) dissatisfaction with the available resources, (b) greater inclination to turn to external resources for development, and (c) lesser satisfaction with collegial relationships.

Another finding of the study showed that faculty members who enjoyed positive mentorships with senior faculty reported much higher job satisfaction and a favorable work-life balance (Froeschle & Sinkford, 2010). Opportunities for professional growth, and above all strong mentoring relationships, appeared to be decisive factors in the dental faculty members' job satisfaction in Froeschle and Sinkford's study. For clinical faculty in Froeschle and Sinkford's (2009) study, women reported more intention to remain than did men. Faculty members in Froeschle and Sinkford's study placed importance on collegial relationships and assistance to students. The majority of respondents in Froeschle and Sinkford's study expressed intentions to remain in academia for the next 5 to 8 years; however, men were slightly more inclined than women to say they might leave. The two paramount reasons drawing them to remain in academia were similar to those of the veteran liberal arts faculty (Marston & Brunetti, 2009). In other words, relationships with their colleagues and students were main sources of satisfaction (Froeschle & Sinkford, 2009). For clinical faculty, positive relationships with colleagues and students may be pivotal to retaining them in academia. Hence, Froeschle and Sinkford state that institutions should enhance reward and recognition for teaching to retain dedicated dental faculty.

Leadership and support personnel also played a pivotal role in satisfaction (Froeschle & Sinkford, 2010). In the context of a faculty satisfaction survey, Froeschle and Sinkford viewed leadership as an elusive factor to quantify and measure. Froeschle and Sinkford noted that many quantitative faculty surveys show evidence that leadership influences faculty satisfaction without delving further into how this occurs. Surveys that inquire about faculty members' relationships with the department chair are an exception (Froeschle & Sinkford, 2010). Froeschle and Sinkford also noted that the influence of top leadership is indirect, and frequently must be inferred from the conditions that either enhance or detract from satisfaction. Salary is often a point of dissatisfaction (Froeschle & Sinkford, 2010). For professional faculty who can earn higher incomes in the private sector, increasing intrinsic rewards and recognition may be pivotal to retaining them in the academic environment (Froeschle & Sinkford, 2009)

Pay exerts a primary influence on satisfaction of clinical faculty members. Pharmacy faculty members were the focus of research on satisfaction conducted by Spivey, Chisholm-Burns, Murphy, Rice, and Morelli (2009). Spivey et al. (2009) cited evidence that there are escalating demands for pharmacy faculty, although many positions remain vacant. Nursing programs have similar conditions (Baker, Fitzpatrick, & Griffin, 2011). Spivey et al. developed an online survey instrument for the study, and 266 pharmacy faculty members responded. The respondents in Spivey et al.'s study expressed (a) moderate levels of satisfaction with their jobs and fringe benefits and (b) moderate to high satisfaction with their opportunities to capitalize on their skills and abilities. Spivey et al.'s detailed analysis revealed that higher paid faculty members

expressed more satisfaction with their work, as compared to responses of lower paid faculty members. Demographic and institutional factors did not influence job satisfaction (Spivey et al., 2009). Notably, Spivey et al. attributed the absence of gender differences in satisfaction, to the growing demand for pharmacy faculty and intensive efforts to eradicate gender inequality. The recommendations for increasing the satisfaction and retention of pharmacy faculty apply to all disciplines (Spivey et al., 2009). Spivey et al.'s recommendations included the following:

- Actively promote a culture of awareness, equity, and appreciation for diversity;

- Develop equitable and transparent reward systems based on clear criteria;

- Create and sustain a work environment that is intellectually stimulating and challenging;

- Provide institutional support for scholarship and scholarly inquiry with adequate resources and opportunities for professional growth and development;

- Identify, create, promote, and disseminate opportunities for recognition and advancing knowledge;

- Devise strategies to promote a healthy work-life balance without compromising high standards;

- Seek opportunities to enhance the reputation of the department, program, and institution;

- Advocate on behalf of faculty for competitive salaries.

These recommendations can easily be matched to the four dimensions of transformational leadership and contingent rewards (Spivey et al., 2009).

Status and rank. The disparities in job satisfaction between senior, middle, and junior faculty found in the CAPS (Coates et al., 2010) warrants additional study. Rogotzke (2011) explored satisfaction related to rank. Rogotzke noted that women were somewhat overrepresented. Satisfaction with the features of the university emerged as the overriding predictor of job satisfaction for tenure and tenure track faculty, a pattern that held for associate professors, assistant professors, and full professors (Rogotzke, 2011). Rogotzke found that only instructors and academic professionals departed from that preference. Factors under this heading include support for collaboration, innovation and risk-taking, high quality work, high quality service, and a sense of community (Rogotzke, 2011).

Other research by Bozeman and Gaughan (2011) similarly investigated rank as a characteristic related to job satisfaction. Bozeman and Gaughan found that faculty members are more often satisfied with their jobs when they perceive that their colleagues respect their research. Bozeman and Guaghan also found higher satisfaction among faculty when their compensation matches their estimation of what they are worth. Judgea, Piccolob, Podsakoffc, Shawd, and Riche (2010), in a meta-analysis not restricted to faculty members, estimated the population correlation between pay level and measures of pay and job satisfaction. As a result, pay level only marginally related to satisfaction. This is consistent with Rogotzke's (2011) finding that the level of pay was notable for all faculty members. In Marston and Brunnetti's (2009) study, the significance of

compensation decreased for assistant professors. Marston and Brunetti found that satisfaction with colleagues was significant for faculty of all ranks, consistent with the emphasis the veteran liberal arts faculty placed on their relationships with colleagues. Satisfaction with the department chair only maintained significance for assistant professors and academic professionals (Marston & Brunetti, 2009). Rogotzke attributed this to the fact that assistant professors tend to be relative novices and thus might desire more attention and assistance from the department chair. This finding by Rogotzke (2011) explains why experienced liberal arts professors in the Marston and Brunetti study could dismiss their relationships with administrators as irrelevant to their satisfaction. Marston and Brunetti also noted that work-family balance proves vital to some degree for all faculty ranks. In the final analysis for Marston and Brunetti, however, it was only significant for assistant professors and professors with conflict between work and family lives exerting a negative impact on satisfaction.

In my assessment of the findings, these studies regarding status and rank among faculty indicated that gaining insight into the factors affecting the satisfaction of different faculty groups helps administrators address their concerns. Administrators may consider adapting support to individual needs and preferences as a primary example of individualized consideration.

From the perspective of person-to-job fit, Maynard and Joseph (2008) investigated the job satisfaction and commitment of college faculty in three categories: full-time faculty, part-time faculty who prefer a part-time position, and part-time faculty who would prefer a full-time position. Maynard and Joseph's study offer ample utility at

a time when institutions of higher learning rely more extensively on adjunct faculty members than in the past. In fact, part-time faculty members constitute at least 40% of the faculty members in many institutions (Maynard & Joseph, 2008).

Maynard and Joseph (2008) also noted that while some assume that part-time faculty members feel less satisfied with their work, the empirical evidence does not support that belief. Maynard and Joseph argued that the aggregated quantitative data may obscure crucial distinctions among part-time faculty. Thus, Maynard and Joseph's study distinguished between the two groups they labeled voluntary and involuntary part-time faculty. The full sample consisted of 167 respondents employed at a comprehensive public university (Maynard & Joseph, 2008). Maynard and Joseph used the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) to assess job satisfaction. The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) measured *affective* commitment (Maynard & Joseph, 2008). The involuntary part-time faculty members were theorized to be underemployed, marked by over qualification and underpayment (Maynard & Joseph, 2008). The findings by Maynard and Joseph confirmed that the involuntary part-time faculty members expressed more dissatisfaction with compensation, opportunities for advancement, and job security than the other two groups expressed. However, all three groups in Maynard and Joseph's study expressed comparable satisfaction with other facets of their work. Ironically, the part-time faculty members, including the involuntary part-time faculty members, expressed slightly stronger affective commitment to the institution than did the full-time faculty members (Maynard & Joseph, 2008). Maynard and Joseph noted that the part-time faculty members expressed more positive attitudes on

several dimensions than the full-time faculty expressed. Maynard and Joseph proposed

that institutions may be providing part-time faculty members with more support than

many have recognized. An alternative explanation is that the administration provided

insufficient support to full-time faculty members, or faculty members may have higher

expectations than the departments have prepared to meet (Maynard & Joseph, 2008).

If indeed part-time faculty members report greater attached to the institution and

are at least as satisfied as their full-time colleagues, the trend toward hiring more part-

time faculty members than full time members may have positive benefits for the

institution. Maynard and Joseph (2008) suggested targeted recruitment aimed at hiring

faculty members who prefer part-time positions. With impending retirements and a

growing demand for faculty members who teach online courses, this may be an

advantageous strategy for forward thinking administrators (Maynard & Joseph, 2008).

Community college faculty. Job characteristics of community college faculty

differ somewhat from those of state colleges and universities. Shared governance is less

prevalent at community colleges; many community colleges still adhere to a bureaucratic

structure (Jenkins & Jensen, 2010). Community college faculty members have

traditionally enjoyed much less professional autonomy than 4-year college faculty (Kim,

Twombly, & Wolf-Wendel, 2008). Kim et al. (2008) noted that the unionization that

prevails at community colleges also produces rules and policies that erode professional

autonomy. Using data from the 2004 National Study of Postsecondary Faculty (NSOPF),

Kim et al. (2008) explored the impact of professional autonomy on community college

faculty member job satisfaction. They used a dataset that included personal and institutional characteristics.

The findings by Kim et al. (2008) showed that most community college faculty members, regardless of their institutional type or faculty status and rank, expressed satisfaction with their instructional autonomy. Undergraduate faculty members in doctoral and non-doctoral institutions in Kim et al.'s study expressed more satisfaction with instructional autonomy than community college faculty members expressed, while community college faculty members expressed higher overall satisfaction. The only effect for demographic factors was that Asian and Latino/a faculty in 4-year institutions were less satisfied with instructional autonomy (Kim et al., 2008). Colleges and universities are at various stages in creating a positive diversity climate (Kezar, 2010). However, the quantitative NSOPF data do not shed any light on why members of those ethic groups would be less satisfied with instructional autonomy and only at baccalaureate institutions (Kezar, 2010). Across institutional type and status, the same factors influenced satisfaction with autonomy (Kim et al., 2008).

Distance education faculty. Job characteristics for online courses differ somewhat from job characteristics of traditional courses. The demand for online courses is far outpacing the growth of any other sector of postsecondary education (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009; Green et al., 2009). Bolliger et al. (2009) noted that the quality of distance education programs and courses is a serious issue to college officials. Bolliger et al. found that faculty members who have experience teaching online courses have more favorable opinions of online courses than those who have not. At the same time, as the

demand for online courses escalates, so does the number of online faculty members (Bolliger, 2009). Retaining qualified online faculty should be a priority for institutions, which entails understanding the factors that influence the satisfaction of online faculty (Bolliger, 2009).

One profitable area of study addresses characteristics affecting job satisfaction for faculty members teaching online courses. Green et al. (2009) explored the factors affecting the involvement of online faculty in a study of 135 instructors from 23 universities, drawn from the listserv of the Distance Education Online Symposium as well as from current and former instructors of online courses at East Carolina University and California State University at Fullerton. The respondents in Green et al.'s study were fairly evenly divided among four groups: adjunct or part-time, full-time non-tenured, tenure track, and tenured. Green et al. noted that slightly more than half the respondents taught online courses for 1 to 3 years, attesting to their relative novelty in the higher education landscape.

Online courses offer several benefits for faculty members. The main reasons for opting to teach distance courses included flexible working conditions, opportunity to use technology, opportunity to share knowledge with others, intellectual challenge, career development or advancement, and opportunity to acquire teaching experience (Green et al., 2009). Green et al. noted that the factors that would encourage the respondents to continue teaching online courses do not differ from those preferred by faculty who teach in person. These factors are as follows: continuous training provided by the institution, financial compensation that matched their workload, support from the institution,

opportunities to assist with course or program development, and mentoring from experienced distance faculty (Green et al., 2009)

Faculty members differed in reasons for choosing to teach online courses. The tenured faculty diverged from the other three groups in that their predominant motivation to teach online courses is an intellectual challenge (Green et al., 2009). Explicitly and implicitly, intellectual challenge figured prominently in the motivational factors of the veteran liberal arts faculty interviewed by Marston and Brunetti (2009). The tenured faculty also differed from the other groups in that approximately one half cited the absence of a personal connection with the university as a discouragement from continuing to teach online courses (Green et al., 2009). Other distinctive differences, according to Green et al. (2009), were that loyalty to the institution as well as an opportunity for increased income motivated the adjunct and part-time faculty members. In contrast, the tenure track and untenured faculty appeared driven primarily by intrinsic rewards (Green et al., 2009). For the most part, however, Green et al. found that the four groups were quite similar.

Administrators face several challenges in supporting faculty members teaching online courses. University leaders may never personally interact with some of their online faculty in a face-to-face setting (Green et al., 2009). However, they play a powerful role in creating an environment conducive to their professional growth and commitment (Green et al., 2009). Based on their findings, Green et al. made several recommendations. First, Green et al. (2009) emphasized that regardless of their experience, online instructors desire continuous opportunities for professional growth and

learning. Satisfying this interest also involves professional education and support, given

that many online instructors lack the technological expertise to format their course

content as effective educational media (Green et al., 2009). Second, Green et al.

suggested that there should be a formal mentoring system for novice online instructors.

Serving as mentors may also reinforce the commitment and enthusiasm of veteran online

faculty (Green et al., 2009). Third, Green et al. emphasized the importance of building a

sense of community, particular for the adjunct faculty who may teach online distance

courses. Ongoing open communication is critical to that endeavor, noted Green et al. A

leader's behavior associated with individualized consideration and intellectual

stimulation may be pivotal to the satisfaction and commitment of online faculty (Green et

al., 2009).

Faculty satisfaction as related to online courses also benefited from several

qualitative study methods.   Bolliger and Wasilik (2009) examined satisfaction among

122 instructors who taught distance courses at the University of Wyoming during Fall

2007 or Spring 2008. The university in Bolliger and Wasilik's (2009) study had been a

pioneer in distance learning, having begun their distance education program in 1984. The

school integrated the Online Faculty Satisfaction Survey (OFSS) into the university's

course management system (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009). The OFSS used in Bolliger and

Wasilik's study had 36 questions divided into the three subscales of *student-related*

issues, instructor-related issues, and *institution-related issues.* The student-related issues

emerged as the most important, which is consistent with the strong student orientation of

the liberal arts faculty (Marston & Brunetti, 2009). Instructor-related issues directly

affected satisfaction but counted as less important than the student-related issues

(Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009). Bolliger and Wasilik found that the institution-related issues,

which consisted of workload, compensation, preparation, and course evaluation, were the

least important. Of these four, however, workload had the highest mean scores (Bolliger

& Wasilik, 2009). Roughly 60% of the instructors said their workload was heavier when

they taught online courses than teaching in-seat courses (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009).

