

Ethical Transformational Leadership in Public Administration

A Dissertation

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the

Degree of Doctorate of Philosophy

with a

Major in Political Science

in the

College of Graduate Studies

University of Idaho

by

Julie A. Crea

Major Professor: Donald Crowley, Ph.D.

Committee Members: William Lund, Ph.D.; Kathryn Canfield-Davis, Ph.D.;

Brian Ellison, Ph.D.

Department Administrator: Graham Hubbs, Ph.D.

May 2018

ProQuest Number:10745781

All rights reserved

INFORMATION TO ALL USERS

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.



ProQuest 10745781

Published by ProQuest LLC (2018). Copyright of the Dissertation is held by the Author.

All rights reserved.

This work is protected against unauthorized copying under Title 17, United States Code
Microform Edition © ProQuest LLC.

ProQuest LLC.
789 East Eisenhower Parkway
P.O. Box 1346
Ann Arbor, MI 48106 – 1346

AUTHORIZATION TO SUBMIT DISSERTATION

This dissertation of Julie Crea, submitted for the degree of Doctorate of Philosophy with a Major in Political Science and titled “Ethical Transformational Leadership in Public Administration,” has been reviewed in final form. Permission, as indicated by the signatures and dates below, is now granted to submit final copies to the College of Graduate Studies for approval.

Major Professor: _____ Date: _____

Donald Crowley, Ph.D.

Committee Members: _____ Date: _____

William Lund, Ph.D.

_____ Date: _____

Kathryn Canfield-Davis, Ph.D.

_____ Date: _____

Brian Ellison, Ph.D.

Department

Administrator: _____ Date: _____

Graham Hubbs, Ph.D.

ABSTRACT

This study further develops the transformational leadership theory and ideals for public leadership with an ethical inclusion by testing whether this addition affects two important organizational outcomes, employee satisfaction and leadership effectiveness in federal agencies. The purpose is to delineate an exceptional model for public leadership. The analysis incorporates four ethics, termed by this exploration as public ethics, as a complementary addition to transformational leadership. Two components, transformational leadership (inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and idealized influence) and individualized consideration, define transformational leadership. The findings suggest that both transformational leadership and public ethics positively relate to employee satisfaction and leadership effectiveness. Furthermore, the study finds that public ethics have a stronger positive relationship to employee satisfaction and leadership effectiveness than transformational leadership and individualized consideration, although transformational leadership better explains the variance in employee satisfaction and individualized consideration better explains leadership effectiveness than public ethics. In addition, the analysis portrays public leaders as low in transformational leadership and public ethics while high in individualized consideration behaviors. Thus, the study suggests that public leaders need to emphasize the development of transformational and ethical leaders to build a more satisfied workforce and effective public leader.

Keywords: leadership, ethics, public administration, public ethics, transformational leader

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Special thanks to my major professor, Dr. Donald Crowley and committee member Dr. William Lund for providing guidance and support during this doctoral journey. Your questions and recommendations improved this work. I would also like to recognize my committee members Dr. Kathryn Canfield-Davis and Dr. Brian Ellison for their advice and valuable feedback. Special thanks to Amanda Pavlov Culley from the Statistical Consulting Center. The countless time she spent assisting me with understanding the necessary statistical processes and reviewing my work is invaluable. Without her patience and guidance, this journey would not have been as successful. Finally, I would like to thank Dr. Gwen Sullivan for the numerous revisions and advice. Each of you have helped me to learn and grow during this process.

