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Transformational Leadership and Job Satisfaction in the Federal Government

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This is to certify that the doctoral study by

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Abstract

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MS, American Military University, 2010

BS, SUNY University, 2008

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

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Abstract

Since 2002, the federal government has disseminated surveys to all of its federal agencies to obtain employees' views on the federal agencies' work environments. This study examined the relationship between employees' perception of their leaders' transformational leadership skills and employee job satisfaction. This study was conducted in a metropolitan area in the midwestern United States using 12 federal agencies, totaling approximately 33,000 employees. The theoretical framework for this study was transformational leadership theory. The 5 constructs published by House and Burns were used in multifactor leadership questionnaire surveys by scholarly and peer-reviewed studies and represent the primary leadership skills. The study used the job satisfaction survey to gather information on federal employees' work environments. Data were collected from a random selection of participants from agency employee rosters. The data analysis revealed a relationship between transformational leadership constructs and job satisfaction with intellectual stimulation receiving the highest correlation. All variables have a high correlation to each other with $F (5, 86) =.968, p = .44, R^2 (.053)$. The R^2 value of .053 indicated that approximately 5.3% of variations in job satisfaction are accounted for by the linear combination of the predictor variables. The variables are idealized attributes and behaviors, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and individual considerations. The findings may contribute to positive social change by providing federal government leaders with an understanding of transformational leadership skills and job satisfaction.

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Dedication

I dedicated all that I accomplish in life to the Creator of all the living in this world and beyond. I dedicated this accomplishment to my great aunt, Leola Mitchell, may her soul continue to rest in peace. She advised me to join the military and make a career of it, which I have, and continues to inspire the rest of my professional accomplishments. For anyone who reads this study, I thank you and dedicate this study to you as well because we all can learn from one another.

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Section 1: Foundation of the Study

Background of the Problem

A connection exists between leadership and employees regarding job satisfaction (Ghorbanian, Bahadori, & Nejati, 2012; Xu, Zhong, & Wang, 2013). Employee job satisfaction affects every industry (Tsai & Wu, 2010) and can be the deciding factor in whether to remain working at an organization or to leave (Green, Roberts, & Rudebock, 2016). However, studies on topics such as transformational leadership constructs and employee job satisfaction in federal government sectors have lacked an understanding of how leaders and employees work together to determine what defines job satisfaction (Ghorbanian et al., 2012).

The Partnership for Public Service and Deloitte Consulting, LLP (2014) honor the five top-ranking Best Places to Work agencies in the categories of size, most improved, and subcomponents (Ertas, 2015). Of the 82 federal government agencies chosen to be a part of the selection, few earn the selection due to declining areas of effective leadership and job satisfaction (PPS, 2014). The Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey (FEVS), administered to federal employees yearly, provides valuable insight into employee responses toward effective leadership and job satisfaction (PPS, 2014). The Center for Leadership Development at the Office of Personnel Management (OPM; 2014a) is responsible for the training and development of federal leaders and employees for leadership assessments under the federal government leadership development programs. Staff members at the Center for Leadership Development dedicate themselves to transforming leaders in the federal government (OPM, 2016). The center provides the

most current leadership development training for frontline, midlevel, and senior leaders (OPM, 2016).

Problem Statement

The federal government revealed a pattern of leadership failures, which indicated the absence of effective leadership (Kellis & Ran, 2015). During the periods of 2002–2012 and 2010–2012, FEVS results revealed effective leadership continued to fluctuate and dwindle (D'Agostino, 2014; Gill & Faust, 2013). Of the 1.6 million full- and part-time employees in the federal government, more than 392,000 reported feeling dissatisfied with their job and with leadership in their respective agencies (D'Agostino, 2014; OPM, 2014a). The general business problem was some leaders in the U.S. Department of Defense (DOD) are ineffective, resulting in decreased levels of employee job satisfaction, which leads to low productivity, unwanted turnovers, and retirements. The specific business problem was that some DOD leaders do not know the relationship between employees' perception of their leader's transformational leadership skills and employee job satisfaction.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative, correlational study was to examine the relationship between employees' perceptions of their leader's transformational leadership skills and job satisfaction. The independent variables were (a) idealized attributes (IA), (b) idealized behaviors (IB), (c) intellectual stimulation (IS), (d) inspirational motivation (IM), and (e) individualized consideration (IC). The dependent variable was job satisfaction. The targeted population consisted of midlevel DOD career employees, team

leaders, and supervisors in the selected DOD, federal government organizations in a metropolitan area in the midwestern United States. The implications for positive social change include providing educational opportunities, by providing financial assistance to obtain a degree and online training that can be accredited toward a degree. Maintaining teamwork and continuity between groups, directories, and organizations, by incorporating training programs whereas employees of different job positions work together. Delivering excellent services, products, and support to soldiers, by receiving feedback from the commands on the services and support.

Nature of the Study

In this study, I used a quantitative methodology to examine the relationship between employees' job satisfaction and their leader's transformational skills. The basis of quantitative methodology includes two strategies: experimental designs and nonexperimental designs, such as surveys (Simpson et al., 2014). In this, I employed a quantitative strategy approach for survey research, which included closed-ended questions and numeric data collection (see Ibrahim et al., 2014). A survey strategy provides a numerical description of attitudes, opinions, and trends of a population to verify theories, identify variables, and use unbiased approaches (Kim & Ko, 2014). The study was not an attempt to explore any perceptions or account for human experiences and behaviors. The qualitative methodology can involve answering open-ended questions in a variety of ways (Yin, 2015, 2017). The qualitative method would not have sufficiently addressed the research questions or hypotheses on the correlation between employees' job satisfaction and their perception of their leader's transformational

leadership skills. Mixed methods research includes using a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods to explore a problem and not what causes the problem (Davis, 2014). Mixed methods research is a combination of quantitative testing of hypotheses and qualitative research based on interviews and observations (Mertens, 2014). This combination was not appropriate for this study that involved only quantitative correlational research to examine the relationship among variables.

I used a survey-based, nonexperimental, correlational design to provide answers to the research questions in this study. A correlational design is used to when two or more variables of the same group of participants is researched to show if they are related (Yin. 2017); therefore, this design was suitable for examining the relationship between the independent variables of (a) IA, (b) IB, (c) IS, (d) IM, and (e) IC and the dependent variable of job satisfaction in a federal government workplace environment. Researchers can manipulate one or more of the variables by comparing conditions (Hatak & Roessl, 2015); therefore, quantitative experimental designs were not suitable for this study. Experimental design studies involve assessing causal interference between variables, which may manipulate the results, whereas correlational designs do not imply causation (Schoonenboom, 2015). An experimental design is intrusive and different in real-world contexts, and correlational designs can assist in determining the relationship between two or more variables (Schoonenboom, 2015).

Research Question and Hypotheses

I developed the following research question and hypotheses to guide this study:

RQ: What is the relationship between employees' perceptions of their leader's

transformational leadership skills and employees' job satisfaction?

H_0: There is no relationship between employees' perceptions of their

leader's IA, IB, IS, IM, and IC and employees' job satisfaction.

H_1: There is a relationship between employees' perceptions of their

leader's IA, IB, IS, IM, and IC and employees' job satisfaction.

Theoretical Framework

Burns (1978) founded the field of leadership studies and introduced the

transformational and transactional leadership theory. Transformational leadership is one

of the most highly researched leadership theories that define the superior performance of

leadership (Gilbert, Horsman, & Kelloway, 2016). The transformational leadership

theory key constructs, which support leadership development skills and job satisfaction

and served as the underlying support for this study, are (a) IA, (b) IB, (c) IS, (d) IM, and

(e) IC (Gilbert et al., 2016). Bass (1985) extended Burns's works and explained the

mechanics of transformational and transactional leadership theories. The predictor

variables in this study were transformational leadership constructs measured by the

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ; Avolio & Bass, 2004). The MLQ predicts

employees' perceptions of their leader's transformational leadership skills of enhancing

positive attributes, impact on performance, commitments, and job satisfaction of

employees (Mind Garden, 2014).

Leaders who understand their innate traits, leadership skills, and believe in their

own traits and abilities can develop into effective leaders (Nichols, 2016). Leaders who

apply leadership skills to motivate and mentor employees can be effective at working with people, building trust, fostering an open line of communication with others, and creating a culture of change by implementing transformational leadership theory (Jones & York, 2016). The transformational leadership theory constructs are the key to leaders establishing, sustaining, and communicating their visions and building a healthy relationship amongst leaders and employees (Mind Garden, 2014).

Operational Definitions

Civilian employee: An individual working for federal agencies with an appointment with time constraints and income supported by appropriated funds to include working capital funds (Van Ryzin, 2014).

Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey (FEVS): A survey tool used to measure employees' perceptions of whether job characteristics, leadership effectiveness, organizational characteristics, and individual characteristics characterize a successful federal agency (Kim & Ko, 2014; Wynen, Op de Beeck, & Ruebens, 2015).

Partnership for Public Service: A nonprofit organization whose staff members assist OPM in producing FEVS and analyzing the results. These results help leaders to engage employees effectively, promoting excellent performance and feedback (OPM, 2015).

Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations

Assumptions

Assumptions, limitations, and delimitations serve as the nucleus of a study and allow a researcher to identify what they may assume, but do not intend, and establish

limits during their research to avoid inferences that could be drawn from a study (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016). Leedy and Ormrod (2016) noted, "Assumptions are so basic that, without them, the research problem itself could not exist" (p. 44). There were four assumptions in this study. My first assumption was that participants in this study would articulate their experience voluntarily in a survey. I also assumed that participants would be honest in their responses to survey questions and complete the survey. Another assumption was that I was capable of retrieving, analyzing, and understanding the responses of participants. My final assumption was that I would identify and categorize the data collected from participants' responses.

Limitations

Limitations are the potential weaknesses in the study and are generally out of researchers' control (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016). Researchers must provide identifiable limitations that promote the validity and reliability of the results (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). The first limitation I identified was that using a yearly survey may carry a risk to the reliability and validity of the results if participants are not honest and accurate with their answers (see Leedy & Ormord, 2016). The second limitation in this study was the audience could not presume the results of the survey represent the entire federal government workforce. The final limitation was that participants might have engaged in biased behaviors, such as self-reported, socially desirable, and nonresponsive bias, which are an intrinsic part of survey research and are not exclusive to this research.

Delimitations

Delimitations are defined as constrictions of the scopes and boundaries of the study (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016). Delimitations refer to "what the researcher is not going to do" (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016, p. 44). There were two delimitations in this study. The first delimitation was that participants were DOD leaders and employees in a metropolitan area in midwestern United States, who volunteered to participate in the survey. The second delimitation was the data used in this study were from two surveys, the MLQ and the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), and a demographic questionnaire.

Significance of the Study

Contribution to Business Practice

One of the U.S. Government Accountability Office (2015) responsibilities is to ensure federal government agencies adhere to the strategic plans set in place to improve performance. The results of this study may promote effective leadership by drawing attention to leadership skills that may resonate with leaders' abilities to motivate, inspire, and influence intellectual stimulations (see Joseph, Dhanani, Shen, McHugh, & McCord, 2015). Improving effective leadership is a metric of enhancement that displays a leader's ability to acknowledge acceptance of developmental skills (Fernandez, Noble, Jensen, & Steffen, 2015). A plethora of studies exist on effective leadership and employee job satisfaction for private sector organizations (Shurbagi, 2014). However, few researchers have focused on federal government workers (Ghorbanian et al., 2012). The results of this study may include pertinent information for leader-employee relationships concerning leader efficacy and employee fulfillments. Leaders and employees alike

become content with daily work attitudes that blind them to areas of concern among themselves (Asencio & Mujkic, 2016). Ignoring small issues or concerns may lead to larger problems that cause employees to feel dissatisfied in their employment and lead to a decrease in their job performance and challenging the leadership skills of their superiors.

Implications for Social Change

Upward communication between leaders and employees may assist in developing a better relationship among them, increasing job satisfaction (Mikkelson, York, & Arritola, 2015). With this study, I strove to provide knowledgeable guidance for leadership on how to communicate effectively with employees and improve employees' job satisfaction. The results of this study may contribute to positive social change by contributing to increased understanding of the correlation between leaders and employees that increases the work-life balance of affective commitments, leading to positive in-role performances (see Kim, 2014). Social change can occur when both parties exchanges a relationship of mutuality and trust that lead to the positive results of (a) low turnover, (b) work engagement, (c) improved organizational behavior and commitment, (d) productivity increase, and (e) full-fledged job satisfaction (Kim, 2014).

This study is directly related to the field of leadership efficacy and employee job satisfaction. Effective leadership has a profound impact on employees' productivity, which improves relationships between organizations and their local communities (Asencio & Mujkic, 2016). Leaders and employees are accountable for job positioning

and diversity programs by supporting developmental training (OPM, 2014a) that serves as a start or continuation for social change.

A Review of the Professional and Academic Literature

The purpose of this quantitative, correlational study was to examine the relationship between employees' perceptions of their leader's idealized attributes, idealized behaviors, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and individualized consideration and employees' job satisfaction. For this study, I reviewed literature that supported a correlation between federal leadership efficacy and employee job satisfaction using the transformational leadership theory. I also reviewed past and current literature on public and private sector research conducted on transformational leadership theory constructs and job satisfaction.

To search for literature for this review, the following multidisciplinary databases were accessed: Academic Search Complete, Google Scholar, ProQuest Central, Science Direct, EBSCO databases, Academic Search Premier, Master FILE Premier, Business Source Premier, Communication and Mass Media Complete, and Psychology and Behavioral Sciences Collection. Other sources included dissertations and theses; management, business, and social services databases; federal government databases; and peer-reviewed journal articles, books, and government reports. Keywords used in my search included *leadership, leadership theories and styles, transformational leadership theory constructs and job satisfaction, federal government leadership, leadership behaviors,* and *effective leadership*. As noted in Table 1, the main sources for most of the research results were journal articles.