Green et al. (2009) found workload to be particularly pertinent for the full-time non-

tenured distance faculty.

In view of the nature of the distance education program at the University of

Wyoming, distance educators may already have ample professional support. Learning

and professional development issues, which were highly influential to the satisfaction and

motivation of the distance faculty surveyed by Green et al. (2009), were less valuable to

Bolliger and Wasilik's (2009) respondents. Bolliger and Wasilik were testing the

psychometric properties of the OFSS; thus they did not elaborate on the responses of the

instructors, which would have provided additional insight into how the factors that affect

their satisfaction play out.

In a study of faculty satisfaction focused on quality management of online

courses, Bolliger and Wasilik (2009) approached the issue from the perspective of quality

enhancement. In the context of higher education, quality enhancement refers to

continuous quality improvement in the quest to fulfill the institution's stated mission

(Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009). Analogous to total quality management (TQM) in the

corporate sector, continuous quality improvement in higher learning involves ongoing,

systematic evaluation (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009). Bollinger and Wasilik noted that one of the key features of TQM is strong organizational leadership. In fact, quality enhancement initiatives often fail due to lack of leadership support (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009). Bolliger and Wasilik's recommendations for administrators were quite consistent with those of Green et al. (2009). Three essential features are community, compensation, and fair treatment (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009). Online communities can serve multiple purposes, from being an educational resource to fostering a sense of collegiality (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009). Bolliger and Wasilik noted that faculty members often form their own online communities. However, institutional support for the development of online professional communities shows that the school recognized and valued online instructors for their contributions to the university (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009).

Leadership and Job Satisfaction

Of the many job characteristics that affect job satisfaction for higher education faculty members, leadership style holds much promise for studies aimed at retention. Mardanov et al. (2008) stated that leadership is one of the factors that may have an impact on employee job satisfaction. Wong and Heng, (2009) asserted that intentions to leave closely related to the quality of social relationships between them and administrators.

Community college faculty. Community college administrators face unique challenges in faculty retention. Klein and Takeda-Tinker (2009) explored the impact of leadership on the job satisfaction of community college faculty. Klein and Takeda-Tinker noted that the focus of their study, the Wisconsin Technical College System

(WTCS) plays a prominent role in the state economy by increasing the earning power and employability of students who might otherwise not have access to higher education. Klein and Takeda-Tinker noted that a compelling mission drives the system. Low satisfaction on the part of college faculty may undermine the fulfillment of that mission at considerable financial and human cost (Klein & Takeda-Tinker, 2009). In Klein and Takeda-Tinker's study, all 16 colleges within the WTCS have seen an upsurge in turnover, due primarily to retirements. However, finding and keeping qualified candidates for faculty and leadership positions is a critical issue, especially as the colleges seek to improve the quality of education for their students (Klein & Takeda-Tinker, 2009). This is a challenge, as new faculty management members come from a smaller pool of qualified applicants, due to a smaller population in the workforce as those of the population boom retire (Campbell et al., 2010; Finch et al., 2010).

Leadership style of community college administrators remains a vital area of study. As the main point of their study, Klein and Takeda-Tinker (2009) considered whether a relationship existed between the satisfaction of full-time business faculty and the leadership behaviors of their direct supervisor (Klein & Takeda-Tinker, 2009). The instruments selected for the study were Spector's (2011) Job Satisfaction Survey and Kouzes and Posner's (2007) LPI. Klein and Takeda-Tinker also examined the prospective influence of demographic characteristics on the faculty members' job satisfaction and its relationship to leadership practices. A total of 215 faculty members completed the survey conducted by Klein and Takeda-Tinker; the participants were 55% female and the

majority (58%) held a master's degree. The gender composition and degree attainment are fairly representative for community college faculty (Klein & Takeda-Tinker, 2009).

The findings present a persuasive case for the association between faculty members' job satisfaction and the leadership of their direct supervisor (Klein & Takeda-Tinker, 2009). Klein and Takeda-Tinker (2009) observed a strong association between the faculty members' satisfaction with their supervision and the supervisors' use of the five practices. Specifically, the higher the level of satisfaction, the higher the ratings the respondents awarded their supervisors (Klein & Takeda-Tinker, 2009). Klein and Takeda-Tinker found that there were distinct relationships between (a) satisfaction with contingent reward leadership, communication, and promotion, and (b) the respondents' assessment of their supervisors' leadership practices. Klein and Takeda-Tinker also found that satisfaction with institutional operations, colleagues, and the nature of the work added to the relationship between satisfaction and leadership. In fact, the only measures of job satisfaction that failed to show a significant link with leadership practices were pay and benefits, which are not up to the supervisor in the heavily unionized WTCS (Klein & Takeda-Tinker, 2009). There are few such studies at 4-year or 2-year colleges (Klein & Takeda-Tinker, 2009).

Professional nursing faculty. Study of the leadership style of nursing administrators offers findings possibly unique to this discipline. Chen et al. investigated the relationship between the job satisfaction of nursing faculty and the leadership styles of their deans or directors (as cited in Cummings et al., 2009). Chen et al. (as cited in Cummings et al., 2009) used the MLQ-5X to assess leadership and the MSQ to rate job

satisfaction. Chen et al.'s study took place in Taiwan where educational institutions show dedication to improving the quality of nursing education. Chen et al. found that followers expressed less satisfaction "with the contingent reward dimension of transactional leaders and individualized consideration of transformational leaders" (as cited in Riaz & Haider, 2010, p. 30). Similarly, Jansen et al. "concluded that the transformational leadership behaviors contribute significantly to exploratory innovation, while transactional leadership behaviors facilitate improving and extending existing knowledge" (as cited in Riaz & Haider, 2010, pp. 30-31). Jansen et al. described transactional leadership as associated with exploitative innovation (as cited in Riaz & Haider, 2010). Ayman and Korabik (2010) pointed out that while transformational leadership is almost universally practiced, the behaviors displayed by transformational leaders may differ according to culture.

Active and passive leadership styles correlate conversely with job satisfaction levels. Individualized consideration and contingent reward leadership, which strongly relate to each other, acted as the main contributors to the nursing faculty members' job satisfaction, while the passive nature of *management by exception* adversely affected job satisfaction (Chen et al., as cited in Cummings et al., 2009). These three types of leadership explained most of the variance in job satisfaction. (Chel et al., as cited in Cummings et al., 2009). Management by exception is antithetical to individualized consideration (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Thus, it is not surprising that the greater extent the directors relied on passive management by exception, the less satisfied the educators were with their jobs (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Cummings et al. (2009) found "leadership

focused on task completion alone was not sufficient to achieve optimum outcomes for the

nursing workforce" (p. 1). Leaders in smaller schools exercised transformational

leadership to a greater extent than in larger schools (Cummings et al., 2009). Chen et al.

suggested it may be easier to communicate a shared vision to a smaller group (as cited in

Cummings et al., 2009). This pattern somewhat parallels the greater use of participative

leadership that Sirkis (2011) describes as observed in leaders of smaller departments.

Contingent reward leadership surpassed individualized consideration in

predicting job satisfaction. Chen et al. ascribed this effect to the hierarchical nature of

Confucian culture, which would favor, transactional leadership (as cited in Bennis et al.,

2009). However, a strong preference for a fair reward and incentive system is virtually

universal among college faculty (Bennis et al., 2009). The strong, positive influence of

contingent reward and individualized consideration, as well as the negative impact of

passive leadership styles, transcends cultural and national boundaries (Bennis et al.,

2009).

Empowerment. Baker et al. (2011) used Kanter's model of structural

empowerment as a framework for examining the job satisfaction of nursing instructors in

associate degree nursing programs. According to Kanter's theory, access to information,

resources, support, and opportunities to learn and develop are foremost among the

empowering elements that can have pronounced impact on employees' confidence, job

satisfaction, commitment, and productivity. The participants were 176 faculty members

from associates degree (ADN) programs within the California Community College

System (as cited in Baker et al., 2011). Overall, Kanter found that the nursing instructors

had a moderate degree of structural empowerment. Kanter noted that the highest scores were for the *opportunity* subscale, indicating their work was challenging, and they were able to acquire new knowledge and skills and perform tasks that allowed them to apply their knowledge and skills. At the opposite end, Kanter noted, the lowest scores were on *resources*, signifying they had insufficient time to carry out all their work. Psychological empowerment was also moderate, with the highest scores signifying that (a) their work was personally meaningful and respected and (b) they felt confident and competent in performing their work, noted Kanter. Perceptions of autonomy, control, and influence were lower (Kanter, as cited in Baker et al., 2011)

The association between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction was relatively high (Kanter, as cited in Baker et al., 2011). When, faculty respondents derived a sense of meaning, competence, autonomy, and power from their work, they expressed increased job satisfaction, noted Kanter. Empowering leaders ensures that their followers have access to structures that produce empowerment (Kanter, as cited in Baker et al., 2011). Castro, Perifian, and Bueno (2008) proposed that the positive impact of transformational leaders on job satisfaction and commitment might operate through the mechanism of psychological empowerment. Castro et al. noted that psychological empowerment mediated the effects of transformational leaders on job satisfaction and affective commitment. Baker et al. (2011) used the empowerment frameworks to examine job satisfaction in staff nurses. The juxtaposition of psychological empowerment and transformational leadership might be useful for exploring job satisfaction and commitment in academic faculty, especially given the powerful role of

autonomy in the satisfaction of academics (Baker et al., 2011). Personal meaning in work was a paramount theme in the comments of the professors interviewed by Marston and Brunetti (2009).

Turnover Intentions

As noted in the previous sections, many characteristics affect job satisfaction. Over time, job dissatisfaction leads to voluntary turnover (DeConinck, 2009). In higher education, many administrators recognize turnover as a critical issue, because a 5% increase in retention can lead to a 10% decrease in costs (Wong & Heng, 2009). The following subsections discuss topics related to turnover, including gender and ethnicity and perceived fairness; discipline-specific influences on turnover; as well as issues for research universities and community colleges.

Gender and ethnicity. Gender and race figured prominently in studies exploring faculty member turnover intentions. Cropsey et al. (2008) explored the reasons that women and minority faculty members chose to leave a School of Medicine in a survey of 166 faculty members who left the school from July 2001 to 2005. Cropsey et al. found that the three most prevalent reasons related to career or professional advancement, low salary, and issues with department leadership. For women, noted Crospey et al., issues with department chairs headed the list. At the time they left, the women and minority men were at lower ranks and with lower salaries (Crospey et al., 2008). Crospey et al. noted that women comprise roughly half the students entering medical school yet female faculty members still face an inhospitable climate. Department chairs seem to play a direct role in the attrition of female and minority faculty (Crospey et al., 2008). At the

institutional level, leadership plays an indirect but powerful role in creating a positive diversity climate (Crospey et al., 2008).

STEM disciplines. As discussed previously, discipline-specific characteristics also affect turnover intentions. Xu (2008b) examined turnover intentions and attrition among female faculty members in STEM disciplines in order to gain better insight into the underrepresentation of women faculty members in those fields. Two proposed models are the *pipeline* model and the *deficit* model, which approach the issue from the perspectives, respectively, of (a) flow of women into the sciences from grade school through graduate school with "leakages" along the way reducing the numbers, and (b) the inhospitable climate and obstacles to advancement that cause women in the sciences to leave academia (Xu, 2008b). The deficit model aligns with the empirical evidence on faculty turnover and the status of women in the academy (Xu, 2008b). Xu used data from NSOPF 1999 because the 2004 survey eliminated questions related to intentions to leave.

One proposed explanation for the underrepresentation of female faculty in STEM disciplines relates to the unsupported pipeline model. Research fails to support the idea that women place family responsibilities over work commitment (Xu, 2008b). The data showed no support for that assumption (Xu, 2008b). Xu noted that women and men reported comparable time constraints, work demands (including anticipated demands), and work commitment. The results also failed to support the idea that a "leakage" in the supply pipeline accounts for the underrepresentation of women in the STEM fields (Xu, 2008b). Women do not intend to leave their faculty positions at a higher rate than men; however, women enter STEM faculty positions in much fewer numbers (Xu, 2008b).

Based on the analysis, the most plausible explanation is that women experience negative work experiences leading to higher rates of turnover despite women and men initially having equivalent levels of commitment and intentions to stay (Xu, 2008b). The findings of Bilimoria et al. (2008) supported that conclusion. Women who enter STEM faculty positions seek supportive leadership, equal access to resources, and equal opportunities for advancement and promotions, but their expectations are often not met (Xu, 2008b). Note that the female pharmacy faculty desire the same conditions and show less likelihood of facing structural obstacles in attaining them (Spivey et al., 2009). On the other hand, female medical faculty members encounter obstacles that contribute to turnover (Cropsey et al., 2008). Thus, the recommendations of Spivey et al. (2009) for creating an equitable and positive work climate to attract and retain talented and committed pharmacy faculty members prove even more crucial for STEM departments than other departments.

Many faculty members have stated that academic institutions need to improve faculty diversity and provide greater career advancement opportunities for underrepresented groups. For example, Apostolou, Hassell, Rebele, and Watson (2010) found this result when they reviewed studies of accounting faculty regarding diversity issues and the academic environment. Apostolou et al. found that higher proportions of women and minority faculty felt that diversity issues merited attention and support. Apostolou et al. found that a majority of women and minorities stated that professional and academic organizations need to improve faculty diversity. Additionally, about one-

third of the respondents said that the diversity initiatives at their institution were ineffective (Apostolou et al., 2010).

There were definite inequities based on gender. Women accounting faculty had lower salaries and terminal degrees, less seniority, were less likely to have tenure, and were less visible in the ranks of associate and full professors (Apostolou et al., 2010). Despite the reported satisfaction with their present status by about three-quarters of the respondents, the written comments of women and the minority faculty members disclosed perceived discrimination (Apostolou et al., 2010). A slight majority of minority faculty members felt they faced barriers to advancement due to ethnic discrimination (Apostolou et al., 2010). As a consequence, Apostolou et al. noted that women and minorities showed more tendencies to express intentions to leave their present institution, and this predilection showed as more prevalent among minorities than women. It is up to the college president to exercise leadership to promote effective diversity policies and initiatives (Kezar, 2010).