DEDICATION

I am forever grateful for the support from my husband, children, and family on this educational adventure. Special thanks to my husband, Shelby, for his unwavering patience, time, and dedication to our family. His double duty as a parent enabled me to balance family, school, and a career while completing this aspect of our life. Thank you to my sister, Jennifer Heitman, for helping to edit my dissertation and for asking great questions.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Authorization to Submit Dissertation	ii
Abstract	iii
Acknowledgements	iv
Dedication.....	v
Table of Contents.....	vi
List of Figures	viii
List of Tables.....	ix
Chapter 1: Introduction.....	1
Background of the Problem.....	2
Statement of the Problem.....	7
Purpose of the Study.....	8
Significance of the Study.....	9
Definition of Terms	10
Theoretical Framework.....	13
Research Question	18
Research Design	18
Limitations of the Study	19
Organization of the Study.....	20
Chapter 2: Ethics and Leadership	22
Ethical Transformational Leadership	22
Ethical Leadership	26
Summary of Public Ethics	39
Public Administration, Transformational Leadership, and Public Ethics	42
Chapter 3: Methodology	60
Data.....	60
Instrumentation.....	61
Data Collection and Analysis	64

Chapter 4: Results	68
Description of Sample	68
Confirmatory Factor Analysis	69
Descriptive Statistics	73
Correlations.....	75
Hypothesis Testing	76
Summary.....	84
Chapter 5: Discussion.....	85
Introduction.....	85
Summary of the Study	85
Discussion of the Findings.....	89
Implications for Practice.....	92
Recommendations for Future Research.....	93
Concluding Remarks and Reflections	97
References.....	98
Appendices.....	115
Appendix A: Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey Questions	115
Appendix B: Descriptive Statistics.....	118
Appendix C: Confirmatory Factor Analysis.....	125
Appendix D: Correlations.....	129
Appendix E: Multiple Regression Analysis	130
Appendix F: Hierarchical Multiple Regression.....	141

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 3.1: Research Model.....	67
Figure 4.1: Priori Factor Structures	70
Figure 4.2: Final Transformational Leadership Factor Structure	71
Figure 4.3: Final Public Ethics Factor Structure	72

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1: Four Components of Transformational Leadership	13
Table 2.1: Ethical Leadership Literature Summary.....	36
Table 2.2: Public Ethics Definition	42
Table 3.1: Transformational Leadership Index	62
Table 3.2: Public Ethics Index.....	63
Table 3.3: Employee Satisfaction Index.....	64
Table 3.4: Leadership Effectiveness Index.....	64
Table 4.1: Demographic Descriptive Statistics	69
Table 4.2: Variable Descriptive Statistics- Frequencies & Medians.....	74
Table 4.3: Satisfaction Hierarchical Multiple Regression Model Summary.....	82
Table 4.4: Leadership Effectiveness Hierarchical Multiple Regression Model Summary ...	83
Table 4.5: Summary of Medians, Correlations, and Multiple Regression Analysis	83
Table 4.6: Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses Summary.....	84

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

An effective government relies on great leadership (Lavigna, 2014). One of the most widely studied and practiced styles of effective leadership within public administration is transformational leadership (Chapman et al., 2016; Trottier, Van Wart, & Wang, 2008). This visionary, energetic, and change oriented style is recognized for contributing to leadership effectiveness and employee satisfaction within federal agencies (Asencio, 2016; Oberfield, 2014; Pandey, Davis, Pandey, & Peng, 2016; Trottier et al., 2008).

However, researchers argue it lacks an ethical aspect necessary for applicability within public administration, though the leading scholar of transformational leadership depicts it as being inherently ethical (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Denhardt & Campbell, 2006; Johnson, 2012). Meanwhile, the field of public administration has evolved greatly in the last century, leading scholars to believe it is time to further develop the area of administrative ethics (Hassan, Wright, & Yukl, 2014; Northouse, 2015). Notably, this is because public organizations are not isolated from unethical behavior. Periodic lapses in good judgement and the elevated role of leaders acting in the public interest necessitates a purposeful focus on ethics. To address these trepidations, this study examines how a multi-dimensional leadership approach, which combines transformational leadership and public ethics, affects U.S. federal agency performance through the measures of employee satisfaction and leadership effectiveness. Literature on ethical leadership styles and ethics in public administration aided in the development of a four dimensional model of what I will call “public ethics,” composed of trust and fairness, community building, sensitivity to diversity, and commitment to public and organizational interests.