Table 1

A list of Literature Review Sources

Sources total	Current sources (2014–2018)	Older sources (Before 2013)	Total of sources
Peer-reviewed journals 85%	154	14	168
Other sources 15%	11	11	22
Total	165	25	190
%	86%	14%	

Leadership

The history of leadership dates as far back as biblical and ancient times (Landis, Hill, & Harvey, 2014). Extensive research continues to indicate that leadership has many definitions (Bass, 1990b), with no clear and concise meaning for general purposes and daily use to justify the actions of a leader (Hassan, Wright, & Yukl, 2014). Leadership is one of the most researched topics and the least understood but is essential to all organizations (Landis et al., 2014). Leadership is a key ingredient in any organizational working environment (Benson, 2015) and consists of an organized hierarchy among humans and animals, comprised of leaders empowered by the challenges that come with being a leader (Makaroff, Storch, Pauly, & Newton, 2014). Current and previous researchers have continuously applied leadership categories, such as styles, traits, and behaviors, to their research to understand the causes and effects of the categories (Bogenschneider, 2016). When applied to job satisfaction, the focus on leadership styles, traits, and behaviors share similar findings, but not all scholars, researchers, and

educators agree on the content (Makaroff et al., 2014). Charisma, communication, power, and intelligence are some of the approaches researchers apply to leadership (Bass & Stogdill, 1990).

As one of the most comprehensive topics researched, leadership has an influence on social behavior, according to behavioral science research (McCleskey, 2014). Since the mid-20th century, definitions for leadership have included nearly 70 dissimilar meanings that have led many people to misinterpret leadership (McCarthy, 2014). The vague misunderstandings and misinterpretations of the meaning of leadership proposes the concept of leadership to be questioned (Burnes, Hughes, & By, 2016). The basis of leadership includes the fundamental premises of ethical actions (McCarthy, 2014). The foundation of effective leadership includes employees' perceptions of organizational missions and how employees are perceived in the daily operations regarding job performance (Bildstein, Gueldenberg, & Tjitra, 2012).

Leadership Theories

Since the inception of leadership theories in the 1840s, several areas of leadership support followed in validations and confirmations by researchers, educators, and scholars, all of whom continue to publish peer-reviewed research on the topic to this day. Characteristics of leadership theories can be challenged either by comparison or independently. There are at least eight known leadership theories and three styles of leadership (Singh, 2014). Leaders may identify with leadership theories that cause difficulties at times in leading or becoming a leader (Zheng & Muir, 2015). Key characteristics of successful and efficient leaders derive from theories and their traits;

each theory has an individualistic perspective of leadership or a leader (Blomme, Kodden, & Beasley-Suffolk, 2015). McCarthy (2014) emphasized that building a successful legacy organization requires (a) employees, (b) leaders, and (c) followers, Organizing and explaining complicated trends and the nature of leadership are a central focus in leadership theories (Bass & Bass, 2008; McCleskey, 2014).

Leadership theories first emerged in the 1840s, starting with the great man theory, which referred to the idea that only a man could be a great leader (McCleskey, 2014). However, with no scientific proof or characteristics verifying the data, researchers disputed and ignored information referring to the idea that leaders are born and not made (Sethuraman & Suresh, 2014). Some people are natural leaders, and others can become leaders after developing the necessary skills and assets (Hussain & Hassan, 2015).

The lists of traits and skills in Table 2 are some of the primary skills, types of knowledge, and abilities that continue to serve as effective leadership approaches in the 21st century. Stodgill (1948, 1974) created the lists, which were subsequently deemed as inconclusive due to the lack of proof from researchers and scholars on how to verify the measurements effectively (O'Boyle, Murray, & Cummins, 2015). This resulted in the consideration of other theories and approaches in the field. A leader's effectiveness can be a combination of traits and skills that leaders should expand on to build integrity, develop strong ethics, and foresee the paradigm changes in society (Hussain & Hassan, 2015).

Table 2

A Comparison List of Traits and Skills for Effective Leadership

Traits	Skills
Adaptable, alert, and assertive	Conceptual
Ambitious and achievement	Creative
Cooperative	Diplomatic and tactful
Decisive, dependable, and dominant	Speaking
Energetic	Knowledgeable of group tasks and projects
Persistent and self-confident	Organized
Tolerant of stressful situations	Persuasive
Willing to assume responsibility	Socially skilled

Note: Stodgill (1948, 1974*)*

Transformational Leadership Theory and Constructs

House (1977) and Burns (1978) published the original research on transformational leadership theory. The commonalities of their findings in empirical literature included the concept of transformational leadership predicated on the idea that leaders can inspire subordinates or followers to believe they have the competence and ability to achieve greatness (Burns, 1978; House, 1977). The four most described dimensions of transformation leadership theory are individual consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and idealized influence (Griffith, Connelly, Thiel, & Johnson, 2015). Bass (1985) explained how transformational leadership could be either implicit or explicit when measured frequently using the same instruments that capture leaders' most essential and critical behaviors.

Transformational leaders are people oriented and balance their attention between an employee's creative process and shared vision (Kouzes & Posner, 2016). Kouzes and Posner (2016) suggested five key successful transformational leadership steps: (a) challenge the process, (b) enable others to act, (c) encourage the heart, (d) inspire a

shared vision, and (e) model the way. As empowered leaders, transformational leaders focus on these steps by creating and nurturing innovative changes in followers by convincing them to put others before themselves (Kouzes & Posner, 2016). Managers challenge employees to resonate with their (a) leader's confidence (b) values, (c) vision, (d) self-efficacy, and (e) organization social environment (Northouse, 2015). Transformational leadership is coined as the spectrum of direction and a means to an end for leaders and subordinates to be a cohesive unit, allowing leaders and employees the job satisfaction and motivation an organization requires (Lawlor, Batchelor, & Abston, 2015).

Researchers and scholars paired the transformational leadership theory with situational theory because situations that occur for leaders are the same as the transformational leaders; however, transformational leadership theory is more effective for employees and the organization (Den Hartog et al., 1999). The original model of transformational leadership theory experienced problem with the constructs of consistency, continuity, and conformity (Den Hartog et al., 1999) Hersey and Blanchard (1969) designed an approach focused toward followers but that depended on situations (McCleskey, 2014). Situational leadership is one of the most popular theories used in organizations, and researchers cite it frequently, but there is a lack of sustainment associated with its use (Northouse, 2015). A range of situational factors, first identified by Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) and also known as contingency theory, developed by Bass (Haibin & Shanshi, 2014; Hussain & Hassan, 2015), included three factors that would lead to a leader's actions. These factors were (a) forces within the situations, (b)

forces within the followers, and (c) forces within the leaders and leaders' capabilities (Fahmi, Prawira, Hudalah, & Firman, 2016). Transformational leaders who recognize all the facets in any given situation acknowledge the variables and react accordingly without argument or discomfort (Fahmi et al., 2016).

Transformational leadership theory is the most researched leadership theory among researchers, scholars, and educators (Dinh et al., 2014). Bass and Avolio (1994) summarized a paradigm of transformational leadership as the four I's of (a) idealized influence, (b) inspirational motivation, (c) intellectual stimulation, and (d) individual consideration that leaders should apply and enhance to empower and develop followers. Transformational leaders should always envision a future and assist followers in developing reasons to move forward in their career and organization (Swanwick, 2017). This type of relationship requires employees to trust their leader as a mediator, supervisor, and team member (Asencio & Mujkic, 2016). If leaders consider themselves transformational, they are likely to comprise several plausible levels of employees: individual, team, and cross level (Asencio & Mujkic, 2016). Regardless of the level or number of employees, leaders who apply this type of leadership theory transform employees into idealistic and optimistic employees, communicate their high expectations, and ensure their goals ensure their employees' longevity within an organization (Hamstra, Van Yperen, Wisse, & Sassenberg, 2014).

One of the increasingly popular ways to coordinate, organize, and accomplish tasking is to use teams, which could be challenging for some leaders who are expecting to motivate only individuals (Rao & Kareem Abdul, 2015). Transformational leadership has

a positive impact on team performance, trust, efficacy, identification, and encouragement (Rao & Kareem Abdul, 2015). Some scholars think that organizational trends are changing from a focus on individuals to a focus on teams to encourage objectives, goals, and values (Rao & Kareem Abdul, 2015). Burns's (1978) interpretation of the leadership theory or style of managers involved transforming subordinates or conducting transactions with subordinates, regardless of whether the leaders are working with individuals or teams.

Transformational leadership theory has shortcomings, weaknesses, limitations, and problems when applied by managerial or political leadership and when leaders present it as a contingency or universal style (Andersen, 2015). No theoretical or conceptual support of empirical data indicated that transformational leaders are more efficient than transactional leaders are (Andersen, 2015). The basis of managerial theory is the work environment of organizations or corporations, whereas the basis of political theory is a political environment that has supporters, participants, and members (Andersen, 2015). Burns (1978) initially focused on leadership as societal and on making changes among leaders and subordinates. Nonetheless, it is important to distinguish between political and managerial leadership and to separate the two to avoid confusion. Despite the challenges that transformational leadership theory faces as not being the model leadership theory, there are still supporters of its history and the results that transformational leaders provide (Berkovich, 2016). Researchers use strong theoretical and managerial implications to support organizations and the transformational leaders who empower employee creativity (Mittal & Dhar, 2015). Bass and Avolio, (1994); Bass, (2000); Burns, (1978),

and House (1977) have agreed on many of the positive benefits of leadership theory that includes improving and enhancing employee job satisfaction.

Idealized attributes. IA are essential attributes that significantly influence job satisfaction regarding characteristics, traits, or qualities. Transformational leaders should be comfortable and competent in their decision-making process, which helps employees understand the need for change, improvements, and commitments (Martin et al., 2015). Many or all attributes a transformational leader possess should reduce stress in an organization and contribute to trust and connecting to employees (Martin et al., 2015). Employees can be from all cultures; attributes such as characteristics for transformational leaders will differ per the employee, an adjustment to which a leader must be prepared to engage each employee's personality of employees (Den Hartog et al., 1999).

Characteristics differ for all transformational leaders and acknowledging their personal and professional characteristics may enhance a leader's ability to be more transformative. Employees look for certain characteristics in leaders, including (a) empathy, (b) consistency, (c) honesty, (d) direction, (e) communication, (f) flexibility, and (g) conviction (Bass, 2000). Employees tend to base the assessment of their leaders on personal and professional individual characteristics, whereas leaders' perceptions of employees are influenced by their employee's personality traits (Stelmokiene & Endriulaitiene, 2015). Influencing others is never easy, but with adaptable characteristics or traits, employees can find their leaders to be understanding and approachable in each situation; therefore, effective leadership is pertinent (Soane, Butler, & Stanton, 2015). Andersen (2015) reported effective leadership is either universal or contingent but not

both, a leader's choice is the one best suited for their leadership style. Effective

leadership influences employees by increasing their level of awareness of the importance

of applying vision and strategy, achieving milestones, and rising above their self-interest

for the sake of the team and organization (Soane et al., 2015). The personality traits of a

leader will influence effective leadership, team performance, and the cohesiveness of an

organization (Soane et al., 2015).

A quality leader welcomes a relationship between leaders and members,

commonly referred to as leader–member exchange (LMX), which is essential for a

leader's success (Zacher, Pearce, Rooney, & Mckenna, 2014). A high LMX relationship

means leaders and members have an elevated level of mutual trust, respect, loyalty, and

obligation (Bauer & Erdogan, 2016). Although a high LMX is present, the level may vary

due to the lack of trust, information, resources, and support (Bauer & Erdogan, 2016).

Personal wisdom is important in a quality leader and reflects superior experience and

understanding of human nature, accepting life, and a desire to continue to comprehend

knowledge, all of which are attributes of personal growth (Zacher et al., 2014). Qualified

leaders have the ability to educate, support, direct, and inspire members, which enhances

job performance and job satisfaction (Amin, Kamal, & Sohail, 2016). Lacking these traits

could lead to leadership failure, low productivity, and dissatisfied members (Andersen,

2015).

Argumentatively, leaders are born with certain characteristics or traits, and some

are inherited while others are learned (Zheng & Muir, 2015). Regardless of how the

development of a leader's characteristics or traits occurs, it is important to evolve

leadership skills with changing trends (Day, Fleenor, Atwater, Sturm, & McKee, 2014).

Transformational leaders most influence employees with a display of consistency,

employees who speak to the leader's nature of an effective leadership role and lack

leadership skills (Zacher et al., 2014). One way to avoid failures is to obtain members'

feedback on leaders regarding members' perceptions of their leaders' quality leadership

(Bauer & Erdogan, 2016). Quality leaders' acknowledgment of facts about the role of

gender and race as contributing factors assists in compelling LMX qualities and endorses

a leader's role. The qualities of interpersonal skills, communication, cultural competence,

and organization climate are a model for high-quality leadership in a diversified

environment (Day et al., 2014). Transformational leaders who display idealized attributes

contribute to the empowerment of employees or to subordinates' futures and their

reactions are a confirmation of such attributes (Stelmokiene & Endriulaitiene, 2015).

Transformational leaders with idealized attributes easily conform to idealized behaviors

and to the evolution of personal growth and wisdom in effective quality leadership.

  Idealized behaviors. The origin of behaviors is somewhat unclear. Armstrong

(2009) claimed human behaviors began sometime in the first half of the 20th century and

derived from the concepts of conduct and movement. Behaviors among humanity are

uniquely different given the cultural backgrounds, which may depict similar behaviors

(Den Hartog et al., 1999). The transformational leadership theory of idealized behaviors

explained how leaders conform in a transformational context that categorized into four

different styles: (a) idealized influence, (b) IM, (c) IS, and (d) IC (Day et al., 2014).

These styles enable a focus on the relationship between leaders and employees in groups

or organizations within transformational leadership theory behavior and attributes

(Avolio, 1999). Leaders are compassionate, charismatic, confident, and an inspiration to

individuals who express an identification with and emotions toward leaders (Den Hartog

et al., 1999). Zacher et al. (2014) proposed that business scholars refer to personal

wisdom as a predictor of leaders' behaviors.

The effectiveness of different leadership behaviors relies on interpersonal trust

built between leaders and employees, and without trust, the relationship and productivity

will decline (Asencio, 2016). Interpersonal trust is the basis for ensuring the effectiveness

of an organization, but few empirical studies on the relationship between employees'

confidence and leadership exist in public administration literature databases (Asencio,

2016). In 2012, a survey conducted by researchers at the OPM indicated federal

employees trust in their supervisors and higher-level leadership had diminished

(D'Agonisto, 2014; OPM, 2012). Leaders are the primary role players in developing,

building, and sustaining trust, and without trust, there is little to no perception of a

leader's ability to provide motivation to employees (Asencio, 2016). A transformational

leader's behaviors are an attribute, and trust is the most important, as employees will look

to the leader they trust for influence, inspiration, empowerment, vision, and expertise

(Den Hartog et al., 1999). Leaders become role models for employees when they apply

idealized influence behaviors that encourage employees to follow ethical principles,

partake in risk taking, and accept challenging roles (Birasnav, 2014).