Discipline-specific focus offers an avenue for addressing female attrition from STEM faculty. Xu (2008a) argued for the importance of recognizing discipline-specific factors that influence faculty turnover. Using the NSOPF:99 data, Xu identified several key factors linked with turnover and analyzed the data to investigate the extent to which these factors were stable or varied across different disciplines. Xu organized the various disciplines into clusters, and the analyses revealed patterns in each of the clusters that can be used to target efforts effectively to reduce faculty turnover. Xu noted that one recommendation for the HPL (hard/pure/life) science cluster makes the climate more

hospitable to women and minorities, particularly Asians. The distinctions lie not so much in the factors that contribute to turnover and job satisfaction (which are similar across disciplines) but in prioritizing what is most desired by faculty in that department (Xu, 2008b). For example, one department might emphasize increasing autonomy in teaching and research, while another would be improved with an increase in supportive leadership, and another department warrants more equitable opportunities for advancement (Xu, 2008a). The discipline-specific approach is potentially highly valuable given the high costs of turnover (Xu, 2008a).

A workforce shortage and a faculty shortage in the pharmaceutical field intensify the need to reduce turnover. Taylor and Berry (2008) examined turnover intentions among pharmacy faculty. There are already vacancies that remain unfilled (Spivey et al., 2009). Taylor and Berry noted that earlier research found that the main reasons for considering leaving were excessive workload, desire for new challenges, low salary, and negative relationships with colleagues and administrators. Roughly 20% of the respondents considered leaving their institution (Taylor & Berry, 2008). Taylor and Berry suggested that support from the department chair and institutional leadership are essential for promoting commitment to the institution, thus essential for decreasing turnover intensions. The leaders have the power to create conditions that facilitate satisfaction and commitment (Taylor & Berry, 2008).

Research universities. Stress factors and dissatisfaction with conditions heighten the likelihood that faculty members' will consider leaving academia, while positive fit and support decreased the likelihood of leaving. Polio, Krupat, Civian, Ash, and Brennan

(2012) investigated intentions to leave among faculty members at a large public research university. Polio et al. analyzed responses from a sample of tenured or tenure track faculty members. Polio et al. noted that, the findings support Xu's (2008a) assertion that factors driving turnover differ according to disciplines. In heavily research-oriented disciplines, Xu concluded that cutting down on committee work and faculty meetings would help reduce turnover. Excessive workload increases turnover intentions (Houston et al., 2006). These factors, along with teaching underprepared students, were all stress factors contributing to turnover intentions (Polio et al., 2012). Polio et al. noted that, higher productivity predicted intentions to leave, presumably for a more prestigious institution.

The findings indicated areas where administration can improve conditions for research opportunities to decrease turnover intentions. None of the factors related to fit, support, and satisfaction significantly correlated with considering the prospect of leaving for another institution (Polio et al., 2012). Family responsibilities and dissatisfaction with conditions—such as compensation, autonomy, workload, opportunities for advancement, and opportunities to pursue research—all heightened the probability of contemplating leaving academia (Polio et al., 2012). On the other hand, positive fit and support decreased the prospect of leaving academia (Polio et al., 2012).

Community colleges. Members of campus administration could increase faculty job satisfaction through improving elements under their control. Using structural equation modeling, Rosser and Townsend (2006) tested a model for understanding the factors underlying turnover intentions among community college faculty using data from

NSOPF:99. Rosser and Townsend selected the variables in their model specifically to capture the work environment at public 2-year colleges. Aspects of faculty work life included administrative support and facilities, professional development, and technology support (Rosser & Townsend, 2006). Job satisfaction included the intrinsic factors of faculty decision-making authority, student advising, course preparation, and workload, plus the extrinsic rewards of salary, benefits, and job security (Rosser & Townsend, 2006).

Among demographic factors, age related to satisfaction and intentions to leave. Older faculty members were more satisfied with their work and less inclined to leave (Rosser & Townsend, 2006). However, those who had been at the institution longer were less satisfied with their work (Rosser & Townsend, 2006). Rosser and Townsend noted that the quality of their work life at the institution appears to be foremost in their job satisfaction. Rosser and Townsend discovered that of the three components of faculty work life administrative support and facilities emerged as the most important. Rosser and Townsend noted that budget cuts are resulting in smaller secretarial staffs, limited funding for libraries, and larger class sizes, thereby creating conditions that are antithetical to what faculty members desire at 2-year and 4-year institutions. Rosser and Townsend surmised that these changes might play a role in the lower satisfaction of long term faculty members, especially for members previously accustomed to more favorable conditions than offered currently. Similarly, unwelcome changes appeared to account for the low satisfaction of faculty members in Australia and the U.K. (Coates et al., 2010).

Several effects of transformational leadership appear in research regarding community college administration. Transformational leaders effectively secure employees' commitment to organizational change under conditions in which the changes have a direct and dramatic impact on their work (Herold, Fedor, Caldwell, & Liu, 2008). According to Herold et al. (2008), inspiration through vision, empowerment though active involvement, and sensitivity to followers' needs combined with a commitment to justice and fairness may help employees get through a change initiative. In addition, they credit the relational aspect of transformational leadership with providing extra support amidst rampant change (Herold et al., 2008)

Community college faculty responded differently from findings for state and university faculty in a quality of work life survey. Technical support was a key factor in the quality of faculty work life, which Rosser and Townsend (2006) attributed to the widespread integration of technology into the daily life of faculty. Professional development appeared less significant when compared to technical support in the same study (Rosser & Townsend, 2006). However, Rosser and Townsend suggested that the definition of professional development might have been less relevant to community college faculty. Rosser and Townsend found that all three facets of faculty work life had a positive impact on the faculty members. On the other hand, Rosser and Townsend noted the impact of benefits and security was negligible. Rosser and Townsend stated that this was probably due to the prevalence of unionization (> 70% of the faculty members in the study held union membership). For unionized employees, salary and benefits are largely beyond the control of college administrators (Rosser & Townsend,

2006). Advising, course preparation, and workload were not highly pertinent, nor were decision-making authority and instructional autonomy (Rosser & Townsend, 2006). Community college faculty members have traditionally had less influence on decision making, and most faculty members express satisfaction with their instructional autonomy (Kim et al., 2008). Rosser and Townsend (2006) concluded that community college faculty members are essentially quite satisfied with those aspects of work life they examined. Rosser and Townsend emphasized that community college leaders need to honor the commitment of faculty members who show dedication to teaching at their institution.

Transition and Summary

There is an ample body of research on faculty job satisfaction, but relatively few studies that focus on the relationship between job satisfaction and academic leadership. This is a significant gap given that faculty members' relationships to the department chair can have a powerful impact on their satisfaction and turnover intentions (Bilimoria et al., 2008; Xu, 2008a). The department chair sets the tone for the department (Chung et al., 2010). The leadership of the chair can be a pivotal factor in the experience of women and minority faculty, who often perceive an inequitable and inhospitable climate (Chung et al., 2010). Some veteran faculty members reported that their relationships with administrators have negligible effects on their job satisfaction (Marston & Brunetti, 2009). However, Marston and Brunetti (2009) noted that their comments revealed that they simply ignore administrators that they feel are ineffective leaders. Department

chairs likely have a much stronger effect on new faculty members who need support and mentoring, and the role model for new faculty members (Marston & Brunetti, 2009).

In summary, executive leaders play an indirect but immensely powerful role in faculty job satisfaction. Most of the factors that influence faculty job satisfaction and turnover intentions are under the control of the administration. Organizational culture and climate influence factors such as fair and competitive compensation, opportunities for advancement and promotion, professional autonomy, recognition for exemplary performance, support for teaching and research, and equitable treatment. Executive management largely controls the culture and climate and thus arguably controls these factors. In terms of leader behaviors, the synthesis of transformational (individualized consideration) and transactional (contingent reward) styles closely aligns with the preferences and concerns of faculty members. These behaviors can exert a powerful impact on faculty satisfaction and commitment when exercised by administrators at the department and upper levels.

Section 2: The Project

In colleges and universities, faculty achievers often move into leadership

positions without the necessary training or knowledge about the role expectations for

such positions (Klein & Takeda-Tinker, 2009). This lack can cause difficulties in

establishing quality relations with other faculty members (Klein & Takeda-Tinker, 2009),

possibly other administrators, and even the community. Only 50% to 60% of leaders

admit to being effective in the critical leadership skills needed to foster quality relations

with employees (Newhall, 2012). Creating awareness of effective leadership models for

academic leaders may provide economic benefits to universities in the form of higher

retention rates and greater commitment to the university. Through the present study, I

attempted to increase awareness of effective leadership models for academic leaders.

This section provides a detailed description of this study's method and procedures.

Purpose Statement

Effort to curb costly faculty turnover should focus on employee job satisfaction

characteristics. Supervisory leadership is one of the factors that may have an impact on

employee job satisfaction (Mardanov et al., 2008). This potential impact largely accounts

for the greater amount of attention focused on the importance of various leadership

models. If better assessments can be made of the relationship between these factors and

overall employee satisfaction, it may be possible to align leadership strategies with

greater organizational effectiveness and efficiencies. The purpose of this quantitative

study was to determine the relationship, if any, between how faculty members evaluate

academic administrator leadership styles and their personal job satisfaction within an institution in the State University System of Florida.

Role of the Researcher

I have an affiliation with the Florida State College System, but I had no affiliation nor relationship with the State University System of Florida. Therefore, I had no affiliation with the subject university in this study. I administered the online surveys. I also collected data in a valid and reliable manner by monitoring response rates. Further, I verified that the sample of respondents accurately represents the target population's demographics. For the current study, I used job satisfaction (JSS) and leadership instruments (MLQ). Current researchers justifiably have confidence in valid results if they follow the accepted and proper use of these tools (Gill, Mand, Culpepper, Mathur, & Bhutani, 2011). Other researchers (Bass & Avolio, 2012; Batayneh & Mohammad, 2011; Darshan & Shibru, 2011) have previously demonstrated that certain components of the MLQ can be reliably tied to job satisfaction as well as perceived leadership. For the present study, I intended to maximize the validity of the findings in accordance with performance and ethical expectations relating to faculty members. Klein and Tinker (2009) and several other researchers have raised the issue of how faculty members view job performance differently, and the present study built on prior findings.

Participants

The participants selected for this study were full-time faculty members within an institution in the State University System of Florida. They included full professors, associate professors, assistant professors, instructors, and lecturers. First, I completed the

Walden University IRB application. Then, upon receiving conditional approval by

Walden University, I sought IRB approval through the subject university. Finally, I

submitted the subject university's approval to Walden for final approval consideration.

The subject university had agreed to review the IRB application submitted to Walden

University to ensure that the application contained all of the information required for the

subject university's IRB approval, which eliminated unnecessary returns. The subject

university agreed to provide a database of all full-time faculty email addresses upon both

university approvals to the researcher. In the State of Florida, faculty email addresses are

public information.

All full-time faculty members who teach within an institution in the State

University System of Florida comprised the population for this study. A large sample

size offers greater statistical strength and validity than a small sample size (Muenjohn &

Armstrong, 2008). A large sample size was manageable because (a) the data collection

procedures involved a self-administered survey and (b) the survey software allowed for

ease of data management. The data analysis software sorted the data electronically. Self-

selection determined inclusion or exclusion.

I created the survey questions and used the free online Survey Monkey software

for delivery of the survey after I received IRB approval from Walden University (see

Appendix D) and the subject university. The software generated a web link that I

emailed to all faculty members in the email dataset. The email message consisted of a

recruitment message (Appendix E) and a link to the online website where the consent

form and survey displayed. When a respondent clicked on the web link, the online

consent form appeared (see Appendix F). Participants read and accepted the terms of the

consent form by clicking an acceptance button and then proceeded to the survey. There

was no time limit on how long a participant chose to read the informed consent page.

The survey remained open for completion for 4 weeks. The consent page consisted of the

principal investigator's contact information and allowed for the opportunity to submit

questions before beginning. Since participants implied consent by proceeding past the

first page of the website, participant data were anonymous. Subjects participated from

any computer and at the time of their choosing. This made it possible to participate in a

private setting and at a time that did not bring attention to participation. Username and

password credentials unique to the survey administrator protected the online survey

platform. I did not track the IP addresses of respondents, which ensured anonymity for

the respondents. As stated further in this section, I did not collect or store identifying

information. Upon downloading the de-identified raw data for analysis in SPSS, I stored

the data on an external hard drive to be kept in a safe in my home office for a period of 5

years as required by Walden University's IRB at the time of human subject approval.

Research Method and Design

Three types of methodologies are available to researchers when conducting

studies. These methodologies are quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods

(Muenjohn & Armstrong, 2008). I gave consideration to all three methodologies during

the process of choosing a research method for this project. Because the intent was to

capture the beliefs and job satisfaction of a large number of faculty members, a

quantitative approach was the most appropriate. Belli (2008) described a classification of

research design based on purpose, which can be descriptive, predictive, or explanatory. The present study qualified as predictive, because the main usefulness of this study would be in a predictive capacity (Belli, 2008). While this limited the amount of detailed information that could be captured for any one respondent, it had the advantage of being more generalized to a larger population of faculty members in this or other Florida universities.

Method

Researchers using quantitative methods collect data from respondents and apply statistical methods to uncover patterns in the data (Schweitzer, 2009). Qualitative research, on the other hand, eschews numbers in favor of collecting detailed, descriptive information from a much smaller number of observational units (Symonds & Gorard, 2010). Additionally, Symonds and Gorard (2010) described a third method that uses various elements of quantitative and qualitative methods as the mixed methods approach to research. I initially considered each of these three methods when choosing a method for this study. For reasons described in this section, the quantitative research method appeared the best suited.

The present study qualifies as positivist in approach. Henderson (2011) described positivists as researchers who use quantitative methods to predict the relationships between variables and use observations to test predictions derived from theory. As I intended to examine the relationship between leadership styles and job satisfaction and to collect and analyze numerical data (Schweitzer, 2009), the quantitative research method was most appropriate for this study.

Research Design

The study design was correlational, with the model providing a prediction as to which variables moved up and down in parallel with the odds of satisfaction. I used logistic regression as the statistical design. Logistic regression uses a model of job satisfaction while considering control variables. The prediction resulting from a logistic regression model is either a probability or the odds of a faculty member being satisfied with his or her job. The goal of prediction is to get a significant estimate of what the value of the dependent variable will be on the basis of known independent variable values (Kawada & Yoshimura, 2012).

The results of this study relied on observational data at a point in time rather than data collected in a controlled setting (Henderson, 2011; Schweitzer, 2009). Thus, I chose a multivariate method for statistical analysis that controlled for possible confounding variables (Siemsen & Roth, 2010). This method allowed for the use of transformational, transactional, and passive avoidant leadership styles in the same model while controlling for the possible effects of the demographic variables. I chose the correlational design because the study did not need to include manipulation, treatment, or modification of the environment or participants in order to meet the research objectives (Belli, 2008). Additionally, the participants were not randomly assigned to a group or given a treatment; hence, nonexperimental design aligned with the objectives of the study (Belli, 2008). A correlational study limits the ability to assert causation (Kawada & Yoshimura, 2012). While experiments may do a better job at demonstrating a causal relationship, it is not feasible to develop an experiment that randomly assigns faculty members to

experience different leadership styles. Among all of the different possible research designs, the correlational design was the best design for understanding the relationship between leadership styles and job satisfaction.