BACKGROUND OF THE PROBLEM

The impact of leadership on government performance has been an important topic in the field of public administration. Leaders in federal agencies challenged with taking on new responsibilities and functioning with fewer resources must meet high performance expectations. Meeting these high stakes demands requires an effective leadership style. The federal government's training program, "Leadership for a Democratic Society," calls out transformational leadership as "one of the most significant issues influencing government performance and agency effectiveness," further describing this visionary thinking as "a skillset that distinguishes great executives from good" ("Leadership," 2017, para. 1).

Comparatively, transformational leadership leads to consistently positive outcomes across many sectors and is validated by both scholars and practitioners (Chapman et al., 2016; Fernandez, Cho, & Perry, 2010; Kellis & Ran, 2013; Orazi, Turrini, & Valotti, 2013). However, the main concern for applicability within the public sector is this style's lack of ethical depth. With regards to this concern, a multifaceted approach is key, as scholars recognize that no one leadership style is inclusive enough to address all federal agency environments (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Fernandez et al., 2010; Orazi et al., 2013; Sun & Anderson, 2012).

ETHICS AND TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

To understand the basis for this study, it is important to consider the claim that transformational leadership lacks ethical depth. An early prominent scholar of transformational leadership, political scientist James MacGregor Burns, was primarily concerned with a leader's ethics and virtues. According to Burns (1984, p.102), "the essence of transformational leadership is the capacity to adapt means to ends—to shape and reshape institutions and structures to achieve broad human purposes and moral aspirations."

In short, he was interested in the ethical and moral journey embarked upon by the leader in achieving organizational outcomes. In his opinion, the means by which an organization achieves the outcome are just as important as the outcomes.

In contrast, as subsequent scholars operationalized and further developed the theory of transformational leadership, the means, journey, and ethical aspects are no longer prominent (Bass, 1996). Although Bass's (1995) initial exploration of transformational leadership recognized the leader as being a model of integrity and fairness, he neither elaborated upon nor included this discovery within his prominent model. In Bass's most widely used measure of transformational leadership, the multi-factor leadership questionnaire (MLQ), only one question regarding ethics is included: "considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions" (Bernard M. Bass - Mind Garden, n.d., para. 1). The question is an element of transformational leadership's idealized influence. Even though the MLQ does not incorporate a developed ethical component, its authors embrace the need for ethical leadership in their differentiation between pseudo transformational and transformational leaders (Bass & Steidlmeier, 2004). This differentiation derives from the ethical values embedded within the leader's vision, processes and decisions.

In a similar vein, recent research advocates for augmenting transformational leadership with ethical components (Bass & Steidlmeier, 2004; Olsen, Eid, & Johnsen, 2006; Simola, Barling, & Turner, 2010; Turner, Barling, Epitropaki, Butcher, & Milner, 2002). Specifically, Simola et al. (2010) are interested in the moral foundation of transformational leaders. Similarly, Olsen et al. (2006) and Turner et al. (2002) are interested in the moral reasoning, identity, and behaviors of transformational leaders. Each of these studies found a positive correlation between morals and transformational leadership,

thus recognizing the importance of ethics and morals in understanding transformational leaders.

Furthermore, scholars of the public sector also advocate for these same ethical considerations. For instance, Denhardt and Campbell (2006) allude to ethical public leadership when they suggest that public sector transformational leaders should consider not only the outcomes of change, but also the means leading to change, thus stressing the importance of ethics. This importance resonates with Lynch and Lynch (2009), who call for a reinforcement of ethics within public administration through the development of both individuals and institutions. In their opinion, the very purpose or core of public administration is to maintain morality and care for the public interest (Lynch & Lynch, 2009). Similar to Denhard and Campbell, they stress that the ends do not justify the means, which again reinforces the importance of ethical public leadership.