Ethical behavior is an essential component in many leadership theories, and

transformational leadership theory serves as a moral role model theory for employees to

emulate (Bedi, Alpaslan, & Green, 2016). Leaders who demonstrate integrity and impose

high ethical standards are more credible and attractive as inspirations to employees (Bedi

et al., 2016). This type of behavior is ideal for transformational leaders who communicate

and motivate employees to achieve and sustain organizational objectives (Day et al.,

2014). A leader's abilities or perceptions are an important ingredient for identifying who

is a transformational leader and who will engage in transformational leadership behaviors

(Bedi et al., 2016). Leaders' behaviors could serve as attributes because of the typical

behavior patterns that they exhibit and that differ from other leaders' behaviors

(McCleskey, 2014). Idealized attributes and behaviors describe transformational leaders

who depict a strong role model for subordinates and team members (Diebig, Bormann, &

Rowold, 2016). These employees can identify with the leaders' attributes and behaviors,

they learn high standards of ethical and moral righteousness, an elevated level of respect,

and great trust, and fairness (Diebig et al., 2016). Burns (1978) noted,

> The transforming leader recognizes and exploits an existing need or demand of a
>
> potential follower; but beyond that, the transforming leader looks for potential
>
> motives in followers, seeks to satisfy higher needs, and engages the full person of
>
> the follower. (p. 4)

Intellectual stimulation. Transformational leaders who challenge assumptions,

take risks, and solicit employees' ideas stimulate and encourage creative in employees

(Asencio, 2016). Transformational leaders must stimulate employees intellectually to

trigger their creativity potential (Ascencio, 2016). Stimulation enables employees to

make decisions, be accountable about discernments, and not give up on their creativity

while searching for a different approach and remaining optimistic (Asencio, 2016).

Employees intellectually stimulated by their transformational leaders will be active in the

decision-making process, receive information promptly to react and stay focused, and

promote fairness and trust (Hassan et al., 2014). Trusting employees to make decisions

and be creative allows employees and leaders to continue to build on their professional

relationship and promotes job satisfaction (Stelmokiene & Endriulaitiene, 2015).

Transformational leaders perceive learning as a valuable asset, view problems as

opportunities to learn, and consider employees as a source of new ideas and solutions

(Hassan et al., 2014).

Transformational leaders encourage employees to use the intrapreneurship

approach for solutions and ideas and to think outside the box, take charge, compete, and

take risks (Moriano, Molero, Topa, & Lévy Mangin, 2014). Some leaders encourage their

employees to use their imagination to rediscover original solutions with fresh and unique

ideas (Diebig et al., 2016). Transformational leaders who encourage ideas engage

employees to increase their professional resources by networking to improve the

workforce environment (Moriano et al., 2014). Further, transformational leaders who

give employees a voice to discuss their concerns provide intellectual stimulation, which

contributes to job satisfaction (Asencio, 2016).

Job satisfaction is just one component of an effective leader who is a charismatic

visionary who can mentally stimulate employees to continue their selfless devotion to the

organization and to their future goals (Tziner, Ben-David, & Sharoni, 2014). Asencio and

Mujkic (2016) referred to a leader's trust and employing the fairness approach, which

includes (a) thoroughness, (b) multifariousness, (c) procedural, (d) interaction, and (e) distributive. Fairness, integrity, and trust are intellectual stimulations to employees' perception of their leaders (Asencio & Mujkic, 2016). Employees' perceptions of procedural fairness and the opportunity to assist others gives them a sense of camaraderie and contributes too many team performances (Liden et al., 2015). If employees' perceptions of transformational leaders include internal commitment, there will be no room for unfairness, doubt, dissonance, or unreliability (Swanwick, 2017). Employees will remain true, will feel intellectually stimulated, and will have a high level of motivation. Hassan et al., (2014) described intellectual stimulation as "behavior that arouses strong follower emotions and identification with the leader" (p. 278). Cognitive abilities may enhance leaders' abilities to engage subordinates resourcefully and challenge their intellect in problem solving (Para-González, Jiménez-Jiménez, & Martínez-Lorente, (2018). Transformational leaders who apply idealized attributes, behaviors, and intellectual stimulation to their subordinates or followers promote inspirational motivation to achieve challenging and attainable goals (Day et al., 2014).

Inspirational motivation. The focus of inspirational motivation is the communication and developmental process, which appeals to subordinates' visions by applying symbols or images to focus their efforts on appropriate modeling behaviors (Girma, 2016). Transformational leaders will communicate attainable goals with a confidence that increases employees' optimistic dispositions and enthusiasm in attaining winning goals (Girma, 2016). Transformational leaders inspire motivation in employees to increase the employees' emotional levels of commitment by setting and focusing on

ambitious goals (Asencio, 2016). The most likely effect of inspiration from leaders to employees is excitement in the form of emotional and cognitive engagement that references their goals and challenges them to achieve successfully (Asencio, 2016).

Emotions have gained a significant amount of attention in the field of leadership literature and research, specifically regarding transformational leaders and follower engagement (Goswami, Nair, Beehr, & Grossenbacher, 2016). The emotions and behaviors expressed by employees will differ. However, some emotions can be contagious (Goswami et al., 2016). Employees' differences may play a major role in how employees respond to their transformational leaders, presumably because employees are in a positive or negative emotional state (Goswami et al., 2016). A positive emotional state widens the attention span and increases cognitive actions to build better social networks and personal resources (Mathew & Gupta, 2015). Transformational leaders who exude idealized influence and behave in a charismatic manner arouse strong emotions from their employees or subordinates, including loyalty and respect (McCleskey, 2014). Individuals have a range of personal and social identities, and each identity reflects an individual's self-worth and self-esteem, which serve as a foundation for cognitive and emotional motivation process (Herman & Chiu, 2014). Organizational growth involves cognitive behavioral changes that require trust, which transformational leaders and their employees are likely to share (Hassan et al., 2014).

Transformational leaders' inspirational motivation reflects a compelling focus toward achieving goals (Moriano et al., 2014) and consequently relates to employees' job satisfaction. The sense of purpose employees generate from the inspirational motivation

of their transformational leader is job satisfaction that generates goals directed toward the energy of an organization (Hassan et al., 2014). Inspirational motivation and idealized influence connect with transformational leaders' abilities to compose and articulate visions for employees (Salmasi & Bohlooli, 2014). Transformational leaders' motivation inspires and energizes employees, not by guiding them in the right directions, but by satisfying the basic human requirements of self-esteem, recognition, and control over their lives and the ability to achieve goals (Avramenko, 2014). For inspirational moments to happen, a positive working environment and a positive attitude throughout the organization with colleagues, management, and the industry must exist (Avramenko, 2014). Transformational leaders' inspirational motivation toward their employees should include capturing the hearts, mind, and souls of employees as individualized concerns, which builds and promotes trust (Hassan et al., 2014).

Individualized considerations. Individualized considerations for employees within transformational leadership theory occur when leaders attend to each employee's individual needs, act as a coach or mentor, and listen to employees' concerns (McCleskey, 2014). One of the most important aspects of transformational leadership is attention to details in others, consideration of personal feelings of needs, capabilities, wishes, and dreams (Mittal & Dhar, 2015). Transformational leaders treat each employee individually and account for the needs of every employee, which leads to increased motivation, satisfaction, happiness, and fairness (Zacher et al., 2014). Individualized consideration affects job satisfaction and plays a role in knowledge sharing, organization identification, and organizational citizenship behavior (Sun, Xu, & Shang, 2014). Leaders

who acknowledge the skills and competencies of each employee give their employees the opportunities to express their honest opinions and gain a reputation of being a fair leader (McCleskey, 2014).

A high level of fairness within an organization makes employees more likely to stay longer and reciprocate with positive work commitments (Talwar, 2014). A high level of fairness in a transformational leader shows commitment to the organization, and such leaders encourage subordinates or employees in decision making and treat them as individuals, not as a team (Khan, Asghar, & Zaheer, 2014). Fairness, confidence, and risk taking are constructs of truth, which is a practiced behavior in a transformational leader that builds employees' selflessness in the form of organizational citizenship behavior (Sun et al., 2014) behaviors which lead to creativity and individualized consideration (Li, Zhao, & Begley, 2015). Creativity has several different meanings the commonality includes the creativity factor using fluency, originality, flexibility, and elaboration (Akbar, Sadegh, & Chehrazi, 2015). Creativity is one of the major factors in a competitive environment, provides stabilization, and increases the chances of survival for an organization (Akbar et al., 2015). Creativity is beneficial in generating new and useful ideas that lead to innovation development and for producing new ideas, actions, and approaches that can lead to viable goods and services (Chen, Lin, & Chang, 2014). Leaders with the appropriate characteristics are major players in the facilitation of organizational creativity and have a high level of individual consideration (Chen et al., 2014).

Transformational leaders represent behaviors that are conducive to employees, subordinates, and team members' beliefs (Zacher et al., 2014). The five constructs of transformational leadership theory represent these types of behaviors. Transformational leaders who embodied these constructs are trustworthy and fair, and they give employees challenging goals that are achievable (Talwar, 2014). Transformational leaders empower employees to put aside their selfless beliefs and be creative, focus, and make responsible decisions that promote a positive working environment (Asencio, 2016). Employees require motivation, coaching, and mentoring to become a part of the organizational citizenship, and effective transformational leaders can provide these attributes and represent change by using one or more of the constructs (Kahn et al., 2014).

Leadership Styles

The compilation of leadership theories is a broad base of perspective theories to which many facets of leadership styles represents. Leaders who apply their specific leadership styles effectively promote job satisfaction and job performance in a motivated working environment (Herman & Chiu, 2014). Organizational leadership looks for motivational, inspirational, intellectual, and teamwork qualities in their leaders to enhance the organizational vision and goals (Marx, 2015).

Transformational versus transactional leadership style. Burns (1978), introduced transformational leadership style in 1978, and (Bass, 1985) further developed the theory in which leaders encourage employees to exceed expectations (Barnett, 2018). In addition, Bass (1985) created and developed the MLQ to understand transformational leadership styles. Transformational leadership is an organization's best defense and

offense strategy in the 21st century (Hamstra et al., 2014; Northouse, 2015). A display of transformational leadership style is a leader's behaviors represented as the four I's: (a) idealized influence, (b) inspirational motivation, (c) intellectual stimulation, and (d) individual consideration (Analoui, Doloriert, & Sambrook, 2012; McCleskey, 2014).

Transformational leadership behavior leads to satisfied and productive employees and promotes extreme changes (Asencio & Mujkic, 2016). Employees' satisfaction and fulfillment produced in a positive form serve as a commitment to a job position and an organization (Gokce, Guney, & Katrinli, 2014). Progressive leaders act upon and use the transformational leadership style to increase associates' awareness of what is necessary and right and raise their motivation toward their organization and social environments (Sakiru et al., 2014). Transformational leadership style is proactive, different, and unique and serves to optimize development (Burnes et al., 2016) beyond performance, as transformational leaders believe development encourages and encompasses maturity. Transformational leaders will mature enough to motivate attitude adjustments and understand core values, while at the same time convincing employees to reach for higher achievements and self-development (Northouse, 2015). Employees armed with the abilities as high achievers and self-development are high performing, self-developing employees that help build a profitable organization (Mittal, 2015).

The critical effects of previous and current studies of transformational leaders shown in employees' job satisfaction are complementary to the manager's leadership style (McCleskey, 2014). Transformational leaders' primary focus is building organizations and using the same behaviors to encourage employees and promote

motivation, a strong organizational culture, and a healthy social environment (Özer &
Tınaztepe, 2014). These sets of skills help to reduce stress and burnout and increase job
satisfaction (Özer & Tınaztepe, 2014). Transformational leaders are charismatic leaders
who embody inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and idealized influences
and consider the individuality of employees (Northouse, 2015).

Created at the same time as transformational style, transactional style, which
Bass, (1985) claimed create a foundational relationship between followers and leaders,
helps leaders exceed specific expectations (Dartey-Baah & Ampofo, 2015). Burns
recognized three components of transactional leadership style: award management,
contingent reward, and passive and active management (Birasnav, 2014). Followers
under transactional leaders comply with their leaders in exchange for rewards or praise
(McCleskey, 2014). Leaders who embody transactional style reward and recognize
efforts and award followers after they complete their roles and tasks, which results in a
positive performance effect (Deichmann & Stam, 2015).

Transactional leaders are negotiators who are willing to choose rewards over
employees' satisfaction for the good of the organization when reaching decisions,
simultaneously convincing the same employees in exchange for their invaluable support
(McCleskey, 2014). Activities of transactional leaders include interpersonal transactions,
and the objective of offering rewards and punishments is not to transform subordinates
but to accomplish expected results (Dartey-Baah & Ampofo, 2015). Transactional style
hinders developmental and organizational empowerment and lowers employees' job
satisfaction and commitment to the organization (Birasnav, 2014). Transactional leaders

influence subordinates through the goals set, and employees feel motivated to accomplish the current mission and tasks because the leaders promise rewards or contingency rewards, therefore establishing a commitment among employees (Deichmann & Stam, 2015). The basis of transactional style, which is completing tasks with a presumption of receiving rewards upon completion and punishments for failing to complete tasks, is beneficial in many organizations (Tyssen, Wald, & Spieth, 2014). There is a considerable amount of guidance emphasized by leaders and members with regard to task-oriented completion and the predetermined goals of transactional leaders (Yıldız, Baştürk, & Boz, 2014). In their pursuit to achieve, organizational goals of ideation, transactional leaders offer accolades in return for services rendered and tasks completed (Dartey-Baah & Ampofo, 2015).

Job performance from leaders and employees is a required skill for organizational leaders to manage and maintain organizational goals (McCleskey, 2014). Job satisfaction may influence a leadership style (Khan et al., 2014); the transactional style assists in an organization being effective and keeping employees satisfied (Tziner et al., 2014). Transactional leaders influence employees with contingent rewards to enhance and improve job satisfaction and job performance; however, passive leaders can have adverse effects on job satisfaction (McCleskey, 2014).

In the 21st century, transformational and transactional leadership styles are at the forefront and the most noticeable leadership styles (McCleskey, 2014). A leader may display behaviors of both styles, but transformational style is notably more effective than the transactional style (Asencio, 2016). One of the most remarkable behaviors of both

styles is that they focus on followers (Northouse, 2015, 2016). Table 3 shows a

comparison of the transformational and transactional leadership styles, including the

major characteristics and subcategories that leaders display to enhance job satisfaction

and performance (Northouse, 2015).