Population and Sampling

The study sample was composed of the entire population of full-time faculty members who taught at a single institution in the State University System of Florida. The university had 567 full-time faculty members. I expected a response rate of 18%. Given the current state of the literature on online survey response rates; this was a decidedly conservative number (Miller & Dillman, 2011). The results of a recent survey study indicated that response rates were in the 42% to 59% range (Miller & Dillman, 2011). The proper selection of a population and sample size is critical to the success of a research project (Henderson, 2011). The purpose of sample size determination is to make it possible to select a population that is representative of the target population and is large enough to minimize the effects of random variation (Henderson, 2011). A response rate of 18% would yield a sample of 102. A power analysis, as discussed below, revealed this response rate to yield a sufficient sample size to find a medium effect size to be significant. A 40% response rate, closer to findings from the studies cited above, would have yielded a sample of 226, which is sufficient to uncover a small effect size (Fowler, 2008). I worked with the chosen university's faculty research sponsor to identify the optimal time for survey distribution. Survey respondents had 4 weeks to participate in the survey. I sent a reminder email after the first week and a final reminder before the last week.

The number of completed surveys returned resulted in an adequately large sample size, which met the criterion for adequate statistical power for the planned analyses. *Statistical power* refers to the probability of rejecting a null hypothesis when it is, in fact, false (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009). Because standard errors—and hence confidence intervals—are determined in part by the sample size, a power analysis can determine the number of subjects needed to yield a significant result. I relied primarily on logistic regression and thus used a power analysis to determine the necessary sample size for identifying a small, medium, or large logistic regression coefficient. The power analysis relied on the powerlog program written for Stata (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009). The power analysis used the effect size values of .1, .2, and .3 for large, medium, and small, respectively. These effect size values for this logistic regression referred to changes in the predicted probability of observing faculty member satisfaction. Because the rate of change varies in logistic regression depending on where an observation falls along the logistic curve, these values reflected a change around .5 (the center of the curve). Unlike the effect sizes described by Faul et al. (2009), there are not well-established conventions for determining what constitutes a small versus large effect size for logistic regression.

I evaluated the size of the sample required for each of the three effect sizes to achieve a power of .8 (i.e., an 80% probability of correctly rejecting the null hypothesis of no relationship) with a .05 cut-off for significance level. For the largest effect size, the required sample size is 81. For the medium effect size, the required sample size is 98.

The required number of subjects is 219 to observe the smallest effect size. In this study, 104 participants completed the survey, which was sufficient for a medium effect size.

There were no pilot data from the target population to determine which effect size to expect. Because of the online administration of the survey, the costs of adding respondents were minimal. There were 567 full-time faculty members who received an invitation to participate in the survey. With a participation rate of 18.3%, the sample size was sufficient to detect a moderate effect size. Given that previous research had found the MLQ to relate to job satisfaction (Rowold & Schlotz, 2009), I expected a minimum effect size of 0.1, where as previously discussed, effect size is the change in predicted probability.

Ethical Research

I invited full-time faculty at a state university to participate in this study. Participants received a link to the online survey, which began with a consent form (see Appendix F). I provided a description of the purpose of the study, the selection process for the participants, sample questions from the survey, the voluntary nature of the study, risks and benefits to being in the study, incentives, the privacy policy, IRB contact information, and my contact information.

Each participant gave implied consent to the terms described in the consent form by clicking the link at the end of the online consent form to proceed to the survey. The informed consent form stated that (a) each participant, at any time during the survey, may decide not to continue, and (b) this decision will have no consequence for the participant.

I did not collect IP addresses. In addition, indirect identification on the basis of combining demographic data was nearly impossible, given that I collected little demographic information. I included only three demographic variables in the survey: gender, tenure status, and ethnicity. I coded each of these variables dichotomously, ensuring the anonymity of each subject's characteristics.

The informed consent also summarized the risks to the subject, which were minimal. Specifically, the identified risks were the possibility of experiencing stress or fatigue, or of becoming upset. There were no anticipated economic or physical risks. There was no incentive or compensation for completing the study; however, individual participants might benefit to the extent that the study findings may contribute to social change by creating awareness of effective leadership models and job satisfaction in Florida universities. These benefits far outweighed any risks involved in participating in the survey, which were no more than what one might experience in daily life, and they accrued to all faculty members equally. To minimize the risks, subjects who experienced these symptoms could drop out of the survey at any time. It was not likely that the symptoms would be severe enough to require follow-up care. There was no explicit or implicit coercion involved in the data collection. All participation was voluntary, and there were no consequences for not participating. I did not have any relationship with the subjects and, therefore, I was not in any position of authority over them. The sample participants included university faculty with no further exclusion criteria applied. Being highly educated and familiar with the ethics of research, this is a group that is not typically considered vulnerable. It was possible that some subjects would have a

disability, but screening for this information would be overly invasive given the scope of the research questions.

I kept raw data secure on a password-protected external drive. I will keep records of raw data for a period of at least 5 years as required by Walden University. No person accessed identifiable raw data, as I did not collect identifying information

Data Collection

Instruments

The study made use of three survey instruments. This included the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Form 5x-Short, Spector's Job Satisfaction Survey, and a brief demographic survey.

The MLQ-5x is a 45-item questionnaire that takes into consideration seven areas when assessing a leader's behavior (Bass & Avolio, 2012). These areas are intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, contingent reward, and laissez-faire behaviors. According to the operational definition for the present study, a leader displays transformational leadership behaviors when he or she scores highly with regards to individualized consideration and motivation factors (Bass & Avolio, 2012). A five-point frequency rating scale uses the following numerical scale: 0 = *not at all*, 1 = *once in a while*, 2 = *sometimes*, 3 = *fairly often*, and 4 = *frequently, if not always*. The values of the choices that matched up to each construct combine to formulate the average for each construct.

The MLQ-5x contained several subscales that can be combined to arrive at scores for the different leadership types. The analysis involved combining the following

subscales to measure transformational leadership: (a) idealized attributes, (b) idealized behaviors, (c) inspirational motivation, (d) intellectual stimulation, and (e) individualized consideration (Bass & Avolio, 2012).

Each of these subscales consisted of four questions. According to the operational definition for the present study, transformational leadership equated to the average score across the 20 questions that comprised the five subscales.

The transactional leadership score depended on answers to the following MLQ-5x subscales: (a) contingent rewards and (b) management by exception (active). Both subscales consisted of four questions each. The average across the eight items equated to the score for transactional leadership.

The final management style considered was passive/avoidant, as measured by combining the following subscales: (a) management by exception (passive) and (b) laissez-faire. Both again consisted of four questions each, yielding a total of eight questions on the MLQ-5x. The MLQ-5x combined the questions to constitute the complete scale. The score for passive/avoidant leadership equated to the average across these eight items.

Determination of the scores to input in the model for each leadership style required the average of the subscales across each leadership style. For each respondent, these scores determined an average score for transformational, transactional, and passive/avoidant leadership traits. The higher score indicated the dominant trait than the lower score.

The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) is a measurement tool designed by

Paul Spector. Spector (2011) allows researchers to use his survey for non-commercial educational or research purposes as long as the researchers share their results with him. The Job Satisfaction Survey assesses how employees feel about their job and assesses their attitudes towards aspects of their job (Spector, 2011). The questionnaire yielded an overall job satisfaction scale that used all of the items in the survey (Spector, 2011). In addition, I scored nine facets on the basis of a subset of the questions (Spector, 2011). These facets were satisfaction with pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, coworkers, nature of work, and communication (Spector, 2011).

Following Spector's (2011) instructions, I initially measured job satisfaction as the average score across all 36 items. As each item response corresponded to a 6-point Likert scale, the resulting average fell between 1 and 6 (Spector, 2011). Spector (2011) included some negatively worded items; these required reverse coding before calculating the average.

In addition, Spector (2011) also noted that it is possible to divide scores between *satisfied* and *dissatisfied*. Spector's recommended approach is to code average scores from one to three as dissatisfied, from three to four as *ambivalent*, and from four through six as *satisfied*. To allow for the use of logistic regression, the *ambivalent* category required demarcation of a half point such that those scoring 3.5 and above qualified as *satisfied,* and those below 3.5 qualified as *dissatisfied.*

I coded the responses from a brief demographic survey using the following dummy variables: gender as 0 for males and 1 for females, tenure status as 0 for non-

tenured and 1 for tenured, and ethnicity as 0 for White and 1 for non-White (i.e., racial or ethnic minority).

Data Collection Technique

I used Survey Monkey for collecting the responses to survey questions since the developers of this survey platform offered this software free to the public, and it was easily accessible. I inserted the survey questions from the Multifactor Leadership Questionairre-5X, Job Satisfaction Survey, and Demographic Survey into Survey Monkey. The purpose of the demographic survey was to gather information on gender, tenure status, and ethnicity.

The invitation to participate in the survey informed participants that they had four weeks to complete the survey. I sent a reminder email after the first week and third week to those faculty members initially invited to participate in the survey. I then exported the data into the statistical software SPSS for analysis. The survey displayed demographic questions first, followed by the job satisfaction questions, and then lastly the leadership style questions. I expected this ordering to eliminate potential bias in the participants' responses. Conversely, answering the leadership questions before responding to job satisfaction questions would possibly predispose respondents to allowing the leadership issues to influence responses to job satisfaction. Participants could not backtrack to responded answers.

Data Organization Techniques

I used Survey Monkey software to collect data then exported it into an SPSS file (Faul et al., 2009). The data organization and tracking features allow researchers to

download results in a variety of formats. Subsequently, I stored the de-identified data on an external hard drive located in the researcher's home office for a period of 5 years, and then disposed of it by deleting the file.

Data Analysis Technique

Survey Monkey software provided an export feature to create a file that imported data into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences software (SPSS). I used SPSS to analyze the data. First, using the demographic data, I applied descriptive statistics to determine how the participants related to the questions of gender, tenure status, and ethnicity. Second, I conducted a reliability analysis on the two instruments to ensure an acceptable amount of measurement error in the scales for the population of interest. I reported Cronbach's alpha. If the numbers came in below .75, I removed individual items that reduced the reliability. After achieving a satisfactory level of reliability, I calculated scale scores by averaging across the constituent items.

The primary hypothesis sought to determine the possibility of predicting the probability of being satisfied versus unsatisfied on the basis of each independent variable. With a dichotomous variable, logistic regression was more appropriate than multiple linear regression (Kawada & Yoshimura, 2012). The job satisfaction literature used logistic regression extensively as a statistical method appropriate for dichotomous dependent variables such as *satisfied* versus *dissatisfied* (Kawada & Yoshimura, 2012; Morrow, McElroy, & Scheibe, 2012); Villotti, Corbiere, Zaniboni, & Fraccaroli, 2012). The purpose of the method was to find how strongly an independent variable affected the probability of observing a success (i.e., an outcome coded 1 rather than 0) after

controlling for other possible confounding variables. Although qualifying as a nonlinear

model of probabilities, the logistic regression equation consists of a linear model of the

log *odds of being satisfied* over *odds of being dissatisfied* (Siemsen & Roth, 2010). In

other words, this model defines odds as the ratio of the probability of being satisfied to

the probability of being dissatisfied. The model states the logistic regression equation

thus:

$$\log\left(\frac{\text{pr(satisfied)}}{1 - \text{pr(satisfied)}}\right) = \alpha + \beta_1(\text{transformational leadership})$$

$$+ \beta_2(\text{transactional leadership}) + \beta_3(\text{passive/avoidant leadership})$$

$$+ \beta_4(\text{gender}) + \beta_5(\text{tenure status}) + \beta_6(\text{ethnicity})$$

The coefficients can be interpreted in terms of odds ratios, which represent the

amount of change in the odds given a unit change in the independent variable. I had to

raise *e* (the base of natural logarithm) to the power of the coefficient in order to find the

odds ratio. For example, if β_1 were equal to .25, then the odds ratio would be $e^{.25} =$

1.284. This indicates that for each increase of one on the transformational leadership

style score I would expect the odds of reporting satisfaction to increase by 28.4%. Note

that an odds ratio greater than one implies the odds of reporting satisfaction have

increased in the independent variable, while an odds ratio between 0 and 1 indicates that

the odds have decreased. An odds ratio equal to one exactly implies no change.

I tested the coefficients for significance using a *t* test. Dividing the coefficient by

its standard error produced a *t* statistic that could be evaluated along with the *t*

distribution to determine if the coefficient differed significantly from 0. I used a significance level of .05 for a two-tailed test to classify significance.

Each estimated coefficient can be interpreted as the expected change in the log odds for a one-unit change in the respective independent variable while holding the other variables constant. This makes it possible to take into account possible overlapping effects of other variables in the model, thereby controlling for possible rival explanations. For example, I anticipated that those scoring higher on the transformational leadership scale would more likely express satisfaction with their jobs. If, however, females were to show more likelihood to qualify as transformational leaders *and* were more likely to express satisfaction with their jobs, this would indicate the possibility of a spurious bivariate relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction. I included gender in the model, which controlled for this possibility.

I evaluated the model both for the significance of the coefficients and the overall model fit. I presented the odds ratios (that is, exp[beta]) along with standard errors and *p*-values. I tested each of the null hypotheses using the respective odds ratios and *p*-values. I rejected the null hypotheses if a *p*-value of less than .05 resulted.

I evaluated the model for overall fit. SPSS reports several pseudo-R^2s as logistic regression analogs to the "variance explained" R^2 of multiple regression (Siemsen & Roth, 2010). These can range in value from 0 (bad model fit) to 1 (perfect model fit). For completeness, I reported all three. After fitting the regression model, I dropped any non-significant predictors then refit the model. I examined the model's goodness of fit to determine if dropping the non-significant variables in any way altered the model fit.

In addition, the study identified the predominant leadership style according to the leadership scale yielding the highest value. Thus, if a respondent scored a 3.25 on the transformational leadership scale, a 4.2 on the transactional leadership scale, and a 2.8 on the passive/avoidant scale, then the style for that respondent's supervisor was transactional. Identifying the most salient scale made it possible to determine which leadership style was associated with the most satisfied faculty member. This allowed for answering the primary research questions of the leadership style-satisfaction relationship and complemented the logistic regression models that answered the sub-questions.

Reliability and Validity

At every stage of their research, researchers should actively anticipate and address each dilemma that may occur (Henderson, 2011). Variations in the planned protocol can affect reliability and validity, so I reviewed any necessary or unavoidable changes in light of their potential effect on reliability and validity. The data collection instruments show consistent psychometric properties. The developers of both instruments normed the surveys on a variety of populations. This helps allay internal validity concerns that the survey measures might not assess the concepts considered the focus of the proposed study.

Reliability

Reliability refers to the consistency of a measure when given repeatedly under the same conditions (Fowler, 2008). If a scale has high reliability, then it will yield the same result today as it would yield tomorrow. In other words, the reliability of the scale does

not suffer from a great degree of measurement errors, or so-called noise, which would cause the scale to yield inconsistent results on repeated applications.

Researchers applied the two instruments extensively in other contexts, suggesting that researchers consider their reliability acceptable. Several published studies affirm the reliability and construct validity of the MLQ instrument (Bass et al., 2006; Muenjohn & Armstrong, 2008). Likewise, past studies have thoroughly evaluated the job satisfaction survey for psychometric properties (Spector, 2011), with reliability scores consistently above .75.

When presenting the results, I reported Cronbach's alphas for the scales and subscales used to answer the research question. Assuming that university faculty members are not a unique population relative to other groups to which past researchers have applied these scales, I expected the reliabilities to exceed .75. Three of the scales—transformational leadership, passive/avoidant leadership, and job satisfaction—had high reliabilities as presented in Section 3. The transactional leadership scale, however, had a reliability of only .622 for the dataset used. I removed two items from the transactional leadership scale in order to improve the reliability. Removing these two questions, which are identified in Section 3, increased the reliability score to a more acceptable .758.

Validity

Internal validity refers to the confidence with which I can say the hypothesized causal mechanism has produced variation on the dependent variable (Fowler, 2008). External validity refers to the extent to which the findings generalize to other samples in different contexts (Fowler, 2008). Researchers often find a trade-off between the two

(Fowler, 2008). According to Fowler, an experimental setting gives the researcher strong control over the intervention, and hence high confidence that the independent variable indeed produced change in the dependent variable. On the other hand, Fowler (2008) also stated that artificial laboratory settings allow less clarity in social science research.

Since this study utilized observational data, it showed relatively high external validity as compared to its internal reliability (Fowler, 2008). In terms of internal validity, it is not possible to randomly assign one half of the sample to a transactional leader group and the other to a transformational leader group (Fowler, 2008). Thus, the causal arrow must be assumed to point from leadership style to job satisfaction. The emphasis is on the word *assumed*, since correlational studies are notoriously weak in their ability to demonstrate causation (Kawada & Yoshimura, 2012). Nonetheless, the alternative scenario—that job satisfaction among employees determines leadership styles—seemed less likely to be true. Hence, although I acknowledge limits to the internal validity, I may justifiably deem the causal inferences drawn from the results as fairly strong (Fowler, 2008).

With a sample drawn from a public university in Florida, the results may generalize to other public universities in Florida, as they are part of the same state system. For private schools, with their own sources of funding and their own campus cultures, the results may not generalize.

The research should be of interest to academic researchers who study the correlates of job satisfaction, but key stakeholders—such as university faculty and administrators—may also be interested in how the findings can contribute to improving

the work environment and faculty retention. Therefore, I will present the findings in two ways, each appropriate for the respective target audience. In the case of researchers, I will present the results through the usual avenues for disseminating research findings, namely through conference presentations and journal articles. I expect that the discussion of these findings presented for researchers will be longer and more technical in presentation than the papers presented to professional stakeholders. In the latter case, an executive summary consisting of one to two pages outlining key results and recommendations will be made available to university employees who may be interested. The purpose of the executive summary is to provide concise and applicable suggestions for improving job satisfaction rates on the basis of the findings.

Transition and Summary

I intended for this study design to reveal how perceived leadership styles, as perceived by faculty, impact job satisfaction among university faculty. This section described the sample and data collection methods, which involved sampling university faculty and administering surveys that I analyzed quantitatively. I analyzed responses by correlating different subscales from the MLQ leadership instrument with job satisfaction as well as through logistic regression. In this section, I reviewed the reliability of the instruments and discussed the trade-off between internal and external validity. In the next section, I turn to the results of the analysis.

Section 3: Application to Professional Practice and Implications for Change

In this section, I outline the findings of the study, describe the applications to professional practice, examine the implications for social change, and make recommendations for actions. I conclude with recommendations for action, recommendations for further research, and my personal reflections.

Overview of Study

The purpose of this correlational study was to examine the relationship between perceived academic administrator leadership styles and job satisfaction of full-time faculty members. The design of the study was correlational and nonexperimental. The independent variables were the transformational, transactional, and passive/avoidant leadership styles of academic administrators as evaluated by faculty members. The dependent variable was job satisfaction of full-time faculty members.

I sought to answer the following primary research question and secondary questions:

Primary Research Question 1: What is the relationship between perceived administrator leadership styles and job satisfaction of faculty members?

Secondary Research Question 2: What is the relationship between perceived transformational leadership styles and job satisfaction of faculty members?

Secondary Research Question 3: What is the relationship between perceived transactional leadership styles and job satisfaction of faculty members?

Secondary Research Question 4: What is the relationship between perceived passive/avoidant leadership styles and job satisfaction of faculty members?

I answered the research questions by testing the following hypotheses:

$H1_o$: There is no significant relationship between leadership styles and job satisfaction of faculty members.

$H1_a$: There is a significant relationship between leadership styles and job satisfaction of faculty members.

$H2_o$: There is no significant relationship between perceived transformational leadership styles and job satisfaction of faculty members.

$H2_a$: There is a significant relationship between perceived transformational leadership styles and job satisfaction of faculty members.

$H3_o$: There is no significant relationship between perceived transactional leadership styles and job satisfaction of faculty members.

$H3_a$: There is a significant relationship between perceived transaction leadership styles and job satisfaction of faculty members.

$H4_o$: There is no significant relationship between perceived passive/avoidant leadership styles and job satisfaction of faculty members.

$H4_a$: There is a significant relationship between perceived passive/avoidant leadership styles and job satisfaction of faculty members.

The findings were that at the .05 significance level, leadership style is associated with faculty job satisfaction. First, faculty whose administrators' leadership style was transformational were highly likely to be satisfied, whereas faculty with passive/avoidant leaders tended to be dissatisfied. The transactional leadership style scores varied across the job satisfaction scale, though with more dissatisfied than satisfied faculty. Therefore,

I answered the primary research question and found support for the corresponding

alternative hypothesis. Analyses of the logistic regression models that considered only

one leadership style at a time answered all of the secondary research questions by testing

for significance at the .05 level. The rejection of each of the null hypotheses resulted in

acceptance of the corresponding alternative hypotheses that a significant relationship

does exist between leadership style and job satisfaction.

Presentation of the Findings

The presentation of findings includes descriptive statistics to describe the

demographics of the sample as well as the averages for participant responses to scale

items. Reliability tests confirmed the adequacy of the scales used. Results of the data

analysis to answer the research questions and test the hypotheses are in written

descriptions as well as in table format.

Descriptive Statistics for Sample Population

I received survey responses from 104 faculty members whose demographics are

summarized in Table 1. Of the respondents, 52.9% ($n = 55$) were male, while 47.1% ($n =$

49) were female. Most of the respondents (93.3%, $n = 97$) were White; the remainder

(6.7%, $n = 7$) were grouped together in the non-White category. More than half, 62.5%

($n = 65$), had tenure, while the remaining 37.5% ($n = 39$) did not.

Males were overrepresented in the sample relative to their numbers in the

population. Among all faculty, 45% ($N = 256$) are male, whereas 55% ($N = 311$) are

female. In addition, non-White respondents are underrepresented, with the percentage of

non-White faculty in the population being 16.9% ($N = 96$). Finally, tenured faculty

members were overrepresented in the sample. The percentage of tenured faculty in the

population was 47% ($N = 268$), whereas 53% ($N = 299$) were not tenured.

Table 1

Sample Demographics

Variable	Categories	Frequency	Percent
Gender			
	Male	55	52.9
	Female	49	47.1
Ethnicity			
	Non-White	7	6.7
	White	97	93.3
Tenure status			
	Non-tenured	39	37.5
	Tenured	65	62.5

Note. N $= 104$.

Although the sample did not perfectly represent the population, the effects of

these deviations from the population distributions were minimal for the statistical models

reported. The final results table presented a model that estimated the leadership-

satisfaction connection while controlling for these demographics. The coefficients

represent the size of the effect under study, not affected by any differences in gender,

ethnicity, or tenure status.

Reliability Tests of Scales

I invited respondents to complete the MLQ-5 and job satisfaction surveys. The MLQ-5 survey contained several subscales covering different types of leadership styles including transformational, transactional, and passive/avoidant (Bass & Avolio, 2012). Table 2 contains the calculated reliabilities for each of the subscales along with the reliability for the undivided job satisfaction scale. The type of reliability reported is Cronbach's alpha. Cronbach's alpha is a measure that varies from 0 to 1. This reliability measurement indicates the extent to which the individual scale items are consistently measuring the same concept (Fowler, 2008). Low levels of alpha mean that the scale contains quite a bit of error, while levels that approach 1 indicate that the scale measures the concept with relatively little error. Three of the scales—transformational leadership, passive/avoidant leadership, and job satisfaction—have high reliabilities.

Table 2

Scale Reliabilities

Scale	Cronbach's Alpha
Transformational leadership	0.974
Transactional leadership (Full)	0.622
Transactional leadership (Short)	0.758
Passive/avoidant leadership	0.900
Job satisfaction	0.944

The highest value of Cronbach's alpha is .974 for transformational leadership, followed by .944 for the job satisfaction scale, and .900 for the passive/avoidant scale. The transactional leadership scale, however, had a reliability of only .622 for the dataset used. I removed two items from the transactional leadership scale in order to improve the reliability. These items were (a) MLQ.35— Expresses satisfaction when others meet expectations and (b) MLQ.24—Keeps track of all mistakes. Removing the two questions increased the reliability score to a more acceptable .758. I used this shortened version of the transactional leadership scale in the analysis that follows.

Descriptive Statistics for Responses to Scale Items

Table 3 contains the summary statistics for the scales that result from taking means across the constituent scale items. The transformational leadership scale ranges from 1.16 up to 5.0 with a mean of 3.771 (SD = 1.013). The short version of the transactional leadership scale (after dropping the two items) ranged from 1.0 to 4.75 with a mean of 1.904 (SD = .883).

Table 3

Scale Descriptive Statistics

Scale	Min	Max	*M*	*SD*
Transformational leadership	1.16	5.00	3.771	1.013
Transactional leadership (Short)	1.00	4.75	1.904	0.883
Passive/avoidant leadership	1.50	5.00	3.332	0.814
Job satisfaction	1.00	5.00	3.942	1.295

Scores on the passive/avoidant scale ranged from 1.50 up to 5.0 with an average of 3.332 (SD = .814). The job satisfaction scale ranged from 1 to 5 with an average of 3.942 (SD = 1.295). In the statistical analysis that follows, I dichotomized job satisfaction scores such that values greater than 3.5 indicated satisfaction and values less than or equal to 3.5 indicated dissatisfaction. As reflected in Table 4, this categorical coding of job satisfaction resulted in 67.3% (n = 70) of respondents falling into the satisfied category, while the remaining 32.7% (n = 34) fell into the dissatisfied category.

Table 4

Job Satisfaction and Dominant Leadership Type Frequencies

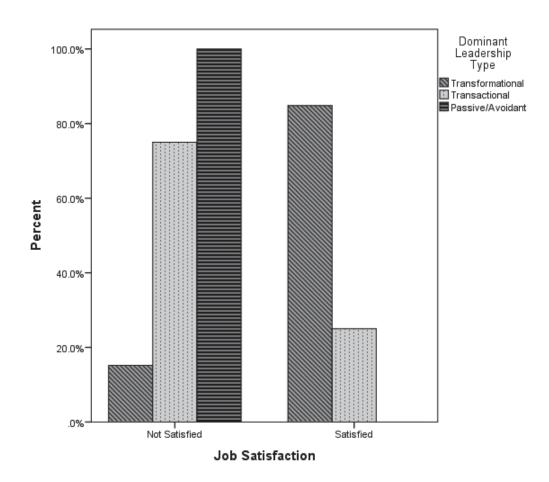| Variable	Categories	Frequency	Percent
Job satisfaction			
	Satisfied	34	32.7
	Dissatisfied	70	67.3
Dominant leadership type			
	Transformational	79	76.0
	Transactional	8	7.7
	Passive/avoidant	12	11.5
	Multiple	5	4.8

In addition, a dominant leadership style variable emerged by identifying the leadership scale having the highest score. By far the most dominant style reported was

transformational, which was the scale with the highest value for 76% ($n = 79$) of

respondents. The second most common was passive/avoidant, which was the dominant

type reported for 11.5% ($n = 12$) of respondents. Least common was transactional

leadership, with only 7.7% ($n = 8$) of the sample reporting this type of leadership as most

dominant. The remaining 4.8% ($n = 5$) of respondents did not identify a single

identifiable salient leadership type.

Primary Research Question Data Analysis and Outcomes

I answered the primary research question on the relationship between perceived

administrator leadership styles and job satisfaction of faculty members. Prior to

answering the specific secondary questions related to each of the leadership styles, I used

Figure 1 to display the levels of job satisfaction by the dominant leadership type as

identified in Table 4. The numbers along the vertical axis correspond to the percentage

of subjects in the respective dominant leadership group that fell into each satisfaction

category.

The figure shows a clear pattern. No subjects who identified passive/avoidant as

the dominant leadership style fell into the satisfied category. On the other hand, most of

the respondents who identified transformational leadership as the dominant style fell into

the satisfied category. Specifically, 15.2% ($n = 12$) of employees with transformational

supervisors were dissatisfied, while the other 84.8% ($n = 67$) were satisfied. The

employees with transactional leaders tended to be dissatisfied, though some did fall into

the satisfied category. Of these respondents, 75% ($n = 6$) were dissatisfied, while the

remaining 25% ($n = 2$) were satisfied.

Figure 1. Job satisfaction by dominant leadership type.

A chi-square test of independence showed that these differences are statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 43.711$, $df = 2$, $p < .001$). The effect size, Cramer's *V*, was .664, which is large according to conventional standards (Fowler, 2008). In other words, job satisfaction appears to vary with leadership style in a manner that is both statistically and substantively significant, so the null hypothesis was rejected for Primary Research Question 1.

Secondary Research Questions Data Analysis and Outcomes

The previous analysis for the primary research question offers evidence for an affirmative answer and rejection of the null hypothesis of the primary research question. Additionally, I examined the relationship between each individual leadership subscale and satisfaction in order to answer the remaining secondary questions. Tables 5 and 6 present results of logistic regression models. In these models, the dichotomized job satisfaction variable is the outcome and the different leadership styles are predictors. The tables also display the effects of demographics on job satisfaction.