Table 3

Transformational Skills versus Transactional Skills

Transformational skills	Transactional skills
Idealized influence	Contingent awards or punishments
Competency	Promotion
Character	Pay
Commitment	Active
Charismatic	Leadership
Inspirational motivation	Expected outcomes
Long term	Short term
Self-esteem	Task-oriented
Pride	Solve problem
Goal-oriented	
Individualized consideration	Management by exception
Development	Active
Follower	Passive
Attitude	Laissez-faire
Value	
Intellectual stimulation	Performance by exception
Confidence	Leader's behavior
Innovation	Position
Improvement	Rank

Leaders and employees may adopt Greenleaf's (1977) servant leadership style; as

a theory and a style that changes the attention of leadership from leader to communicator

between the follower and leader, which may assist in changing the leaders' behavior to

becoming a servant leader (Berger, 2014). Liden et al., (2015) referred to servant

leadership style as the epitome of management in different organizations around the

world and deemed it a model leadership style for leaders and followers. This leadership

style belief motivates employees and their job performances with their greatest potential and communication, which is imperative with a one-on-one effect to show trust, self-confidence, and feedback (Bambale, 2014).

Since the mid-1990s, transformational and transactional leadership styles have become the most researched and written about leadership styles (Gilbert et al., 2016). A leader can perform both leadership styles, simultaneously, but should be conscious of their style of leadership usage (Deichmann & Stam, 2015). The leadership styles are different in some respects (see Table 4).

Table 4

Differences Between Transformational and Transactional Leadership Styles

Transformational leadership style	Transactional leadership style
Leadership of change	Leadership of the status quo
Motivate followers to achieve tasks stabilizing common ideas, visions, and morale values	Followers achieve organizational goals through a process of rewards and punishments
Organizational culture change	Organizational culture does not change
Followers motivated by team interests that coexist with individual interests of team members	Followers motivated by their own interest in the organization

Although the leadership styles have different behavioral patterns, the results of empirical studies have shown that employees feel satisfied with their job and trust their leader and their leadership styles (Asencio & Mujkic, 2016). Bass (1985, 1990a, 1990b) noted that leaders could display behaviors of both leadership styles, depending on the given situations and which will lead to the best results. Each leadership style has a level of interpersonal trust. However, transactional leadership style does not build a confidence level equal to or greater than transformational leadership's style of trust, which leads to

implied misunderstanding about the transactional leadership style (Asencio & Mujkic, 2016). Conversely, scholars and researchers measured the same trust levels among public and private organizations and found them to be more applicable and acceptable in a transformational leadership style in the public sector (Ascencio & Mujkic, 2016). Trust motivates employees to engage in the creative and innovative skills encouraged by transformational leaders (Akbar et al., 2015). Akbar et al., (2015) confirmed that transformational and transactional leadership styles have a significantly positive impact on employees' innovation.

The strengths and weaknesses of transformational and transactional leadership styles have different practices and concepts. For example, researchers have shown that the transformational style is better than the transactional leadership style (McCleskey, 2014). The most commonly known comparisons are the measurements of individuals, groups, organizations improperly surveyed, and transactional leadership style is a component of the transformational leadership style (McCleskey, 2014).

Regardless of the strengths and weaknesses of the leadership styles, the common factor in both is the situation variable that drives the outcome of the leadership behaviors and influences individuals, groups, and organizations (McCleskey, 2014). These behaviors influence employees to be followers of their leaders (Asencio, 2016). These behaviors also serve to encourage employees to achieve their ultimate goals, commitment to the organization, and ensure their job satisfaction (Ayoko & Chua, 2014).

Table 5

Strengths and Weaknesses of Transformational and Transactional Leadership Styles

Transformational	Transactional
Strengths	
4 I's	Reward and punishments
Idealized influence	Work with existing systems inside
Intellectual stimulation	the organization
Inspirational motivation	Passive behaviors
Individual concern	
Weakness	
Interaction variables between leadership and positive work outcomes	Motivated by self-interest
Influence on individual, not group or organizations	Management rules by fear and consequences
Behaviors are not explained clearly	Unyielding leadership
Situation variables are inadequate and beneficial for both	Insensitivity and no accountability
Heroic leadership style	

Employees may not view their leader's styles as a strength or weakness, but as a motivational factor to empower and encourage them to focus on organizational goals (McCleskey, 2014). Employees feel motivated by their leader's leadership styles that are consistent with their daily interactions and communication that increased productivity and job satisfaction (Asencio & Mujkic, 2016). A motivated employee perform exceptionally well and rarely complains about job satisfaction or leader.

Leadership behaviors. Trust is the primary factor between leaders and followers to build an organizational relationship and foster trust that extends across three categories: personal leadership, relational leadership, and contextual leadership behaviors (Hernandez, Long, & Sitkin, 2014). The most preferred behaviors are transformational leadership behaviors, which emit compassion about employees, thinking outside the box, and sharing a vision, all of which permeate throughout both Western and Eastern

countries, highly validated with six behaviors (Engelen, Gupta, Strenger, & Brettel, 2015). The behaviors are (a) articulating a vision, (b) providing an appropriate model, (c) facilitating group goal acceptance, (d) high performance, (e) supportive leader behaviors, and (f) extending intellectual stimulation (Engelen et al., 2015). Transactional leadership behavior reflects the daily tasks and active monitoring that is important to projects and their settings (Tyssen, Wald, & Heidenreich, 2014).

Employees perceive a leader's ability to communicate with competence in the work environment through motivation and the encouragement of leadership behaviors through (a) task-oriented behaviors, (b) relations-oriented behaviors, and (c) change-oriented behaviors (Mikkelson et al., 2015). Winkler, Busch, Clasen, and Vowinkel (2015) pointed out the correlation between leadership behavior and employee health and well-being; however, not verifying which behaviors affect employees the most does not help the leaders or employees. Consideration to health issues during leadership behavior development or intervention programs may improve communication amongst leaders and employees (Winkler et al., 2015). There is negativity that impact leadership behavior, known as destructive leadership behaviors; researcher's surveys revealed negative responses in over half of the participants surveyed (Woestman & Wasonga, 2015). Destructive leadership behaviors cause employees (a) stress, (b) subordinate-directed behaviors, (c) sexual harassment, (d) organization-directed behaviors, and (e) ultimately leaving the job (Woestman & Wasonga, 2015).

A leader's behavior and leadership style can affect employees and followers' behaviors positively and negatively, ultimately resulting in employee's job satisfaction

and performance (Ayoko & Chua, 2014). Leaders' behavior speaks to the higher need of employees, especially those of a transformational leader, by changing boundaries, whereas transactional leaders' behaviors operate within the boundaries of the self-interest of their employees (Green, Roberts, & Rudebock, 2016). Bromley, Mikesell, Jones, and Khodyakov, (2015) indicated that emerging research supported the positive connections (e.g., psychological, commitment, voice, and task performance) between employees' work attitudes and behaviors (dedication, opinion, and performance) and ethical leadership behavior.

Job Satisfaction

Cantarelli, Belardinelli, and Belle (2016) defined job satisfaction as personal and professional facets that refer to a diverse group of individuals within ever-changing organizations and job experiences. Bawafaa, Wong, and Laschinger (2015) noted a key indicator of job satisfaction is how leaders and subordinates feel about their jobs. How organizational leaders value their employee's attitudes toward work has a noteworthy effect on job satisfaction (Asencio, 2016). A determinant of low job satisfaction rates correlates with bureaucracy of controls when using measurements such as (a) job position, (b) duties, (c) recognition opportunities, (c) management, (d) pay, and (e) colleagues (Asencio, 2016).

Several job satisfaction variables enhance employees' working environments and have a significant positive effect on empowerment: motivation, organizational commitment, relationship between leaders and subordinates, and attitudes toward work (Caillier, 2014; Fernandez & Moldogaziev, 2015). Job satisfaction is a pivotal force in

public and private organizations, and employees who feel satisfied are less likely to leave their organization (Van Ryzin, 2014). Technology has led to another significant way for employees to improve their job satisfaction: teleworking (Smith, Patmos, & Pitts, 2018). Teleworking or telecommuting offers many benefits for employees and organizations, including an increase in job satisfaction (Smith et al., 2018).

Employee participation significantly contributes to job satisfaction, as employees involve themselves in problems solving, decisions-making processes, and growth, and they feel encouraged by the three participant styles, management, strategic, and communication (Wang & Yang, 2015). The positive effects of empowerment supported by self-determination theory provided understanding that relates to competence and dependence, all of which increase the level of job satisfaction and promote self-determination, discretion, and feedback (Kim & Fernandez, 2017). Job satisfaction may negatively affect turnover in organizations due to employees feeling dissatisfied with work conditions and ineffective leadership (Kim & Fernandez, 2017).

Concerns regarding employee turnover and job satisfaction have increased in public sector organizations (Wynen & Op de Beeck, 2014). Several factors may lead to employee turnover: (a) job satisfaction, (b) employee involvement, (a) organizational commitment, (d) retirement, and (e) leaving for other employment (Kim & Fernandez, 2017). In 2011, 17% of federal employees voluntarily left their agencies for another agency or retired from the federal workforce, which was the largest percentage since 1999 (Kim & Fernandez, 2017). Employee turnover becomes a specific concern when (a) institutions lose knowledgeable employees, (b) it affects morale, (c) backlogs occur, (d)

production decreases, and (e) the costs to replace employees increase (Kim & Fernandez, 2017). Job satisfaction considerations are positive outcomes for organizations supporting reduction in turnover, absentees of employees, and behaviors of employees (Barnett, 2018). Turnover intentions and turnover rates refer to employee behaviors that correlate with job satisfaction and decisions to remain or leave an organization (Cantarelli et al., 2016).

Other ways to improve job satisfaction and avoid employee turnover are by applying behavioral and managerial practices that encourage self-determination and self-efficacy (Fernandez & Moldogaziev, 2015). The practices and policies that leaders implement to influence others and to reduce turnover include encouraging communication, fairness, promotion, and job empowerment; identifying with the organization; and supporting family life (Kim & Fernandez, 2017). Demographics and personal reasons may conceptualize as turnovers and feedback in the decision-making process within the organization, which are not necessarily viewed as being negative (Wynen & Op de Beeck, 2014). The focus within many studies on turnover intentions is on individual and organizational facts when there are outside interferences of financial and economic situations that may cause mitigating circumstances for organizations and employees (Wynen & Op de Beeck, 2014). The estimated cost of employee turnover intentions is an increase of between 50% and 200% in recruitment and training for organizational leaders who must replace employees (Ertas, 2015). Due to the retirements of baby boomers, organization leaders are preparing to accept and prepare for the millennials in the workforce, because millennials bring a different perspective to the

working environment (Philip, Najmi, Orudzheva, & Struckell, 2017). Regardless of their field or profession, members of the millennial generation have high self-esteem, have a propensity to multitask, and are largely team oriented (Philip et al., 2017). Leadership and job satisfaction are the focus of research surveys as organizations' commitment levels remain a priority (Philip et al., 2012).

There is a well-known link between work-related behaviors, such as job satisfaction, organizational trust, commitment, and transformational leadership (Hsieh, 2016). As one of the variables that promote organizational success, job satisfaction correlates with a relationship among organizational attributes (Asencio, 2016; McCleskey, 2014). An association exists between a high level of organizational commitment and job satisfaction, which creates an organizational culture of trust among all members in the organization (McCleskey, 2014). Job satisfaction is a strong predictor of organizational growth with common facets of core variables ranging from work designs to leadership (Asencio 2016; McCleskey, 2014). The facets derive from job instruments such as (a) communication, (b) appreciation, (c) fringe benefits, (d) job conditions, and (e) organizational policies and procedures (Asencio, 2016). Employee's job satisfaction instruments are similar in most industries; however, federal government employees may differ from private sector employees because federal employees work under federal regulatory policies and procedures (OPM, 2016).

Conversely, job satisfaction with organizational trust and commitment equal to or higher than the private sectors empowers federal employees (Fernandez & Moldogaziev, 2015). Empowerment promotes job satisfaction within federal government agencies, and

empowerment has a multifaceted approach that includes resources, rewards, and information sharing among leaders and employees (Fernandez & Moldogaziev, 2015). Employee empowerment goes back to the human relations movement during the 1930s; during this era, researchers discussed empowerment as an important tool in a positive work environment (Fernandez, Resh, Moldogaziev, & Oberfield, 2015). The likelihood a leader's leadership style that promotes job satisfaction empowering federal employees is high (Kim & Fernandez, 2017). However, empowerment can also negatively affect direct and indirect turnover intentions (Kim & Fernandez, 2017). Empowerment and job satisfaction complement each other, which engage employees by giving them a sense of control and meaningful work (Kim & Fernandez, 2017). Job satisfaction and job performance positively affect one another (Fernandez et al., 2015). However, researchers have not confirmed that the job satisfaction-performance relationship in the public sectors is occurring at the same time or not (Hsieh, 2016). Empowerment practices increase job satisfaction when employees have discretion and the feedback skills required for job performance (Kim & Fernandez, 2017).

During the 1990s, studies conducted in private and public sectors on empowering and high-level management practices resulted in improving job satisfaction (Fernandez & Moldogaziev, 2015). OPM measures job satisfaction and other job constructs in federal government agencies using the FEVS, which OPM administers yearly to participating agencies (OPM, 2016). The distribution of surveys is government-wide; for example, in 2016, 80 agencies participated, 889,590 surveys went out, and 407,789 responses came back at a rate of 45% (OPM, 2016). The agencies included very small agencies with less

than 100 employees to very large agencies with more than 75,000 employees (OPM, 2016). From 2012 to 2016, the job satisfaction rate of employees, known as the employment engagement index score for the eight categories surveyed, fluctuated between 50% and 60% (OPM, 2016). The employment engagement index score indicated the leader's areas that need improving and the agency that has many available resources to support them in moving from results to actions (OPM, 2016). Leaders who use the available resources can improve the percentage rates from FEVS by implementing three steps: (a) review results and progress, (b) implement action plans, and (c) plan for improvements (OPM, 2016).