Table 5 reflects the bivariate relationships and presents results of separate models that include each predictor as the sole independent variable. The intent is to demonstrate the unadjusted relationship that is present before controlling for other confounders. Table 6 then includes all of the variables simultaneously. The purpose of Table 6 results was to answer the following questions: (a) does one leadership style dominate the others in predicting job satisfaction, and (b) do significant bivariate relationships existing between leadership style and satisfaction disappear after controlling for demographics?

Table 5 first presents the bivariate relationships. The bivariate relationships between each of the leadership styles and job satisfaction were highly significant. The coefficients in the table are the untransformed coefficients from the logistic regression model that represent the amount of expected change in the log of the odds of satisfaction for a one-unit change in the predictor (Fowler, 2008). The standard errors correspond to these untransformed coefficients from the logistic regression model. The Wald test evaluated whether the coefficient of the null hypothesis is 0, and the *p*-value column

showed the significance of the test. The final column contains odds ratios, which is an interpretable transformation of the coefficient. Odds ratios greater than 1 mean that, for each unit increase in the independent variable, the odds of being satisfied increase by 100*(odds ratio – 1)%. Odds ratios less than 1 indicated that the odds of being satisfied decrease by 100*(1 – odds ratio)%.

Table 5

Logistic Regressions: Single Independent Variable

Variable	B	SE	Wald	df	p	OR
Gender (female = 1)	.179	.420	.182	1	.670	1.196
Ethnicity (non-White = 1)	1.091	.795	1.885	1	.170	2.978
Tenure (non-tenured = 1)	-.332	.440	.569	1	.451	.717
Transformational leadership	4.109***	.968	18.017	1	.000	60.905
Transactional leadership (short)	2.552***	.506	25.426	1	.000	12.831
Passive/avoidant leadership	-2.310***	.440	27.633	1	.000	.099

Note. Each row is a separate logit model containing only the respective predictor.

*** $p < .001$

Demographics. The results showed that demographics do not appear to matter as predictors of satisfaction. According to the last column in Table 5, the odds of being satisfied were 19.6% higher for females compared to males, but this was not statistically

significant (B = .179, SE = .420, p = .670). In addition, the odds of being satisfied were

nearly three times higher for non-Whites compared to Whites, but this was again non-

significant when compared to Whites (B = 1.091, SE = .795, p = .170. The odds of being

satisfied were 28.3% lower for non-tenured faculty, but the difference was not significant

(B = -.332, SE = .440, p = .451). Although the sample is not perfectly representative, the

effects of these deviations from the population distributions were minimal for the

statistical models reported below because the model controlled for these variables. The

final results table reflects data for a model that estimated the leadership-satisfaction

connection while controlling for these demographics.

Secondary Research Question 2. In secondary research question 2, I asked

whether there is a significant relationship between transformational leadership styles and

faculty member job satisfaction. For each one-unit increase on the transformational

leadership scale, the odds of being satisfied increased 60-fold, an effect that was clearly

significant (B = 4.109, SE = .968, p < .001). Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected

for this research question.

Secondary Research Question 3. In secondary research question 3, I asked

whether there is a significant relationship between transactional leadership styles and

faculty member job satisfaction. The size of the bivariate relationship between

transactional leadership and job satisfaction was not quite as substantial as with

transformational leadership, though it was still large. Each unit increase on the

transactional leadership scale leads to a nearly 13-fold increase in the odds of being

satisfied. The result was again highly significant ($B = 2.552$, $SE = .506$, $p < .001$).

Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected for this research question.

Secondary Research Question 4. In secondary research question 4, I asked

whether there is a significant relationship between passive/avoidant leadership styles and

faculty member job satisfaction. Once again, the result was highly significant ($B = -$

2.310, $SE = .440$, $p < .001$). Each unit increase on the passive/avoidant scale leads to a

90% decrease in the odds of being satisfied. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected

for this research question.

Multivariate relationships. The results displayed in Table 6 reflect the full

model which simultaneously included all of the independent variables. Using a two-

sided alpha level of .05 as the cut-off for significance, all of the demographic variables

remained non-significant. The odds ratio estimate of 23.179 for ethnicity is extremely

large, but this result should be interpreted carefully given the small number of non-White

respondents (see Table 1). The tenure variable approaches significance (that is, it would

be significant in a one-tailed test, $B = -2.331$, $SE = 1.265$, $p = .078$). The odds that a non-

tenured faculty member is satisfied are 89.3% lower relative to a tenured faculty member.

Still, holding to the .05 significance level criterion, it is not possible to state there are

significant differences in satisfaction between tenured and non-tenured faculty.

Turning to the leadership style variables, it is clear that the transformational

leadership style contains most of the predictive power. Each unit increase on the

transformational leadership scale lead to a 63-fold increase in the odds of being satisfied,

a result that is easily significant ($B = 4.150$, $SE = 1.429$, $p = .004$).

Table 6

Logistic Regression: Full Model

Variable	B	SE	Wald	df	p	OR
Gender (female = 1)	.620	.952	.425	1	.514	1.860
Ethnicity (non-White = 1)	3.143	1.804	3.034	1	.082	23.179
Tenure (non-tenured = 1)	-2.231	1.265	3.114	1	.078	.107
Transformational leadership	4.150**	1.429	8.438	1	.004	63.412
Transactional leadership (Short)	-.754	.630	1.432	1	.231	.471
Passive/avoidant leadership	.101	1.080	.009	1	.926	1.106
Constant	-15.343	5.780	7.047	1	.008	.000
Nagelkerke R^2	0.823					
Cox & Snell R^2	0.590					

At the same time, the other two leadership types lost their significance, and their coefficients even reverse sign (transactional leadership: B = -.754, SE = .630, p = .231; passive/avoidant: B = .101, SE = 1.080, p = .926). The change in sign was likely attributable to the fact that transformational leadership accounted for any relationship previously observed between these other leadership types and job satisfaction. Thus, controlling for transformational leadership, the true relationship between the other leadership types and job satisfaction is 0, and the coefficient estimates reflected nothing

more than sampling variability. The model fit statistics were quite large. The Nagelkerke R2 is .823, and the Cox and Snell R2 was .590 (Fowler, 2008). These measures are analogues to the R2 from linear regression (Fowler, 2008), and as such they indicated extremely high predictive power on the basis of the model.

Summary of Results

In the primary research question, I asked what the relationship is between administrator leadership styles and faculty member job satisfaction. Regarding dominant leadership types, clearly the respondents working under transformational leaders were most satisfied. Respondents working under passive/avoidant leaders were least satisfied. These differences were statistically and substantively significant according to a chi-square test (Fowler, 2008). This result confirms past research claiming that the most effective leaders use both transformational and transactional leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Yukl & Mahsud, 2010).

By far the most dominant style reported was transformational, and the second most dominant style reported was transactional. This confirms an earlier finding by Jones and Rudd's (2008) survey that as a group the deans or program directors in colleges and universities tended to prefer transformational leadership, also making use of transactional leadership. Leaders in Jones and Rudd's (2008) study exhibited the transactional leadership style least often, as is true for the passive/avoidant leadership style in the present study.

Examining the relationship between the leadership style scales and job satisfaction, the bivariate results showed that the unadjusted associations were significant

for all leadership types. Higher scores on transformational and transactional leadership scales increased the odds of being satisfied, while higher scores on the passive/avoidant scale meant less satisfaction than transformational or transaction scores. Demographics did not appear to matter.

Examining a full multivariate model, transformational leadership reflected as the dominant predictor of job satisfaction. Rowold and Scholtz (2009) study exhibited this same outcome, with transformational leadership as the dominant factor in relating to job satisfaction. Both transactional and passive/avoidant leadership lost their significance after controlling for transformational leadership, whereas the transformational leadership style remained a statistically and substantively significant predictor of job satisfaction.

Applications for Professional Practice

Faculty members play a vital role in the success of higher education institutions (Cordeiro, 2010). Increased job satisfaction and better retention of faculty reduce the need for costly faculty selection and hiring, and higher retention adds financial stability to the institution (Froesche & Sinkford, 2009). Faculty job satisfaction and its relationship to retention in higher education are business related issues, as a 5% increase in retention can lead to a 10% reduction in costs (Wong & Heng, 2009). A similar increase in retention can further result in substantial productivity increases, to as much as 65% (Wong & Heng, 2009).

University leaders represent a crucial element of job satisfaction (Wong & Heng, 2009), and consequently, they directly affect faculty turnover in higher education institutions. As the State University System of Florida is in the process of launching the

New Florida Initiative, enrollments will likely increase across all universities within the

system (State University System of Florida, 2012). This increased enrollment may result

in rapid transformation of leadership positions because of the need for larger numbers

teaching faculty (Lawrence & Bell, 2012). As this happens, faculty leaders will have

greater responsibility and/or create more faculty leadership positions. This creates an

opportunity for top college and university administrators to (a) communicate the

expectation that leaders cultivate faculty job satisfaction and (b) assist faculty leaders in

this effort by instructing them regarding research-based effective leadership models.

The results of the study indicated that higher scores on the transformational and

transactional leadership scales increased the odds of faculty members of the university

being satisfied while higher scores on the passive/avoidant leadership scale decreased the

odds of the faculty being satisfied. Therefore, the results of this study provided a model

for administrators to predict how their leadership styles will impact job satisfaction of

faculty members.

Implications for Social Change

Whether the results of a study closes the existing research and practice depends

upon the degree of a research study's significance for practical application. Higher

education is one of the central drivers of positive social change, and the quality of social

progress directly depends upon the quality of higher education in the United States

(Billiger & Wasilik, 2009). The study results identified effective leadership models in

higher education and raises public awareness of their importance in public state

universities. This knowledge enables higher education professionals to enhance their

leadership style decisions and, consequently, drive positive social change. The faculty of higher education institutions performs vital functions in society. The faculty can cultivate aptitudes and attitudes in the brightest young minds that can foster needed cultural change in society. Faculty can do this most effectively when their department heads provide responsive leadership that enables them to employ their ideas and talents.

Recommendations for Action

The results of this study showed the significance of the relationship between transformational, transactional, and passive/avoidant leadership styles and job satisfaction. These results may be of interest to academic researchers who study the correlates of job satisfaction, but key stakeholders, such as university faculty and administrators, may also be interested in how the findings can contribute to improving the work environment and faculty retention. I will present the findings in two ways, each appropriate for the respective target audience. In the case of researchers, I will present the results through the usual avenues for disseminating research findings, namely through conference presentations and journal articles. I expected that the discussion of these findings presented for researchers will be longer and more technical in presentation than the papers presented to professional stakeholders.

In the case of university faculty and administrators, I will make available an executive summary consisting of one to two pages outlining key results and recommendations to university employees who express interest. The purpose of the executive summary is to provide quick and easily digestible advice for improving job satisfaction rates on the basis of the findings.

Academic leaders may take further action by refining their leadership styles on the basis of their faculty members' indicated preferences. This refinement may help to achieve the highest possible satisfaction rates among the faculty members. Based on the analysis, transformational leadership is very likely a key determinant for improving job satisfaction for this population of faculty members.

Vecchio et al. (2008) used path-goal theory to explore the potential of transformational and transactional leadership models to predict performance satisfaction among followers. Under these leadership models, leaders exercise transactional contingent reward leadership by gaining influence through the use of external incentives that are contingent on followers' performance (Vecchio et al., 2008). According to path-goal theory, the leader's role includes enriching the environment when the existing rewards are inadequate (Vecchio et al., 2008). Vecchio found that the effects of transactional leadership exceeded the influence of transformational leadership, yet their findings also showed that the leader's vision and intellectual stimulation had greater influence in situations with limited use of contingent reward (Vecchio et al., 2008). In other words, in situations absent the use of extrinsic rewards, the model predicts enhanced impact of transformational leadership (Vecchio et al., 2008).

Recommendations for Further Study

The study sample included a single state university in the State University System of Florida out of 11 state universities. Much more additional research in the area of academic leadership and faculty job satisfaction is warranted. First, due to the study sample only including a single government operated university future researchers may

explore the relationship between academic leadership styles and faculty member job

satisfaction within 2-year community colleges or 4-year state colleges. Alternately,

future researchers may evaluate the impact of leadership styles on faculty job satisfaction

within for-profit, private colleges and universities. Second, the demographic questions

addressed only included three confounding variables, which were tenure status, gender,

and ethnicity. Within the model presented in this study, these variables showed no

significant impact on job satisfaction. Further researchers may consider including

additional demographic variables when evaluating job satisfaction among faculty

members, such as teaching experience, education level, and different sub-sets of

ethnicity. Finally, researcher may also wish to consider verifying the apparent

assumption of the absence of interaction among the demographic variables.

Reflections

As a faculty member in the Florida College System, I have witnessed and

experienced effective leadership and less effective leadership. I have noted the positive

and negative impacts of leadership actions and styles. These observations led me to this

research interest and motivated me to disseminate the research findings. My affiliation

with an academic institution provided credibility to me during research protocol process

at the subject university. As a faculty member, my motivations and values were

understood to align with those of the university. If personal biases or preconceived ideas

existed, the possible effects thereof were minimized or negated based on the fact the

participants had no direct contact with me, but instead completed online questionnaires

anonymously. By conducting a quantitative study, no personal interpretation of

ambiguous statements were of concern; rather, the quantitative analysis is more robust to

the potential effects of personal interpretations of respondents' than would qualitative

studies. The results of the study were not surprising to me personally as they are in line

with expectations based on the existing body of leadership literature and research, such as

Herold et al.'s (2008) findings of the positive effects of transformational leadership.

Summary and Study Conclusions

In this quantitative correlational study, I explored the relationship between

perceived academic administrator leadership styles and job satisfaction of full-time

faculty members. The independent variables were the perceived transformational,

transactional, and passive/avoidant leadership styles of academic administrators as

evaluated by 104 faculty member respondents from a Florida university. The dependent

variable was job satisfaction of full-time faculty members. Demographic analysis

showed the respondents to be roughly evenly distributed between male and female

respondents, largely White (i.e., not of a minority racial or ethnic category), and

comprised of roughly twice as many tenured as compared to non-tenured respondents.

Respondents identified the dominant leadership styles of their direct administrator in their

institution. Results were that the most dominant style was transformational, as identified

by 76% of respondents as most dominant; followed by passive/avoidant, as identified by

11.5% of respondents as most dominant; then transactional leadership, as identified by

only 7.7% of the sample as most dominant. The study results showed that (a) most of the

respondents who identified transformational leadership as the dominant style had high

job satisfaction (84.8%); (b) the respondents who identified transactional leadership as

the dominant style had high job satisfaction (25%), and (c) no respondents who identified passive/avoidant leadership as the dominant style had high job satisfaction.