Job satisfaction affects many areas of the federal workforce including (a) empowerment, (b) turnover, (c) work–life balance, (d) organizational commitment, and (e) retirement (Fernandez & Moldogaziev, 2015). A solution to job satisfaction is leadership engagement to understand employees' hearts and minds and to communicate effectively with their employees (Cowart, 2014). Communication motivates employees by encouraging them to remain in an organization and to be part of the change within the organization (Cowart, 2014). Leaders within federal government sectors place an emphasis on tasks, standards, meeting deadlines, and job satisfaction, increasing leaders' behavioral patterns in the leadership roles (Asencio, 2016). As a developmental tool for leadership styles, transformational and transactional leadership styles, the bureaucratic implications contrast with the styles of the postmodern period leadership style of improving leadership framework, impact on the workforce, and developing strategies (Green et al, 2016). Leaders at OPM mandate that federal leaders apply the

transformational leadership style to develop a style more acceptable to employees to build cohesion and increase job satisfaction (Darden, 2011).

Transition

Transformational and transactional leadership theories, styles, and behaviors addressed the correlation between job satisfaction and federal government working environments. Communication is a key attribute of job satisfaction throughout the workforce. Leaders use the results from the FEVS to gauge federal employees' volunteered opinions of their agencies. However, researchers have conducted little to no research on transformational leadership theory on how it relates to job satisfaction in the federal government. Section 2 includes discussion on research methods, data collection and analysis, and the intent of the study. Section 3 includes a presentation of the findings and applications for the information collected.

Section 2: The Project

In this section, I describe my role as a researcher, process for finding participants to volunteer, expound on the research method and design, and present the methods I used to ensure ethical research. This section will also include a discussion of the data collection, analysis, and validation of results processes. Section 2 was the foundation to Section 3, which will include a presentation of the results, implications for social change, and recommendations for action and further research.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative, correlational study was to examine the relationship between employees' job satisfaction and their perception of their leader's transformational leadership skills. The independent variables were (a) IA, (b) IB, (c) IS, (d) IM, and (e) IC, and the dependent variable was job satisfaction. The targeted population consisted of midlevel DOD career employees, team leaders, and supervisors in the selected DOD, federal government organization in a metropolitan area in the midwestern United States. The implications for positive social change include providing educational opportunities, by providing financial assistance to obtain a degree and online training that can be accredited toward a degree. Maintaining teamwork and continuity between groups, directories, and organizations, by incorporating training programs whereas employees of different job positions work together. Delivering excellent services, products, and support to soldiers, by receiving feedback from the commands on the services and support.

Role of the Researcher

My role as the quantitative researcher in this study involved randomly selecting participants to complete two short surveys and a questionnaire for data collection, explaining the participant process, and addressing any of their concerns relating to the study. In this study, I surveyed individuals in the agency where I worked at the time of the study and in surrounding agencies according to the approval from agencies' Directors. I excluded the group to which I was assigned at the time of the study to avoid biased comments or influences. In addition, I did not know the employees in the agencies selected because they were in different groups and buildings, nor did I know any employees from the surrounding agencies in a metropolitan area in the midwestern United States.

I have worked in the federal government sector for 6 years, my service in the sector started in October 2011. Prior to this, I served 25 years with the U.S. Army and retired in 2011, for a total of 31 years of federal service. I believe that a leader, no matter the working environment, should be authentic and not mimic the leadership styles of other leaders. Leadership style reflections will be both positive and negative when differentiating between employees' performances and reactions toward leaders (Wang & Seibert, 2015).

To ensure data collection were accurate and not biased, all participants were randomly selected, and no personal relationship existed with the participants outside of the working environment. Participants were encouraged to ask questions and speak openly about the surveys to ensure their participation was voluntary and not coerced or

forced. As a researcher, it was important for me to remain neutral to avoid influencing the results. Researchers should report all data accurately keeping them separate from personal opinions, beliefs, and biased innuendos (Fusch & Ness, 2015). The recording of collected data further mitigated any personal bias in this study.

In this study, I held myself to the highest ethical standards, particularly adhering to the basic ethical standards established in the *Belmont Report*, which serves as the guideline of protocol to ensure respect, justice, and beneficence to all participants (National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral Research, 1979). By adhering to the *Belmont Report* protocol research standards, I ensured that participants signed an informed consent form, no suffering or harm came to them during the study, and each participant may benefit from the research. As the researcher, my role in this study was as a witness (see Flores, 2016; Johnson, Stribling, Almburg, & Vitale, 2015) based on my experiences and daily interactions within the federal government, which assisted in mitigating bias. Studying data collected from different agencies assisted me in having neutral opinions of the study. I stored all notes and data on a thumb drive in a safe to which only I will have access to for a 5-year period. At the end of the 5 years, I will destroy the thumb drive by crushing it physically and making it unreadable.

Minimizing bias is critical to research, and in quantitative studies, several approaches can reduce bias. One approach is to select participants randomly from a potential pool of subjects, where each person in the population has an equal chance or probability of selection (Nardi, 2018). As a federal government employee, I am involved

in daily interactions with leadership, associates, and colleagues. After sending out the surveys for this study, I ensured I did not have any additional contact with federal employees in the participant pool unless the interactions were not survey related. Because the participants were federal employees, they were also subject to bias toward leadership and the workforce environment. To establish an effective, nonbiased environment, I asked the selected participants to be honest in their survey answers and not feel as if I forced or coerced them into completing the survey.

Participants

My selection of federal government employees from a list of names provided by their agencies was random. The participant eligibility criteria were (a) a minimum of 3 years as a federal employee, (b) a leader that has at least six months experience in a leadership role within the organization, (c) employees must be under the direct supervision of their leader for at least 6 months, and (d) work in a metropolitan area in the midwestern United States. Leaders at OPM give the leaders of small, medium, and large federal government agencies the opportunity to volunteer their agencies to participate in the yearly FEVS to provide feedback on their agencies' most influential criteria (OPM, 2015). Just as OPM does, leaders give employees in their agencies the opportunity to volunteer for the survey (OPM, 2016); I provided this same opportunity to the participants in this study from the agencies involved.

The most popular avenue to recruit and identify participants and to collect data is the Internet (Rudestam & Newton, 2015). To accomplish data collection, I requested access to participants through their agencies. Upon receiving approval from the Walden

University Institutional Review Board (IRB; Approval Number 02-05-18-0361880), I sent randomly selected participants a package consisting of an informed consent form that included a section that explaining the steps I would be taking to maintain participant confidentiality in the study. Recipients kept a copy of the electronically-signed consent form and returned a signed copy back to me via e-mail. In return, participants received an e-mail with instructions and a link to the surveys and a questionnaire. After agreeing to participate in the study, participants reserved the right not to finish the surveys and questionnaire. Participants who decided not to complete the surveys received a request to return the surveys as is; I did not discard the surveys because, according to Linton et al., (2016), the best approach is to collect the data from the unfinished surveys and document those data as part of the study.

<div align="center">

Research Method and Design

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Research methods include quantitative, qualitative, or mixed methods (Ivankova, 2014). The research method and design I chose for this study was a quantitative, correlational study. Quantitative research includes descriptive and statistical data used for data collection of independent and dependent variables that provide numeric trends as well as descriptions, opinions, and attitudes.

Research Method

A quantitative research method is highly suitable when the objective of a study is to examine the relationship between two or more variables or study data such as surveys and closed-ended questions (Walsh et al., 2015). In this study, I used the quantitative methodology to examine the relationship between transformational leadership constructs

and employee job satisfaction. Quantitative methodology entails two strategies: experimental designs and nonexperimental designs such as surveys (Northouse, 2015). Northouse (2015) recommended using a quantitative strategy approach with survey research to include closed-ended questions and numeric data collection when employing a quantitative method. A strategic survey is a numerical description of the attitudes, opinions, and trends of a population to verify theories, identify variables, and use unbiased approaches (Northouse, 2015).

Qualitative methodology was not appropriate for this study because the research approach did not involve exploring human experiences and behaviors in the context of social, cultural, and political events (see Mertens, 2014). Researchers use qualitative methodology to answer open-ended questions in a variety of ways (Mertens, 2014). Qualitative approaches do not display the correlation between transformational leadership constructs and employee job satisfaction (Mertens, 2014). The use of mixed methods was not appropriate because this study did not include a combination of rigorous and precise analysis of the correlational, experimental, and quasi-experimental designs based on quantitative and qualitative data (see Rudestam & Newton, 2015).

Research Design

In this study, I used a correlational design. Quantitative research using a correlational research design was appropriate for this study, primarily because the objective of this study was to examine and understand the effect of transformational leadership constructs on employees' job satisfaction. To help understand the impact of transformational leadership constructs on job satisfaction, a survey consisting of closed-

ended questions was necessary (see Nardi, 2018). Surveys are the preferred method of data collection because of the rapid turnaround process (Nardi, 2018).

A descriptive correlational research design was most suitable for this study because correlation (a) assesses relationships, (b) does not imply causality, (c) requires a power analysis, and (d) can include, but is not limited to, multiple and logistic regression and discriminant analysis (see Ngang & Raja Hussin, 2015). A design with surveys and closed-ended questions is more reliable when answering questions using several alternative responses (Joo & Nimon, 2014; Nardi, 2018). Researchers use a correlational analysis to measure the strength between two or more variables using an unbiased approach and statistical procedures (Scrutton & Beames, 2015). I examined both leaders' and employees' responses through codes to understand and acknowledge that the two variables align. Sakiru et al. (2014) indicated that using the coded method was most suitable for determining which actions could improve the job satisfaction of federal government employees. I used a random sampling procedure to collect data for this study. In contrast, a quasi-experimental design was not suitable because this design involves a cohort-controlled group, whereas this study only required random selections, which brought concern to internal validity (see Leedy & Ormrod, 2016). Experimental research is conducive to a quantitative research design, which researchers use to resolve cumulative differences among groups and to place attention on actual measurement with a purpose of isolating variables of interest and allowing the researcher to infer a causal relationship between two or more variables (Rudestam & Newton, 2015).

Population and Sampling

The population for this study was federal government employees who work in different federal government agencies located throughout the metropolitan area in the midwestern United States. Approximately 33,000 employees work in the study area (OPM, 2017). I took the sample from a list of approximately 12 federal government agencies whose experiences could be used to answer the research questions on the correlational relationship between transformational leadership constructs and employees' job satisfaction. Federal government employees have the opportunity to voice their opinions via survey every year and are familiar with all variables within the work environment (OPM, 2015). I gathered the background study information from yearly FEVS taken by federal employees (see OPM, 2015). Participants received an invitation for me to join this study via e-mail, followed up by a phone call, if needed. Their completion of the survey was voluntary, and those who agreed to participate received a consent form and complete study materials to complete and return, as I previously noted in the Role of the Researcher section.

I employed probabilistic sampling using a simple random sampling method to choose participants who could provide insight into the topic and the overarching research question in this study because other sampling methods are not as effective. Researchers use simple random sampling when using a survey method to collect data (Denscombe, 2014) to identify key descriptive patterns participants are most familiar with in their daily environment (Rudestam & Newton, 2015). Researchers use random sampling so that all individuals in the population have an equal chance of selection, thereby giving each

individual an option to participate or opt out at their leisure (Denscombe, 2014; Enang, Akpan, & Ekpenyong, 2014; Nardi, 2018).

The result from the G*Power 3.1.9 statistical software used to conduct an a priori multiple regression analysis computed an appropriate sample size of 92. Multiple regression is a power analysis technique used to predict unknown and known of two or more variables using probability level, predictors, effect size, and statistical power level (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). I conducted a power analysis using G*Power 3.1.9 software (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2013) to determine the appropriate sample size for the study. An a priori power analysis, assuming a medium effect size ($f = .15$), $\alpha = .05$, and five predictors indicated a minimum sample size of 92 participants was necessary to achieve a power of .80. Increasing the power to .99 would increase the sample size to 184. Therefore, the sample consisted of 92 participants. Figure 2 indicates the minimum sample size breakdown based upon .80 and .99 power.
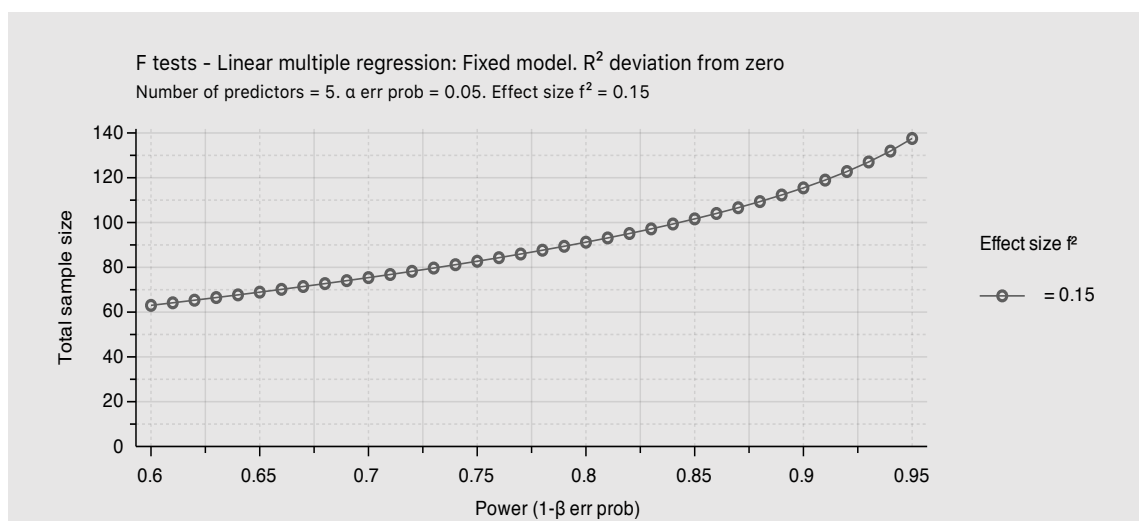

Figure 1. Power as a function of sample size.

The advantages of using probabilistic and simple random sampling using close-ended questions include the focus on the chosen population for data collection (Nardi, 2018). Probabilistic sampling complements this study because (a) it relies on the random selection of the focused population; (b) based on the statistical theory relating to normal distribution; (c) theoretically, the best way to obtain a representative sample, ensuring researcher has no influence; and (d) works best with large numbers (Denscombe, 2014; Rudestam & Newton, 2015). Perfection is not a part of gathering data; the awareness of gathering data is important, and the strengths and weaknesses are different for every approach used to collect data (Denscombe, 2014; Northouse, 2015). To obtain results from surveys, researchers use probability sampling to acquire the population results (Northouse, 2015). Reliable interpretation of data is contingent upon (a) full information about the population, (b) sampling frame, (c) data collection methods, (d) achieving required samples, and (e) reliable interpretation of data is contingent upon a high response rate (Denscombe, 2014; Nardi, 2018; Northouse, 2016; Rudestam & Newton, 2015). Researchers create surveys for a targeted population and rely on inferring characteristics of the population using statistical results (Nardi, 2018). Probabilistic and random sampling minimizes the risk of biased results; however, using the Internet can lead to small errors (Denscombe, 2014). Sampling errors may result from data overload after receiving too much data from surveys sent out to a sample (Nardi, 2018). Errors in sampling also occur from the biased nature of respondent's systematic responses being different from the chosen population (Denscombe, 2014). As errors are unavoidable; researchers should ensure any errors are as small as possible (Nardi, 2018).