This finding formed the basis of the recommendations that academic leaders take a proactive position by (a) disseminating this information and (b) refining their leadership styles on the basis of their faculty members' indicated preferences. Thus, they may enable themselves to achieve the highest possible job satisfaction rates among their faculty members. It is critical that universities retain satisfied employees to enhance productivity and maintain sound financial standing (Cordeiro, 2010). This strong financial standing allows for the institution's leadership to offer affordable tuition, compete effectively in attracting quality students, and maintain or enhance their standing among higher education institutions. Stakeholders can use the results of this study to create a strategy that will help them to increase faculty satisfaction, and thereby, increase faculty and university effectiveness.

References

Akroyd, D., Bracken, S., & Chambers, C. (2011). A comparison of factors that predict

the satisfaction of community college faculty by gender. *Journal of the*

Professoriate, 4(1), 74-95. Retrieved from http://jotp.icbche.org

Ambrose, S., Huston, T., & Norman, M. (2005). A qualitative method for assessing

faculty satisfaction. *Research in Higher Education, 46*(7), 803-830.

doi:10.1007/s11162-004-6226-6

Apostolou, B., Hassell, J. M., Rebele, J. E., &Watson, S. F. (2010). Accounting education

literature review (2006-2009). *Journal of Accounting Education, 28*(3/4), 145-

197. doi:10.1016/j.bbr.2011.03.031

Austin, A. E. (2012). Challenges and visions for higher education in a complex world:

Commentary on Barnett and Barrie. *Higher Education Research &*

Development, *31*(1), 57-64. doi:10.1080/07294360.2012.642840

Ayman, R., & Korabik, K. (2010). Leadership: Why gender and culture matter. *American*

Psychologist, 65(3), 157-170. doi:10.1037/a0018806

Baker, S. L., Fitzpatrick, J. J., & Griffin, M. Q. (2011). Empowerment and job

satisfaction in associate degree nurse educators. *Nurse Education Perspectives,*

32(4), 234-239. doi:10.5480/1536-5026-32.4.234

Bass, B. M., Avolio, B. J., Jung, D. I., & Berson, Y. (2012). Predicting unit performance

by assessing transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Applied*

Psychology, 88(2), 207-218. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.88.2.207

Bass, B. M., & Riggio, R. (2006). *Transformational leadership* (2nd ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Baxter, P., & Jack, S. (2008). Qualitative case study methodology: Study design and implementation for novice researchers. *Qualitative Report, 13*(4), 554-559. Retrieved from http://www.nova.edu

Belli, G. (2008). *Nonexperimental quantitative research*. Retrieved from http://www.media.wiley.com

Bennis, W. (2010, February). Leadership competencies. *Leadership Excellence, 27*(2), 20-21. Retrieved from http://www.leaderexcel.com

Bilimoria, D., Joy, S., & Liang, X. (2008). Breaking barriers and creating inclusiveness: Lessons of organizational transformation to advance women faculty in academic science and engineering. *Human Resource Management, 47*(3), 423-441. doi:10.1002/hrm.20225

Bodla, M. A., & Nawaz, M. M. (2010). Transformational leadership style and its relationship with satisfaction. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business, 2*(1), 370-381. Retrieved from http://www.ijcrb.webs.com

Bolliger, D. U., & Wasilik, O. (2009). Factors influencing faculty satisfaction with online teaching and learning in higher education. *Distance Education, 30,* 103-116. doi:10.1080/01587910902845949

Bozeman, B., & Gaughan, M. (2011). Job satisfaction among university faculty: Individual, work, and institutional determinants. *Journal of Higher Education, 82,* 154-186. doi:10.1353/jhe.2011.0011

Campbell, D. F., Syed, S., & Morris, P. A. (2010). Minding the gap: Filling a void in community college leadership development. *New Directions for Community Colleges, 149*, 33-39. doi:10.1002/cc.393

Castro, C. B., Perifian, M. M. V., & Bueno, C. C. (2008). Transformational leadership and followers' attitudes: The mediating role of psychological empowerment. *International Journal of Human Resource Management, 19,* 1842-1863. doi:10.1080/09585190802324601

Chung, K. C., Song, J. W., Kim, M., Wooliscroft, J. O., Quint, E. H., Lukacs, N. W., & Gyetko, M. R. (2010). Predictors of job satisfaction among academic faculty: Do instructional and clinical faculty differ? *Medical Education, 44,* 985-995. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2923.2010.03766.x

Coates, H., Dobson, I. R., Goedegebuure, L., & Meek, L. (2010). Across the great divide: What do Australian academics think of university leadership? Advice from the CAP survey. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management, 32,* 379-387. doi:10.1080/1360080X.2010.491111

Cordeiro, W. P. (2010). A business school's unique hiring process. *Business Education Innovation Journal, 2*(1), 56-60. Retrieved from http://www.beijournal.com/

Cropsey, K. L., Masho, S. W., Shiang, R., Sikka, V., Kornstein, S. G., & Hampton, C. L. (2008). Why do faculty leave? Reasons for attrition of women and minority faculty from a medical school: Four-year results. *Journal of Women's Health, 17,* 1111-1118. doi:10.1089/jwh.2007.0582

Cummings, G. G., MacGregor, T., Davey, M., Lee, H., Wong, C. A., Lo, E., Muise, M., & Stafford, E. (2010). Leadership styles and outcome patterns for the nursing workforce and work environment: A systematic review. *International Journal of Nursing Studies, 47*(3), 363-385. doi:10.1016/j.ijnurstu.2009.08.006

Deluga, R. J. (2011). Supervisor trust building, leader-member exchange and organizational citizenship behaviour. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 67*(4), 315-326. doi:10.1111/j.2044-8325.1994.tb00570.x

DeConinck, J. B. (2009). The effect of leader-member exchange on turnover among retail buyers. *Journal of Business Research, 62*(11), 1081-1086. doi:10.1016/j.jbusres .2008.09.011

Derue, D. S., Nahrgang, J. D., Wellman, N., & Humphrey, S. E. (2011). Trait and behavioral theories of leadership: An integration and meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Personnel Psychology, 64*(1), 7-52. doi:10.1111/j.1744-6570.2010.01201.x

Faul, F., Erdfelder, E., Buchner, A., & Lang, A. G. (2009). Statistical power analyses using g* power 3.1: Tests for correlation and regression analyses. Behavior Research Methods, *41*, 1149-1160. Retrieved from http://www.psyconomic.org

Finch, J. H., Allen, R. S., & Weeks, H. S. (2010). The salary premium required for replacing management faculty: Evidence from a national survey. *Journal of Education for Business, 85*, 264-267. doi:10.1080/08832320903449576

Fowler, F. J. (2008). *Survey research methods* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Froeschle, M. L., & Sinkford, J. C. (2009). Full-time dental faculty perceptions of

satisfaction with the academic work environment. *Journal of Dental Education,*

73, 1153-1170. Retrieved from http://www.jdentaled.org

Fry, L., & Kriger, M. (2009). Towards a theory of being-centered leadership: Multiple

levels of being as context for effective leadership. *Human Relations, 61*(11),

1667-1996. doi:10.1177/0018726709346380

Fuller, K., Maniscalco-Feichtl, M., & Droege, M. (2008). The role of the mentor in

retaining junior pharmacy faculty members. *American Journal of Pharmaceutical*

Education, 72(2), 1-5. doi:10.5688/aj720241

Gill, A., Mand, H. S., Culpepper, A., Mathur, N., & Bhutani, S. (2011). The relations of

transformational leadership and empowerment with student perceived academic

performance: A study among Indian commerce students. *Business and Economics*

Journal, *34*, 1-9. Retrieved from http://www.astonjournals.com

Green, T., Alejandro, J., & Brown, A. H. (2009). The retention of experienced faculty in

online distance education programs: Understanding factors that impact their

involvement. *International Review of Research in Open and Distance Learning,*

10(3), 1-15. Retrieved from http://www.irrodl.org

Gutierrez, A. P., Candela, L. L., & Carver, L. (2012). The structural relationships

between organizational commitment, global job satisfaction, developmental

experiences, work values, organizational support, and person-organization fit

among nursing faculty. *Journal of Advanced Nursing, 68*(7), 1601-1614.

doi:10.1111/j.1365-2648.2012.05990.x

Henderson, K. A. (2011). Post-Positivism and the Pragmatics of Leisure

Research. *Leisure Sciences*, *33*(4), 341-346. doi:10.1080/01490400.2011.583166

Herold, D. M., Fedor, D. B., Caldwell, S., & Liu, Y. (2008). The effects of

transformational and change leadership on employees' commitment to change: A

multilevel study. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 93,* 346-357. doi:10.1037/0021-

9010.93.2.346

Jing, F. F., & Avery, G. C. (2011). Missing links in understanding the relationship

between leadership and organizational performance. *International Business &*

Economics Research Journal, 7(5), 67-78. Retrieved from

http://www.inderscience.com

Jones, D., & Rudd, R. (2008). Transactional, transformational, or laissez-faire leadership:

An assessment of college of agriculture academic program leaders' (deans)

leadership styles. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 49*(2), 88-97.

doi:10.5032/jae.2008.02088

Judgea, T. A., Piccolob, R. F., Podsakoffc, N. P., Shawd, J. C., & Riche, B. L. (2010).

The relationship between pay and job satisfaction: A meta-analysis of the

literature. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 77*(2), 157-167.

doi:10.1016/j.jvb.2010.04.002

Kawada, T., & Yoshimura, M. (2012). Results of a 100-point scale for evaluating job

satisfaction and the occupational depression scale questionnaire survey in

workers. *Journal of Occupational and Environmental Medicine, 54*, 420-423.

doi:10.1097/JOM.0b013e31824173ab

Kezar, A. (2010). Leadership for a better world: Understanding the social change model of leadership development. *The Journal of Higher Education, 81*(5), 670-671. doi:10.1353/jhe.2010.0001

Kim, D., Twombley, S., & Wolf-Wendel, L. (2008). Factors predicting community college faculty satisfaction with instructional autonomy. *Community College Review, 35*(3), 159-180. doi:10.1177/009155210731011

Klein, J., & Takeda-Tinker, B. (2009). The impact of leadership on community college faculty job satisfaction. *Academic Leadership: The Online Journal, 7*(2), 1-5. Retrieved from http://www.academicleadership.org

Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (2007). *The leadership challenge* (4th ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Krivokapic-Skoko, B., & O'Neill, G. (2008). University academics' psychological contracts in Australia: A mixed method research approach. *Electronic Journal of Business Research Methods, 6*(1), 61-72. Retrieved from http://www.ejbrm.com

Lawrence, J., Ott, M., & Bell, A. (2012). Faculty organizational commitment and citizenship. *Research in Higher Education*, *53*(3), 325-352. doi:10.1007/s11162-011-9230-7

Leech, N. L., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2011). A typology of mixed research designs. *Quantity and Quality, 43*(2), 265-275. Retrieved from http://www.springer.com

Leithwood, K., & Sun, J. (2012). The nature and effects of transformational school

   leadership: A meta-analytic review of unpublished research. *Educational*

   Administration Quarterly, *48*(3), 387-423.

Lenhardt, M., Ricketts, J. C., Morgan, A. C., & Karnock, K. J. (2011). Leadership

   behaviors of Georgia golf course superintendents: Implications for post-secondary

   programs. *NACTA Journal*, *55*(4), 23-30. Retrieved from

   http://www.nactateachers.org

Li, C-K., & Hung, C-H. (2009). The influence of transformational leadership on

   workplace relationships and job performance. *Social Behavior and Personality,*

   37, 1129-1142. doi:10.2224/sbp.2009.37.8.1129

Mardanov, I. T., Heischmidt, K., & Henson, A. (2008). Leader-member exchange and job

   satisfaction bond and predicted employee turnover. *Journal of Leadership &*

   Organizational Studies, 15(2), 159-175. doi:10.1177/1548051808320985

Marston, S. H., & Brunetti, G. J. (2009). Job satisfaction of experienced professors at a

   liberal arts college. *Education, 130*(2), 323-347. Retrieved from

   http://www.projectinnovation.biz

Maynard, D. C., & Joseph, T. A. (2008). Are all part-time faculty underemployed? The

   influence of faculty status preference on satisfaction and commitment. *Higher*

   Education, 55(2), 139-154. doi:10.1007/s10734-006-9039-z

Miller, M. M. (2011). Improving response to web and mixed-mode surveys. *Public*

   Opinion Quarterly, 75(2), 249-269. doi:10.1093/poq/nfr047

Mohammad, S. I. S., Al-Zeaud, H. A., & Batayneh, A. M. E. (2011). The relationship between transformational leadership and employees' satisfaction at Jordanian private hospitals. *Business and Economic Horizons*, *5*(2), 35-46. Retrieved from http://academicpublishingplatforms.com

Morrow, P., McElroy, J., & Scheibe, K. (2011). Work-unit incivility, job satisfaction, and total quality management among transportation employees. *Transportation Research Part E: Logistics and Transportation Review, 47*(6), 1210-1220. doi:10.1016/j.tre.2011.03.004

Muenjohn, N., & Armstrong, A. (2008). Evaluating the structural validity of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ): Capturing the leadership factors of transformational-transactional leadership. *Contemporary Management Research, 4*(1), 3-14. Retrieved from http://www.cmr-journal.org

Newhall, S. (2012). Preparing our leaders for the future. *Strategic HR Review*, *11*(1), 5-12. doi:10.1108/14754391211186250

Northouse, P. G. (2010). *Leadership: Theory and practice* (5th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Mutjaba, B. (2009). Faculty development practices in distance education for success with culturally diverse students. *International Business & Economics Research Journal, 4*(4), 1-12. Retrieved from http://www.inderscience.com

O'Meara, K. A., & Terosky, A. (2008). Faculty careers and work lives: A professional growth perspective. *ASHE Higher Education Report, 34*(3), 1-221. doi:10.1002/aehe.3403

Petersen, G., & Caplow, J. A. (2004, September). Leadership style and perceived

    effectiveness. *Academic Leader,* p. 5. Retrieved from

    http://www.facultyfocus.com

Pieterse, A. N., van Knippenberg, D., Schippers, M., Stam, D. (2010). Transformational

    and transactional leadership and innovative behavior: The moderating role of

    psychological empowerment. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 31*(4), 609-

    623. doi:10.1002/job.650

Pololi, L. H., Krupat, E., Civian, J. T., Ash, A. S., & Brennan, R. T. (2012). Why are a

    quarter of faculty considering leaving academic medicine? A study of their

    perceptions of institutional culture and intentions to leave at 26 representative