Ethical Research

This study took place within the parameters of Walden University's IRB, which ensures the ethical protection of research participants. Ethical dilemmas may occur when research involves human participants (Stichler, 2014). Walden University IRB mandates a study's approval of participants and data collection. Informing potential respondents of the minimal risk of potential harm aligns with receiving ethical assurances by informed consent. The participant's privacy rights, confidentiality, and honesty obtained by having participants read and digitally sign an informed consent form ensures ethical guidelines are at work (Nardi, 2018; Stichler, 2014).

Before collecting data, participants received a packet consisting of instructions, an informed consent form, and contact information for an IRB representative and me. Participants completed and electronically signed the informed consent form before completing the surveys and questionnaire. All participants were volunteers and have the right to withdraw at any given time. Participants choosing to exit the surveys without completing them closed the browsers and no further actions are necessary. To protect the confidentiality and identity of individuals and organizations, participants did not provide identifying information such as names, organization names, or locations; executing reasonable precautions helped to avoid the disclosure of identity (Denscombe, 2014).

Surveys took place online through http://www.SurveyMonkey.com, and no personal information was necessary. SurveyMonkey.com adheres to a strict privacy policy for customers and participants using their website to conduct surveys. When federal government agencies return the signed approval letters to allow their employees

to volunteer to participate in study, a list of names and e-mail addresses accompanied the approval letter of participants. Participants received an e-mail containing precise instructions with attachments and links. Participants read all attachments, and when they agreed to participate, they electronically signed the consent form, kept a copy for themselves, and returned the signed form via e-mail to the designated e-mail address. I sent participants the survey link on the http://www.SurveyMonkey.com site unique to this study for participants to answer the surveys and questionnaire. Participants responded to the questions without coercion or obligation and sent their answers back according to the instructions received.

After individuals agree to volunteer, they received a link in an e-mail that took them directly to the survey. All data collected via SurveyMonkey.com remain confidential under my account. SurveyMonkey.com does not sell data to anyone. Incentives are monetary or other rewards for participation are prohibited; participation in this study were voluntary, and no incentives were available to participants. Denscombe (2014), Nardi (2018), and Rudestam and Newton (2015) noted that data collection can occur online via surveys, and upon completion of all data collection, researchers downloaded data onto a safe device and stored it in a safe for 5 years; after 5 years, researchers will destroy the safe device.

Instruments

Based on the literature review and the research questions, I used the MLQ and JSS. The standard for survey validity and reliability is a Cronbach's alpha score of .70. The MLQ measured the level of transformational leadership constructs, and the JSS

measured employee job satisfaction in a federal government working environment. According to researchers at Mind Garden (2014), "The MLQ provides an excellent relationship between survey data and organizational outcome and is the benchmark measure of transformational leadership (MLQ)." The JSS is a well-known and established multidimensional instrument compared to other job satisfaction scales; often investigated for validity and reliability, and it is suitable for measuring employee job satisfaction (Mind Garden, 2014).

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)

Bass (1985) designed the MLQ with a 360-degree method of feedback. Researchers ask participants to respond to 45 items on the MLQ (current/classic version), which uses a 5-point construct behavioral scale consisting of (a) idealized attributes, (b) idealized behaviors, (c) inspirational motivation, (d) intellectual stimulation, and (e) individualized consideration (Bass, 1985). Individuals measure how their employees perceive them regarding leadership behaviors using the MLQ rater form (Mind Garden, 2014). Bass and Avolio (1995) developed the MLQ, also known as the MLQ 5X Short or the standard version, which expanded on the leadership dimension used in prior surveys. The MLQ is well-established instrument researchers used to measure transformational leadership for research and validation (Mind Garden, 2014). Using the MLQ researchers are provided the most validated, efficient, and effective measure of transformational leadership, including the full range of leadership behaviors. The basis of the MLQ is the concept of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles and

measuring key factors of leadership that set leaders apart, as described by Bass and

Avolio in 1995 (Mind Garden, 2014).

Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)

Spector (1985) developed the JSS to evaluate employees' job satisfaction using

nine dimensions of job satisfaction related to overall job satisfaction. Researchers ask

participants to respond to 36 questions, broken into nine subscales of four questions each,

using a 6-point Likert-type scale that ranges from 1 = *disagree* to 6 = *agree very much*.

Spector (1997) identified a 20-iterm short version of the Minnesota Job Satisfaction

Questionnaire that became very popular for measuring job satisfaction during job

satisfaction research, an advantage of measuring intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction.

The uses of the JSS allows individuals to encompass evaluation and perception of their

job, and this perception influences the individuals' unique circumstances, such as values,

needs, and expectations (Spector, 1985). Researchers use several other survey

instruments to measure job satisfaction in different workplaces. The surveys include (a)

Job Descriptive Index, (b) Job Diagnostics Survey, (c) Job in General, and (d) Minnesota

Satisfaction Questionnaire (Mind Garden, 2014). For this study, the JSS served as one of

the instruments to measure job satisfaction.

Demographics

Researchers have shown that demographics characteristics could reveal

differences in individual job satisfaction levels (Lopes, Chambel, Castanheira, &

Oliveira-Cruz, 2015). In this section of the study, examination of how demographics

diversity may have a positive or negative affect on job satisfaction may assist leaders in

their blind spots about treating each employee equally. Demographics help determine the specific group of employees that correlates leadership and job satisfaction as a factor in their current agency and position. Demographics being addressed and examined in this study are gender, age, working group, educational level, position, tenure at their perspective agencies, and how many federal agencies they have been employed with in a metropolitan area in the midwestern United States. The dependent variables were transformational leadership constructs (IA, IB, IM, IS, and IC) and the independent variable was job satisfaction.

Measurements

The questionnaire consisted of relevant information and issues supporting all participants. The type of questions is closed-ended using Likert-type scales (Likert, 1932), and multiple-choice questions were suitable for the homogeneity portion of recording the demographics of the participants. Demographic information was gathered using a multiple-choice questionnaire included in the survey packets. Information requested from the participants was their gender, age, education level, position title, and tenure at their perspective agencies, and how many federal agencies they have worked for in the Detroit metropolitan area only. The SPSS calculated raw data from the surveys. Descriptive statistics for the demographics (primary and predictor) was examine by the means, frequencies, standard deviation, and range. The Likert-type scale was suitable to assess participants' transformational leadership constructs and job satisfaction. The surveys and questionnaire consist of three sections: the first section was demographics, the second section was transformational leadership constructs, and the third was the

personal level of job satisfaction. This questionnaire captured valid and reliable data on

the correlation between leaders and employees; it is important that instruments are valid

and reliable (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016). Survey instruments should be suitable for

examining correlations between variables of a study (Nardi, 2018). The study involved

administered the surveys through SurveyMonkey.com; participants received a link to

complete the surveys. To understand participants' responses to this study, references

were from yearly FEVS from 2002 to 2016 (OPM, 2016); volunteer participants have

expressed their candid opinions about the workplace variables.

The questionnaire included a 6-point Likert-type scale: *1 = disagree very much, 2
= disagree moderately, 3 = disagree slightly, 4 = agree slightly, 5 = agree moderately,
and 6 = agree very much.* The perception of positively answered question were tallied
from 6 = agree very much to 1 = disagree very much, and any negatively responded to

queries will be reverse scored. In this method, a high score represented a positive

response and a low score accounted for a negative response (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016).

Successful survey questions depend on three areas: (a) response rate; (b) completion rate;

and (c) validity of reaction, honesty, and accuracy (Denscombe, 2014). None of survey

questions were useful unless participants completed the survey questions by providing

real answers and return their responses to the me. To receive good response rates,

researchers should consider the (a) capabilities of respondents, (b) respondent motivation,

(c) sensitivity of the topic, and (d) survey design (Denscombe, 2014; Nardi, 2018).

Sending reminder e-mails helps to ensure a good response rate, and participants can

interpret being complacent with a survey not being relevant (Nardi, 2018). The validity of

questions is vital and involves taking all the necessary measures: (a) feasibility; (b)

response rate, reliability, and follow-up; (c) completeness; (d) validity, appropriate

questions, and honest answers; and (e) professional integrity (Denscombe, 2014, Nardi,

2018).

The study included a nominal and ordinal scale of measurements. Nominal served

to measure the homogeneity of all participants, and ordinal served as a measurement of

the statistical analyses using IBM SPSS 24.0 (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016; Rudestam &

Newton, 2015). This software calculated the MLR of two or more dependent and

independent variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). The study involved using this

software for data analyses with a significance level of .05, and descriptive statistics

appeared in the sample's characteristics. The data frequencies and percentages calculated

nominal and ordinal data and means calculated interval data (Quaranta & Spencer, 2015).

The variables in an experiment are independent and dependent (Leedy & Ormrod,

2016). An independent variable is a variable controlled or changed in scientific

experiments to test the effects on the dependent variable, and researchers test and

measure dependent variables in scientific experiments (Rudestam & Newton, 2015). In

this study, the dependent variable was transformational leadership construct, and the

independent variable were job satisfaction. In addition, demographics assessed

employee's background history with their federal agency that clarified if there is a

correlation amongst specific characteristics. Thus, data displayed the slope coefficients

and the dependent variable measured the effects of independent variables. Two types of

significance tests involved in MLR are an *F* test for determining the significance of all

slope coefficients and a *t* test for determining the significance of each slope coefficient (Moy, Chen, & Kao, 2015). Participants' response to homogeneity or demographic questions were analyzed using the *t* test to calculate the frequencies and percentages of categorical data (Nardi, 2018). To avoid a repeated survey from the same participant, the demographics questionnaire has a question that asked the participants to indicate how they accessed the study by e-mail invitation link or directly from the website (Denscombe, 2014; Nardi, 2018).

The inception of online surveys provided researchers, scholars, local, federal government agencies, and businesses a faster access to surveying participants or use of survey software programs such as Survey Monkey for collecting data (Moy & Murphy, 2016). The research methodology chosen should not be a factor in the validity of an instrument, which reveals accuracy, meaningfulness, and results that are credible (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016). Two types of validity exist for research credibility: internal and external. Internal validity is only admissible in studies in which researchers propose to examine causal relationships (experiments or quasi-experimental designs) and is not relevant in observational studies (correlation designs or descriptive studies). My study was a nonexperimental design (correlation) and used an external validity, which is relevant to the study because it used a sampling method and generalization to larger populations and different settings. In order to validate the study instrument validation is a requirement.

Construct validity is the extent to which an instrument measures a characteristic that cannot be directly observed, but presumably present on patterns of human behaviors

(Leedy & Ormrod, 2016). Construct validity measures the intentions of the hypothetical

construct and measures how well the construct transforms information into a functional

and operational reality (Janssen et al., 2014). Convergence and divergence validity are

sub categories of construct validity, which must work together and show evidence of

variable correlations and is the best demonstration of construct validity (Janssen et al.,

2014). During measurement, if demonstration of both convergence and divergence

validity are present, this is evidence for construct validity, and an application to the study

is required.

Demonstrating construct validity and test–retest reliability involved entering the

data collected into IBM SPSS 24.0; excellent reliability shows consistency in a reliable

instrument that does not change when measuring variables (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016). The

MLQ and JSS instruments are survey instruments with confirmed validation and

reliability, as researchers have tested them in numerous empirical research studies and

papers (Mind Garden, 2014). Selecting the chosen survey instruments, inputting the data

into the IBM SPSS 24.0, and applying Pearson's correlation tests will also confirm

validation. If data assumptions show violations, the study included bootstrapping (Efron,

1992) or resampling. Bootstrapping involves using a nonparametric approach based on

standard errors for statistics from repeated sampling estimate of researcher's data set

(Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). This study involved using G*Power calculations to ensure

the sample size will be sufficient. Faul et al., (2009) recommended G*Power calculation

that use an a priori power analysis and assumed a medium effect size of $f^2 = .15$, $\alpha = .05$,

and five predictor variables indicated a minimum population size of 92 are adequate for the study. See Section 3 for raw data.

Data Collection Technique

The surveys selected to collect data regarding federal government employees' self-reports of their leader's transformational leadership construct as a leader, as well as their perspectives toward job satisfaction, was the MLQ and the JSS. Rudestam and Newton, (2015) indicated that researchers who conduct descriptive studies provide descriptions of an event or define a set of attitudes, opinions, or behaviors that they observe or measure for a given time and environment. Data collection responses was from federal government employees from 12 agencies. Data collection included a set of demographic questions. A descriptive statistical analysis involved using mean, standard deviation, and minimum and maximum scores of demographic results of gender, age, working groups, and employee position, etc. (Mlikotic, Parker, & Rajapakshe, 2016). In the event I did not collect data from a federal agency, and I had not met the minimum sample amount, I asked via e-mail for volunteers from another federal agency. For the federal agency, employees who did not respond to the survey, other agencies were available.

The research question and hypotheses for this study were:

RQ: What is the relationship between employees' perceptions of their leader's idealized attributes, idealized behaviors, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and individualized consideration and employees' job satisfaction?

H_0: There is no relationship between employees' perceptions of their

leader's IA, IB, IS, IM, and IC and employees' job satisfaction.

H_1: There is a relationship between employees' perceptions of their

leader's IA, IB, IS, IM, and IC and employees' job satisfaction.

The surveys used were only accessible through the SurveyMonkey.com site. The

advantages of the online survey data collection are that it is (a) inexpensive and faster, (b)

administered to a large group, (c) and administered via links provided in an e-mail or

online survey construction sites (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2014). The disadvantages

of an online survey include (a) sampling issues, (b) possibilities of cooperation issues, (c)

the absence of interviews, and (d) technical problems (Dillman et al., 2014). Advantages

of online surveys (a) are desirable when the sample size is large, (b) are more cost

effective than using the postal system, (c) take less time, (d) include digital automation,

and (e) are convenient for respondents (Dillman et al., 2014). An advantage for the

researcher is the flexibility in designing the surveys and questionnaire for the participants

and their respective environments (McMaster, LeadMann, Speigle, & Dillman, 2017).