    U.S. medical schools. *Academic Medicine*, *87*(7), 859-869.

    doi:10.1097/ACM.0b013e3182582b18

Rashid, U., & Rashid, S. (2011). The effect of job enrichment on job satisfaction: A case

    study of faculty members. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in*

    Business, 3(4), 106-117. Retrieved from http://www.ijcrb.webs.com

Riaz, A., & Haider, M. H. (2010). Role of transformational and transactional leadership

    on job satisfaction and career satisfaction. *Business and Economic Horizons, 1*(1),

    29-38. Retrieved from http://www.academicpublishingplatforms.com

Reybold, L. E., Brazer, S. D., Schrum, L., & Corda, K. W. (2012). The politics of

    dissertation advising: How early career women faculty negotiate access and

    participation. *Innovative Higher Education, 37*(3), 227-242. doi:10.1007/s10755-

    011-9200-1

Rogotzke, K. (2011). *Iowa community college science, engineering and mathematics (SEM) faculty: Demographics and job satisfaction* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses database. (UMI No. 3494200)

Rosser, V. J., & Townsend, B. K. (2006). Determining public 2-year college faculty's intent to leave: An empirical model. *Journal of Higher Education, 77,* 124-147. doi:10.1353/jhe.2006.0006

Rowold, J., & Schlotz, W. (2009). Transformational and transactional leadership and followers' chronic stress, *Leadership Review, 9*, 35-48. Retrieved from http://www.leadershipreview.org

Sabharwal, M., & Corley, E. A. (2009). Faculty job satisfaction across gender and discipline. *Social Science Journal, 46*(3), 539-556. doi:10.1016/j.soscij.2009.04.015

Safi, M., Falahi Khoshknab, M., Russell, M., & Rahgozar, M. (2011). Job satisfaction among faculty members of University of Social Welfare and Rehabilitation Sciences. *IJME, 10*(4), 323-332. Retrieved from http://ijme.mui.ac.ir

Salahuddin, M. M. (2010). Generational differences impact on leadership style and organizational success. *Journal of Diversity Management, 5*(2), 1-6. Retrieved from http://www.journals.cluteonline.com

Schweitzer, G. (2009). *Quantitative versus qualitative research*. Retrieved from http://www.keltonresearch.com

Seifert, T. A., & Umbach, P. D. (2008). The effects of faculty demographic

characteristics and disciplinary context on dimensions of job satisfaction.

Research in Higher Education, 49(4), 357-381. doi:10.1007/s11162-007-9084-1

Senter, H. F. (2012). Applied linear statistical models. *Journal of the American Statistical

Association*, *103*, 880-886. Retrieved from http://www.amstat.tandfonline.com

Sh Shibru, B., & Darshan, G. M. (2011). Transformational leadership and its relationship

with subordinate satisfaction with the leader. *Interdisciplinary Journal of

Contemporary Research in Business, 3*(5), 686-697. Retrieved from

http://www.ijcrb.webs.com

Siemsen, E., Roth, A., & Oliveira, P. (2010). Common method bias in regression models

with linear, quadratic, and interaction effects. *Organizational Research Methods*,

13(3), 456-476. Retrieved from http://www.orm.sagepub.com

Simplicio, J. (2011). It all starts at the top: Divergent leadership styles and their impact

upon a university. *Education, 132*(1), 110-114. Retrieved from

http://www.projectinnovation.biz

Sirkis, J. E. (2011). Development of leadership skills in community college department

chairs. *Community College Enterprise, 17*(2), 46-61. Retrieved from

http://www.schoolcraft.edu

Spector, P. E. (2011). *Job satisfaction survey.* Retrieved from http://chuma.cas.usf.edu

Spivey, C. A., Chisholm-Burns, M. A., Murphy, J. E., Rice, L., & Morelli, C. (2009).

Assessment and recommendations to improve pharmacy faculty satisfaction and

retention. *American Journal of Health-System Pharmacy, 66,* 54-64. Retrieved from http://www.ajhp.org

Symonds, J. E., & Gorard, S. (2010). Death of mixed methods? Or the rebirth of research as a craft. *Evaluation & Research in Education, 23*(2), 121-136. doi:10.1080/09500790.2010.483514

Taylor, C. T., & Berry, T. M. (2008). A pharmacy faculty academy to foster professional growth and long-term retention of junior faculty members. *American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education, 72*(2), 1-10. Retrieved from http://www.ajpe.org

Vecchio, R. P., Justin, J. E., & Pearce, C. L. (2008). The utility of transactional and transformational leadership for predicting performance and satisfaction within a path-goal theory framework. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 81*, 71-82. doi:10.1348/096317907X202482

Villotti, P., Corbière, M., Zaniboni, S., & Fraccaroli, F. (2012). Individual and environmental factors related to job satisfaction in people with severe mental illness employed in social enterprises. *Work: A Journal of Prevention, Assessment and Rehabilitation*, *43*(1), 33-41. doi:10.3233/WOR-2012-1445

Webb, K. (2009). Creating satisfied employees in Christian higher education: Research on leadership competencies. *Christian Higher Education, 8,* 18-31. doi:10.1080/15363750802171073

Wang, X., & Howell, J. M. (2012). A multilevel study of transformational leadership, identification, and follower outcomes. *Leadership Quarterly, 23*(5), 775-790. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2012.02.001

Wong, E., & Heng, T. (2009). Case study of factors influencing job satisfaction in two

    Malaysian universities. *International Business Research, 2*(2), 86-98. Retrieved

    from http://www.ibrusa.com

Xu, Y. J. (2008a). Faculty turnover: Discipline-specific attention is warranted. *Research*

    in Higher Education, 49(1), 40-61. doi:10.1007/s11162-007-9062-7

Xu, Y. J. (2008b). Gender disparity in STEM disciplines: A study of faculty attrition and

    turnover intentions. *Research in Higher Education, 49*, 607-624.

    doi:10.1007/s11162-008-9097-4

Yukl, G., & Mahsud, R. (2010). Why flexible and adaptive leadership is essential.

    Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research, 62(2), 81-93.

    doi:10.1037/a0019835

Zembylas, M., & Iasonos, S. (2010). Leadership styles and multicultural education

    approaches: An exploration of their relationship. *International Journal of*

    Leadership in Education, 13(2), 163-183. doi:10.1080/13603120903386969

Appendix A: Sample of MLQ Items and Permission for Use

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

Instrument (Leader and Rater Form)

and Scoring Guide
(Form 5X-Short)

by Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass

Published by Mind Garden, Inc.

info@mindgarden.com
www.mindgarden.com

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

My Name: _____ Date: _____

Organization ID #: _____ Leader ID #: _____

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

Note. Permission for use of MLQ precludes inclusion of the entire questionnaire in the published dissertation, as noted in the following permission letter.

mind garden

www.mindgarden.com

To whom it may concern,

This letter is to grant permission for the above named person to use the following copyright material;

Instrument: ***Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire***

Authors: ***Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass***

Copyright: ***1995 by Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass***

for his/her thesis research.

Five sample items from this instrument may be reproduced for inclusion in a proposal, thesis, or dissertation.

The entire instrument may not be included or reproduced at any time in any other published material.

Sincerely,

Robert Most
Mind Garden, Inc.
www.mindgarden.com

Appendix B: Job Satisfaction Survey and Permission for Use

JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY
Paul E. Spector
Department of Psychology
University of South Florida

E. Spector 1994

PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.

		Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
1	I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	I like the people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Communications seem good within this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Raises are too few and far between.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	My supervisor is unfair to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	I like doing the things I do at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	The goals of this organization are not clear to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6

PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT. Paul E. Spector 1994	Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
19	I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	The benefit package we have is equitable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	There are few rewards for those who work here.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	I have too much to do at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	I enjoy my coworkers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	There are benefits we do not have which we should have.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	I like my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	I have too much paperwork.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33	I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34	There is too much bickering and fighting at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35	My job is enjoyable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36	Work assignments are not fully explained.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Dear Justin:

You have my permission to use the JSS in your research. You can find copies of the scale in the original English and several other languages, as well as details about the scale's development and norms. I allow free use for noncommercial research and teaching purposes in return for sharing of results. This includes student theses and dissertations, as well as other student research projects. Copies of the scale can be reproduced in a thesis or dissertation as long as the copyright notice is included, "Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved." Results can be shared by providing an e-copy of a published or unpublished research report (e.g., a dissertation). You also have permission to translate the JSS into another language under the

same conditions in addition to sharing a copy of the translation with me. Be sure to include the copyright statement, as well as credit the person who did the translation with the year.

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

Best,

Paul Spector
Department of Psychology
PCD 4118
University of South Florida
Tampa, FL 33620
813-974-0357
pspector [at symbol] usf.edu
http://shell.cas.usf.edu/~spector

Appendix C: Demographic Survey

Please choose a single response for each item:

Gender   () Male   () Female

Tenure Status   () Tenured   () Non-Tenured

Ethnicity   () White   () Non-White

Appendix D: Notification of Approval to Conduct Research

Subject : Notification of Approval to Conduct Research-Justin Bateh
Date : Mon, Feb 25, 2013 01:50 PM CST
From : IRB <IRB@waldenu.edu>
To : Justin Bateh <justin.bateh@waldenu.edu>
CC : wilton heyliger <wilton.heyliger@waldenu.edu>, DBA Docstudy
DBA.Docstudy@waldenu.edu

Dear Mr. Bateh,

This email confirms receipt of the IRB notification of exemption for the community research partner, which confirmed their approval for the study to occur and also serves as your notification that Walden University has approved BOTH your doctoral study proposal and your application to the Institutional Review Board. As such, you are approved by Walden University to conduct research. Please contact the Office of Student Research Administration at DBA.Docstudy@waldenu.edu if you have any questions.

Congratulations!

Jenny Sherer
Operations Manager, Office of Research Ethics and Compliance
Leilani Endicott
IRB Chair, Walden University

Appendix E: Recruitment Email

Dear Faculty Member,

My name is Justin Bateh, and I'm a Doctor of Business Administration candidate at Walden University working towards completing my final doctoral study.
I am inviting you, as a full-time faculty member at ███, to participate in my doctoral study. This study is about the relationship between academic administrator leadership styles and faculty job satisfaction within a Florida university. My research protocol has been reviewed and approved by the Institutional Review Board at Walden University and the Institutional Review Board at ████████████████. ███ requires a sponsor for research completed by outside parties. Dr. ████████████████████████████

██████, is serving as my research sponsor.

Your participation is important. If you choose to take part in this study, you would click here to read and accept the consent agreement. Then, you will take approximately 10 minutes to complete a survey that includes rating your administrator's leadership style and your job satisfaction. No identifiers (name, department, email addresses, IP addresses) are collected and your responses remain anonymous.

Please make an effort to complete this brief survey before 03/26/2013.   I sincerely thank you for your consideration.

Sincerely,
Justin Bateh
Doctor of Business Administration Candidate
Walden University
Justin.bateh@waldenu.edu
(904) 662-3936

Appendix F: Consent and Confidentiality Form

You are invited to take part in a research study to examine the relationship between academic administrator leadership styles and faculty job satisfaction within a Florida state university. The researcher is inviting full-time faculty employed at a state university to be in the study. This form is part of a process called "informed consent" to allow you to understand this study before deciding whether to take part. This study is being conducted by a researcher named Justin Bateh, who is a doctoral student at Walden University.

Background Information:
The purpose of this study is to determine the relationship, if any, between academic administrator leadership style and job satisfaction of faculty within a Florida state university. The study results may contribute to social change by creating awareness of effective leadership models and job satisfaction in Florida universities.

Procedures:
If you agree to be in this study, you will be asked to:
• Respond to questions from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire about your academic administrator, which will take approximately 5-10 minutes.
• Respond to questions from Spector's Job Satisfaction Survey about your job satisfaction, which will take approximately 5-10 minutes.
• Respond to a brief demographic survey, which should take less than 5 minutes.
Here are some sample questions:

Job Satisfaction Survey
Rate on a scale from 1-6 regarding your own job satisfaction
1) I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.
2) There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.
3) My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.

Leadership Survey
Rate on a scale from 0-4 regarding how you perceive your academic

administrator's leadership traits
1) I provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts
2) I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate
3) I fail to interfere until problems become serious

Demographic Survey
Please choose a single response for each item:
1) Gender () Male () Female
2) Tenure Status () Tenured () Non-Tenured
3) Ethnicity () White () Non-White

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

Risks and Benefits of Being in the Study:
Being in this type of study involves some risk of the minor discomforts that can be encountered in daily life, such as fatigue, stress, or becoming upset. Being in this study would not pose a risk to your safety or wellbeing. Individual participants may benefit to the extent that the study findings may contribute to social change by creating awareness of effective leadership models and job satisfaction in Florida universities.

Payment:
No compensation will be provided.

Privacy:
Any information you provide will be kept anonymous, since your consent is implied with
completion of the survey. The researcher will not use your personal information for any
purposes outside of this research project. Also, the researcher will not include your name or anything else that could identify you in the study

reports. Data will be kept secure on a password protected external drive. Data will be kept for a period of at least 5 years, as required by Walden University.

Contacts and Questions:
You may ask any questions you have now. Or if you have questions later, you may contact the researcher via email at justin.bateh@waldenu.edu. The researchers doctoral study chair is Dr. Wilton Heyliger and he can be reached at wiltonheyliger@waldenu.edu. The researchers sponsor at ▮ is ▮▮▮▮ and she can be reached at ▮▮▮▮ If you want to talk privately about your rights as a participant, you can call ▮▮▮▮. She is the Walden University representative who can discuss this with you. Her phone number is 1-800-925-3368, extension 1210. If you have questions about your rights as a research participant or if you would like to contact someone about a research-related injury, you may also contact the chair of the ▮ Institutional Review Board by calling ▮▮▮▮ or emailing ▮▮▮▮. Walden University's approval number for this study is **02-01-13-0143580** and it expires on **January 31, 2014.** Please print or save this consent form for your records.

Statement of Consent:
I have read the above information and I feel I understand the study well enough to make a
decision about my involvement. By clicking the link below and submitting a completed survey, I understand that I am agreeing to the above described.

Curriculum Vitae

Justin Bateh

Education

2010-2013	Doctor of Business Administration	Walden University
2006-2008	Master of Business Administration	Nova Southeastern University
2002-2006	Bachelor of Business Administration	University of North Florida

Experience

2011-Present	Assistant Professor of Business	Florida State College at Jacksonville
2005-Present	Management Consultant	Paramount Strategy Firm
2010-2011	Adjunct Instructor	Florida State College at Jacksonville
2006-2011	Director of Operations	InforMED
2004-2006	Assistant Director of Operations	InforMED
2001-2004	Office Manager	InforMED