The biggest disadvantage is limited Internet access or no Internet access (McMaster et al.,

2017). Limited Internet access may lead to limited sampling and negatively affect

participant availability (McMaster et al., 2017).

Data Analysis

The examination of the correlational relationship between transformational

leadership theories constructs and job satisfaction included correlational data analysis

using the SPSS software statistical package and table results presented in American

Psychological Association format. The hypothesis of the study was used to confirm the

relationship, if any, between the variables using the SPSS calculations of collected data.

Walden University requirements for the Doctorate in Business Administration include at

least two independent predictors or variables and a dependent variable that affect

statistical analysis in quantitative studies (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016).

Data analysis involved using IBM SPSS 24.0 to answer the research question. The

approach of using statistical analytical data consists of descriptive statistics using

nominal and ordinal scale to record data (Denscombe, 2014; Leedy & Ormrod, 2016;

Rudestam & Newton, 2015). Addressing the research question involved using descriptive

statistics to determine the mean, standard deviation, and frequency (Leedy & Ormrod,

2016). Frequencies and percentages indicated the nominal (i.e., categorical: age, gender,

and tenure). The responses from the survey indicated if a relationship exists between

transformational leadership constructs and employee job satisfaction.

An MLR analyzation is suitable for measuring the relationship between variables.

MLR statistical tests gauge the significance of coefficients or construct intervals

confidence; the two tests used for MLR are F tests for overall significance and t tests for

individual slope coefficient significance (Hamstra et al., 2014). Researchers use Pearson r

correlation widely in research studies to assess bivariate correlation after eliminating

important variables consisting of one or more variables (Kenett et al., 2015). Pearson

correlation is a continuous degree of measure between linear related variables (Moy et

al., 2015). The Pearson r correlation coefficient ranges from +1 to -1, a positive

monotonic association; two variables tend to increase or decrease simultaneously

resulting in $p > 0$ and the negative monotonic; one variable tends to increase when others

decrease; resulting in $p < 0$ (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016). $P = 0$ corresponds to the absence of

a monotonic association or absence of any association with bivariate normal data (Leedy

& Ormrod, 2016). A positive value denotes a positive linear correlation, and a negative

value denotes a negative linear correlation; a value of 0 denotes no linear correlation, and

the closer the value is to +1 or -1, the stronger the linear correlation (Leedy & Ormrod,

2016). In this study, a correlational analysis will be conducive to examining the

relationship between transformational leadership constructs and employee job

satisfaction.

Researchers conducting a Pearson's correlation test to confirm if variables have a

positive or negative effect or no effect (Türer & Kunt, 2015) on employees' job

satisfaction, which is necessary for leaders to be effective in their leadership roles.

Conducting a Pearson correlation analysis (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016) indicated the job

satisfaction of employees who expressed their perception of quality leadership

developmental skills to determine if the variables showed multicollinearity.

Multicollinearity indicates that variables are highly correlated, which indicates that

researchers may linearly predict one from the others with a substantial degree of accuracy

(Grégoire, 2014).

The study included an MLR analysis, as it is applicable when analyzing two or

more predictors or variables to determine an unknown value (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016).

The assumptions are a predictor and criterion data for the independent and dependent

variables express normalcy, and a linear relationship exists between predictor and

criterion variables (Grégoire, 2014). In contrast, analysis of variance analysis was not suitable, as it determines whether a significant difference exists between three or more independent or unrelated groups (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016). Researchers use analysis of variance to assess whether means on a dependent variable are significantly different among groups and partial correlation to assess and measure data between two variables, which did not contribute to this study (Green & Salkind, 2014; Leedy & Ormrod, 2016). A bivariate linear regression did not apply to this study, as *bi* means two, and it serves to address the relationship and the strength between two variables (Green & Salkind, 2014; Leedy & Ormrod, 2016).

Data collection took place via an online survey through SurveyMonkey.com. I entered the data into SPSS Version 24.0 and analyzed the data using MLR. An MLR was suitable for examining the relationship between transformational leadership constructs and job satisfaction. The independent variables were the transformational leadership constructs. The dependent variable was job satisfaction. The MLR took place in SPSS using Pearson's *r* correlation test to depict results in *p* value, means, and standard deviation to determine the strength of the relationship through the null or alternative hypothesis. If data were missing or omitted, the study involved creating and computing an overall scale in SPSS from the variables, which I completed.

The assumptions for MLR are that there needs to be a linear relationship between the independent and the dependent variables and a check for outliers. The MLR analysis requires all variables to be normal. Researchers using MLR assume that there is little or no multicollinearity in the data, as verified with four criteria: correlation matrix,

tolerance, and variance inflation factor (VIF), and condition index. An MLR analysis requires little or no autocorrelation in the data, which occurs when residuals are independent of each other. The final assumption of MLR analysis is homoscedasticity (Green & Salkind, 2014). Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) suggested checking for assumptions by using scatter plots or histograms and centering the mean if multicollinearity is present. The purpose of this analysis was to reduce the probability of nonrandom omitted or missing data (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). To avoid violating the assumptions, as the researcher, I ensured the questionnaires are clear, concise, and unambiguous. As a follow up to testing data, following any violations of assumptions; bootstrapping is an effective method for addressing violations of assumptions.

Nonresponses or missing data are a significant indicator of data missing in surveys and occurs when respondents provide partial data and do not complete surveys (De Leeuw, Hox, & Boeve, 2016). To reference and identify if data are missing, researchers should look for missing data and outliers and examine if the relationships are other than linear (Nardi, 2018). To combat missing data, researchers should identify the amount of missing data and then factor in the analytical work, which should account for missing data using the maximum information provided (Huang & Cornell, 2016). I accounted for missing data by omitting incomplete surveys and used only completed surveys.

Study Validity

De Veaux, Velleman, and Bock (2014) noted that participant's feedback, regression, and statistical analysis are suitable for establishing the validity of this

quantitative research. Determining validity involves evaluating a research instrument to ensure it can measure the intention of the study (Denscombe, 2014; Nardi, 2018). I used the MLQ and JSS to measure the study variables. This study is a nonexperimental quantitative approach that involved two existing survey instruments to collect data from participants. Therefore, no field test was necessary. External validity depended on the random selection of participants who represent federal government organizations. This study included a nonexperimental correlation design; therefore, threats to internal validity are not applicable (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016). However, threats to statistical conclusion validity were a concern.

Threats to statistical conclusion validity may exaggerate Type I errors (rejecting the null hypothesis because it is true) and Type II errors (accepting the null hypothesis when it is false) (Rudestam & Newton, 2015). The reliability of a survey used as an instrument will indicate if the researcher can repeat the measurement under identical conditions (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016). The data I collected was analyzed using SPSS Version 24.0. The reliability of the questions depends on (a) designing a good questionnaire, (b) respondents' motivation, and (c) applying follow-ups (Denscombe, 2014). Threats to statistical conclusion validity are factors that affect the Type I error rate (Green, Thompson, Levy, & Lo, 2015). The three factors discussed are (a) reliability of the instrument, (b) data assumptions, and (c) sample size. Using SPSS to compute Cronbach's alpha, which is minimally acceptable at .80, is the procedure selected to report the results of the reliability analysis. Findings are in Section 3.

Reliability of the Instrument

A descriptive statistics analysis reinforces the assumption that data have no major abnormalities (Green & Salkind, 2014). An internal consistency reliability check for the instrument is not relevant in observational (correlation) designs (Davenport, Davison, Liou, & Love, 2015). Researchers use SPSS to check instruments' reliability by inputting variables into a reliability analysis scale to ensure Cronbach's alpha has an acceptable value of > .80 (Green & Salkind, 2014). The MLQ is a validated instrument for which many researchers have determined its reliability and is the primary measurement tool for multifactor leadership theory. Avolio and Bass (2004) reported on assessments that were used in over 300 master theses and doctoral dissertations from 1995 to 2004 around the world. The JSS is also a validated instrument. Spector's (1997) scoring guide results and internal consistency reliability (e.g., Cronbach alpha) scores based on the studies of 2,870 participants published since 1985 indicated the total alpha value of all nine areas of the job satisfaction. The areas are (a) pay, (b) promotion, (c) supervision, (d) fringe benefits, (e) contingent rewards, (f) operation procedures, (g) coworkers, (h) nature of work, and (i) communication (Spector, 1997). The basis of these job satisfaction areas is the JSS questions descriptive score of .70 or higher that indicates outstanding validity and reliability (Spector, 1997).

Data Assumptions

Data assumption reliability occurs when a researcher conducts an MLR statistical test to avoid errors, which could lead to assumptions (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016). The assumptions are (a) outliers, (b) multicollinearity, (c) normality, (d) linearity, (e)

homoscedasticity, and (f) independence of residuals (Pallant, 2016). The assumptions'

statistical test uses scatter plots and the average probability of the standard regression

residual as a method of displaying the results of the assumptions (Green & Salkind, 2014;

Leedy & Ormrod, 2016). I assessed the assumptions of a linear regression: linearity and

homoscedasticity from data collections. Linearity assumes a straight-line relationship

between the predictor variables and the criterion variable, and homoscedasticity assume

scores, which will have distributed above the regression line (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013.

I conducted an assessment linearity and homoscedasticity by examining scatter plots and

carry out an assessment for issues of multicollinearity using VIFs, where any VIF over 10

may indicate an issue of multicollinearity or high correlation between independent

variables (University of Wollongong, 2014).

Sample Size

Establishing an optimal sample size for this study ensures adequate power to

detect statistical significance (Denscombe, 2014). The sample size is a critical piece of

the puzzle in planning research and using a small sample size will subject the study to

underperformance and leave the results statistically inconclusive (Denscombe, 2014;

Leedy & Ormrod, 2016). Researchers can measure the reliability of the sample size using

the G*Power calculator that populates sample size (Faul et al., 2009). A small sample

size may reduce the chances of detecting the actual effect, showing a statistically

significant result, and lead to inaccurate results which may reflect a true effect

(Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). A small sample size increases the likelihood of Type I

(alpha) and II (beta) errors, which may increase the need for further testing (Nardi, 2018; Leedy & Ormrod, 2016).

Transition and Summary

Section 2 included the purpose of this research study and discussions on the participants, population, sampling, and the methods selected to process collected data and to analyze the data. The study purpose was to examine the relationship between transformational leadership constructs and job satisfaction, using a quantitative correlation approach to examine the variables in the study. The study also included details on Section's 2 required topics of the study.

Section 3 includes the presentation of the findings and applications for the information collected. This last section included and overview of the purpose, the research method and results, applications for business uses, and implications for social change. This section also includes recommendations for action and future research and a summary of the findings.

Section 3: Application to Professional Practice and Implication for Change

Introduction

The purpose of the quantitative, correlational study was to examine the relationship between employees' job satisfaction and their perception of their leader's transformational leadership skills. The independent variables were (a) (IA), (b) (IB), (c) (IS), (d) (IM), and (e) (IC), and the dependent variable was job satisfaction. In this study, I failed to reject the null hypothesis because the leaders' transformational leadership skills significantly predicted employee's job satisfaction.

Table 6

This table list the Transformational Leadership Constructs questions

Transformational leadership factor	MLQ questions	Type of leadership
Idealized attributes	10, 18, 21, 25	Transformational
Idealized behavior	6, 14, 23, 34	Transformational
Inspirational motivation	9, 13, 26, 36	Transformational
Intellectual stimulation	2, 8, 30, 32	Transformational
Individual consideration	15, 19, 29, 31	Transformational

Presentation of Findings

In this section, I will discuss the testing of assumptions, present descriptive and inferential statistical results, provide a theoretical conversation pertaining to findings, and conclude with a succinct summarization. I used bootstrapping of 1,000 samples to

address the possible influence of assumption violations. When bootstrapping, I employed 95% confidence intervals where appropriate.

Test of Assumptions

The assumptions I tested were multicollinearity, outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and the independence of residuals. Bootstrapping, using 1,000 samples, enabled combating the possible influence of assumption violations. My evaluations indicated there were some violations of these assumptions. In the following subsections, I will provide evaluations of each of these assumptions.

Multicollinearity. A multicollinearity evaluation was completed by viewing the correlation coefficient between the predictor variables. All bivariate correlations were moderate to strong (Table 7); therefore, the assumption of multicollinearity showed evidence of violation because all the variables were highly correlated to each other and there was repetition of the same kind of variable. Table 7 contains the correlation coefficients.

Table 7

Correlation Coefficients of Transformational Leadership Theory Constructs

Variable	IA	IB	IM	IS	IC
IA		.479	.617	.389	.598
IB	.479		.462	.355	.360
IM	.617	.462		.371	.519
IS	.389	.355	.371		.376
IC	.598	.360	.519	.376	

Note. N = 92.

Outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals. I

used the normal probability plot (P-P) of regression standardized residual (see Figure 3)

and scatterplot of standardized residuals (see Figure 4) to evaluate the outliers, normality,

linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals. Normally, a straight line (see

Figure 3) from the bottom left to the top right indicates there were no violations;

however, the examinations indicated there were some violations to the assumptions (see

Pallant, 2016). The lack of a clear or systematic pattern in the scatterplot of the

standardized residuals (see Figure 4) supported the tenability of the assumptions being

met. Therefore, I computed 1,000 bootstrapping samples to reduce any possible

assumption of violations and reported 95% confidence intervals based on the bootstrap

samples that were reported where appropriate.
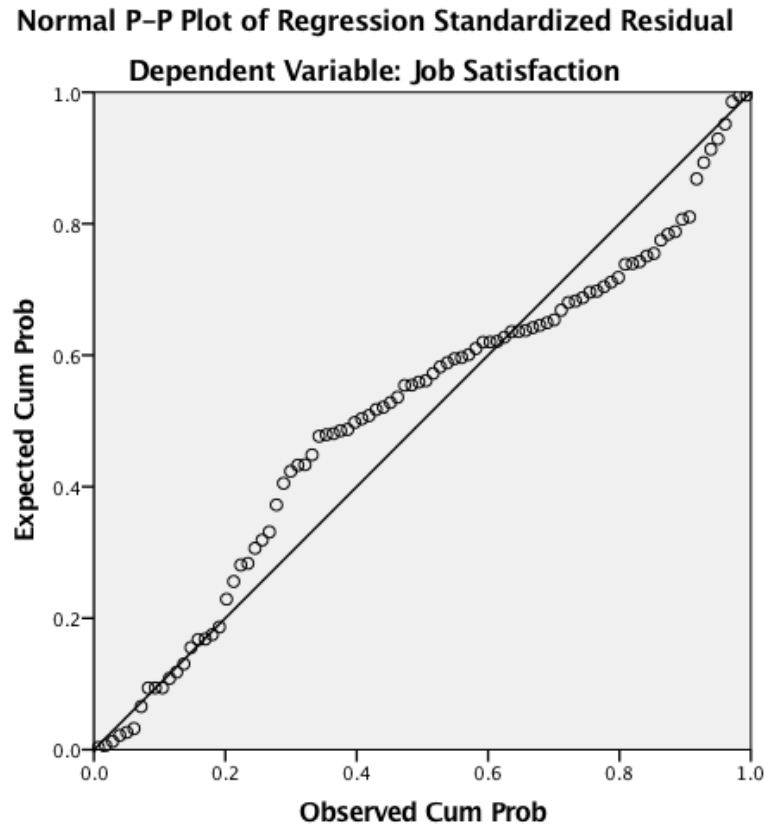
Figure 2. Normal probability plot (P-P) of the regression standardized residuals.
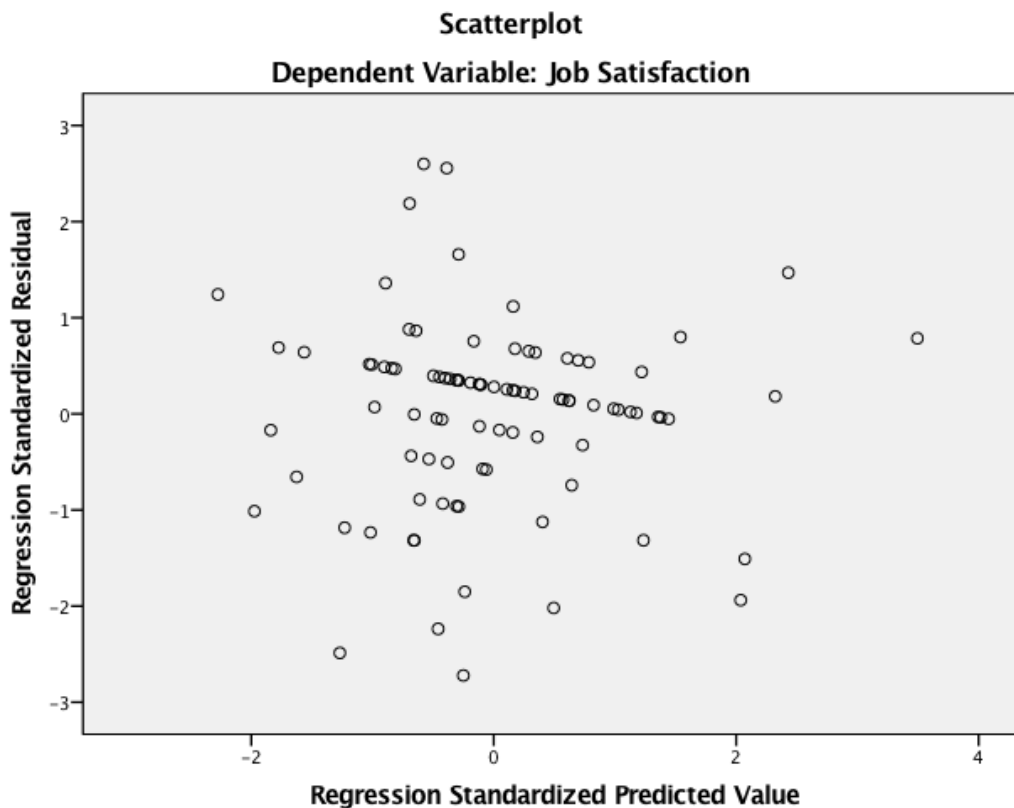
Figure 3. Scatterplot of standardized residuals.

Descriptive Statistics

In total, I received 103 surveys. Eleven were eliminated due to missing data and a priori power analysis indicated a sample size of 92 was suitable for the study, resulting in 92 records for analysis. Table 8 contains the descriptive statistics for the transformational leadership theory constructs and job satisfaction variables.

Table 8

Means and Standard Deviation for Transformational Leadership Theory Constructs

Variable	M	*SD*	Bootstrapped 95% CI (*M*)
Job Satisfaction	13.36	2.26	[12.94-13.83]
IA	12.23	2.35	[11.76-12.70]
IB	10.12	2.54	[9.60-10.63]
IM	11.76	2.77	[11.20-12.29]
IS	9.63	1.99	[9.21-9.99]
IC	12.39	2.33	[11.92-12.90]

Note. N = 92.

Inferential Results

I used standard MLR, where α = (two-tailed), to examine the efficacy of the independent variables of IAs, IBs, IM, IS, and IC in predicting the dependent variable of job satisfaction. The null hypothesis was that IAs, IBs, IM, IS, and IC would not significantly predict job satisfaction. I conducted preliminary analyses to assess whether the assumptions of multicollinearity, outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals were met, and as I mentioned earlier in this section, no serious violations were noted. The model as a whole was able to significantly predict job satisfaction, *F (5, 86) =.968, p = .44, R² (.053).* The R^2 (.053) value indicated that approximately 5.3% of variations in job satisfaction are accounted for by the linear combination of the predictor variables (IAs, IBs, IM, IS, and IC). In the final model, IS were statistically significant (*t = -.1.376, p < .01*), accounting for higher contribution to

the model than IA ($t = -.489, p > .05$), and IB ($t = -.930, p > .05$). IM and IC did not

explain any significant variations in job satisfaction. The final predictive equation was:

Job satisfaction = *13.804-.072(IA) - .105(IB) + .127(IM) -.188(IS) + .146(IC).*

IS. The negative slope for IS (-.188) as a predictor of job satisfaction indicated

there was about an .188 decrease in job satisfaction as IS decreases. In other words, job

satisfaction tends to decrease as IS decreases. The squared semi partial coefficient

indicated a 1% variance in job satisfaction.

IA. The negative slope for IA (-.072) as a predictor of job satisfaction indicated

there was about .072 decrease in job satisfaction as IAs decrease. In other words, job

satisfaction tends to decrease as IAs decreases. The squared semi partial coefficient

indicated a 2% variance in job satisfaction.

IB. The negative slope for IB (-.105) as predictor of job satisfaction indicated

there was about .105 decrease in job satisfaction as IB increases. In other words, job

satisfaction tends to decrease as IB decreases. The squared semi partial coefficient

indicated a 1% variance in job satisfaction.

Table 9

Regression Analysis Summary of Transformational Leadership Theory Constructs

Variables	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*t*	*p*	*B* 95% Bootstrap CI
IA	-.072	.148	-.074	-.489	.626	[-.365-.221]
IB	-.105	.112	-.116	-.930	.355	[-.328-.119]
IM	.127	.117	.154	1.089	.279	[-.105-.360]
IS	-.188	.137	-.164	-1.376	.172	[-.460-.084]
IC	.146	.134	.149	1.089	.279	[-.121-.413]

Note. N = 92.

Analysis summary. The purpose of this study was to examine the efficacy of transformational leadership theory constructs in predicting job satisfaction. I used MLR to examine transformational leadership theory constructs to predict the effects of job satisfaction. Assumptions surrounding MLR were assessed with no serious violations noted. The model as a whole was able to significantly predict job satisfaction effects, *F (5, 86) =.968, p < 0.01, R² (.053)*. IS, IB, and IA provide useful predictive information about job satisfaction. IS, IB, and IA are significantly associated with job satisfaction, even when the remaining constructs are controlled.

Theoretical conversation on findings. The federal government is an enormous workforce; leaders and subordinates have a relationship which is challenged in many different scenarios. Consequently, leaders should be skilled for a variety of changes in their daily duties. My use of the transformational leadership theory as the theoretical

framework was suitable for this study and confirmed there is a relationship between variables. Unbeknownst to many or just not credited, Downton (1973) coined transformational leadership initially as part of rebel leadership for commitment and charisma in the revolutionary process (Burns, Hughes, & By, 2016). Burns (1978) and Bryman (1992) created their versions of transformational leadership from their research. Bass and Avolio (1994, 1995, 2004) and Bass and Riggo (2006) expanded further on the previous research on transformational leadership theory. Burns stated that the use of transformational leadership to build relationships amongst leaders and subordinates encourages honesty and motivation. Helping employees to maximize their knowledge of self and organization are essential skills for transformational leaders (Burns, 1978). According to Asencio and Mujkic, (2016), public sector leaders should acknowledge and exercise inspirational and transformational leadership developing and improving honor with subordinates. The results of this study indicated the model scores were significant predictor of job satisfaction.

Bass's (1985), Bass and Avolio's (1995), and Avolio and Bass's (2004) creation of the MLQs are well-established instruments in measuring and giving the 360-degree method of feedback on transformational leadership (Mind Garden, 2014). Spector's (1985) JSS is renowned for its successful evaluation of employee's job satisfaction using nine areas to rate overall job satisfaction. The use of these two surveys is highly recommended throughout research and scholarly studies to give the most accurate accounts of leadership and job satisfaction (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Spector, 1985). Cited in many studies, documentation of employee's job satisfaction is higher when associated

with transformational leadership (Asencio, 2016; Bromley et al., 2015; Davis, 2014; Kellis & Ran, 2015). Transformational leadership theory constructs, applied to this study, provided an appropriate predictive explanation for job satisfaction.

Applications to Professional Practice

Federal government leaders in other states or agency may use the findings of this study to gain insight on transformational leadership theory and job satisfaction to implement strong skills improvement and leadership training. The focus of the study was transformational leadership theory constructs and job satisfaction amongst federal government leadership and employee job satisfaction. In a pursuit to address the fluctuation in federal government employees' job satisfaction and to identify potential remedies, I focused on the role of transformational leadership theory constructs and how a specific surveyed sample associated with leaders viewed their professional and personal experiences with their particular DOD agencies' leadership. The research question aimed to examine how employees describe their opinions about job satisfaction and their perception of the relationship with their supervisor's leadership styles. Researchers strongly suggested that improvement of job satisfaction is a predictor of practical leadership skills relating to transformational leadership theory (Ascencio & Mujkic, 2016; Kellis & Ran, 2015). Results of this study along with past and current studies are relevant to improve job satisfaction, consequently, enhancing business within federal government agencies (Asencio, 2016; Asencio & Mujkic, 2016; Green et al., 2016). Federal government agencies are public agencies which are pillars in their perspective communities, performing diligently on behalf of its citizens.

A vital part of being a leader is job performance, job satisfaction, and motivating employees', leaders who understand and embrace their leadership styles should integrate their skill into their daily performance and training regime. The developed themes of this study confirm that leadership in some DOD agencies are inconsistent and should be a "red flag" for leaders to take initiatives and be readily aware that inconsistent team leadership is not right and is a hot trend. One of the most effective skills for anybody is communication between leaders and subordinates in any organization.

Implications for Social Change

The implications for social change potentially provide federal government leaders with a clear and better understanding of transformational leadership skills as it relates to transformational leadership theory constructs. The social change implications could possibly lead to improvements in job satisfaction for employees which will increase workforce productivities and increase work/life balance regime for federal employees, to include military personnel. Social change may also benefit as communities continue to work alongside federal government agencies and the military communities. Social changes help build cohesion with organizations and military families. Communication and education are essential for leaders and subordinates. A new and competent approach for leaders toward employee's job satisfaction is a motivation factor for employees and the overall health of the agency. Also, individual actions from employees set a precedence when they are motivated.

Recommendation for Action

This research provided insight into transformational leadership theory constructs as it pertains to job satisfaction in the federal government using transformational leadership model (Avolio & Bass, 2004) as indicated by the response to the MLQ and JSS. Consequently, I would suggest additional areas for further research. The examination of military and civilian culture in the federal government agencies, which will be cause for a different approach since it involves the military. The military communities are made up of a diverse culture, more so than other communities, it consists of global men and women with their set of traditions, experiences, and culture backgrounds, some of which has existed for hundreds of years.

This research should include all agencies (i.e. Department of Treasury, Department of Energy, etc.), assisting the federal government leadership to understand the diverse leadership styles within its agencies. The inclusion of these agencies will assist the executive leadership focus on leadership effectiveness toward job satisfaction, Additionally, more succinct studies are needed more often to assist the senior executive leadership in creating a continuous mandatory training program to improve leaders preferred leadership style.

Reflections

Education and learning have always and continued to be one of my inspirations for my life. Since research is a pathway to learning, it too is a challenging inspiration. Research is a meticulous and challenging journey. This study has educated me

tremendously, opening my mind to a plethora of knowledge and understanding. Each course enhanced my knowledge, encouraging me even more to be open to learning.

Leadership is a diverse platform for a distinct society of leaders. Each person who choses or is chosen to lead should acquaint themselves with their leadership style and continue to improve on their leadership skills. The objective of this study was to examine transformational leadership style constructs and job satisfaction in the specified federal government location. This choice was made because the federal government agencies have a more complex business environment than civilian's business environments, in addition, the researcher's keen interest in leadership. It is no secret that leadership has an impact on job satisfaction. This study was no different in proving the analogy, other than being the federal government, which has certain limitations unless you are a federal employee, who also has limited access; especially if you do not work within the agencies you are studying. Although, I am a federal employee; it was difficult for me to communicate with the leadership outside my agency. The contact I made was more resistant than I anticipated, nevertheless I prevailed.

Conclusion

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine transformational leadership constructs and job satisfaction in the federal government. I collected data using random selection of volunteered participants with in the study area of a metro area in the midwestern United States. The focus of this study was the dwindling and unstable trend of job satisfaction with regards to transformational leadership. Historical records for this study are the yearly FEVS results conducted by the U.S. OPM.

I conducted a survey and during data collection and analyses developed findings supporting OPM results. The findings confirmed leadership is mandatory for maintaining and sustaining a high level of job satisfaction and transformational leadership is the most effective of all the leadership styles.

Transformational leadership theory is supported by five constructs, (a) IA, (b) IB, (c) IS, (d) IM, and (e) IC. This study results indicated participants strongly resonate with IS, then IA and IB. The researched literature about leadership in the federal government revealed that federal government leaders are at their best when using a transformational leadership style (Asencio & Mujkic, 2016). The results indicated participants strongly felt leadership and job satisfaction were critical, even though results show a lower percentage.

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