ETHICAL PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Historical Roots

The desire for ethical public leadership has historical roots dating to Plato, Aristotle, and Confucius (Svara, 2014). Aristotle was concerned not only with understanding what is ethical and virtuous but with practicing and living a virtuous life until it becomes a habit (Hanbury, 2004). Similarly, Thomas Jefferson believed good government is achieved by leaders with great ethics and character (*Thomas Jefferson and the education of a citizen*, 1999). Likewise, John Adams felt a republican government or liberty is not possible without public virtues like those of public good, public interest, honor, and glory within citizens (Sandel, 1998). For the same reason, John F. Kennedy stated:

The ultimate answer to ethical problems in government is honest people in a good ethical environment. No web of statute or regulation, however intricately conceived,

can hope to deal with the myriad of possible challenges to a man's integrity or devotion to the public interest. (as quoted in Frederickson, 1993, p. 137)

Present Day

These sentiments resonate with Cox (2009) who recognizes the key to good management in public administration is good ethics. Presently, ethical management concerns stem from a popular 1980's public leadership approach adopted from the private sector. New Public Management (NPM) is a business like leadership model focused on performance measures and outcomes. In Kellis & Ran's (2015) review of 41 articles, the common theme was "NPM-like reforms in the civil service have resulted in leadership approaches that are a mismatch for the unique organizational structure, the complexity of challenges, and the access to power and authority that characterize the public service" (p. 616). While the approach was widely effective, this style contributed to unethical management within organizations primarily due to its focus on hierarchic, value neutral, and outcomes based leadership, which allows the ends to justify the means (Kellis & Ran, 2015).

In contrast to the NPM approach, the means are primary for ethical leadership. Ethical leadership is shown to build the public's trust and confidence in public agencies and lead to positive organizational performance (Menzel, 2015). Moreover, this style's advocated components of integrity and diversity are required for entry into the U.S. government's Senior Executive Service and recognized as critical traits for leaders ("Senior Executive Service," n.d.). Furthermore, high moral character and ethical practices are essential for public leaders to be role models for others (Hanbury, 2004).

ETHICAL LAPSES IN FEDERAL AGENCIES

Ethical challenges reported within the public sector reinforce the need to focus on ethical and effective leadership, thus providing better role models. To illustrate, Katz (2014)

describes federal agency challenges concerning discrimination, public trust, and the public interest. For instance, in 2012, federal employees filed 15,000 discrimination complaints; ironically, the agency responsible for enforcing employment and discrimination laws had the third highest number of complaints. Consequently, racial discrimination is one of the most frequent complaints. Equally troubling, the department responsible for monitoring employment, the U.S. Dept. of Labor, ranks fourth highest in discrimination complaints and is recognized as one of the worst places to work in the federal government. These complaints are both ethically and fiscally disturbing because of the cost to the public. Settling these cases equated to \$51.4 million and an additional \$19 million in appeals.

The most compelling evidence of ethical leadership challenges involves trust and the public interest (Bronstein & Griffin, 2014; Greenhouse, 2012; Perez, 2015; Rein & Davidson, 2012). In particular, the Veterans Affairs agency compromised the public's trust in 2014 when they misrepresented wait times for veterans to see a doctor. This ethical lapse resulted from pressures for better organizational performance. Moreover, the National Labor Relations Board compromised public and organizational interest by leaking information in 2012, and the General Services Administration excessively spent tax dollars on employee training in 2010, resulting in a misuse of public funds.

Though not representative of all federal agencies, these brief examples bring opportunities for improved leadership strategies to the forefront. After all, agencies and leaders at times do not act as expected, resulting in unethical climates as previously described. Behn (1998) conveys that agencies are not always predictable due to human and not mechanical leadership. Additionally, the many layers of leadership within an agency create even greater unpredictability and further contributes to potential ethical lapses. In

short, there are leaders at many levels in an agency; therefore, these examples amplify the importance and the need for a structured, consistent, effective, and ethical public leadership approach.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Poor public leadership directly affects employee satisfaction and government performance. Since 2006, a Gallup poll has ranked poor government leadership in all branches in the top four most concerning U.S. problems, and even more disturbing, it was the top problem in 2014 surpassing apprehensions about the U.S. economy (Saad, 2015). Furthermore, federal government job satisfaction declined four years in a row and reached an all-time low in 2014, while satisfaction in the private sector increased (“The Big Picture,” n.d.). A 2008 interview with a former Central Intelligence Agency executive helps to explain this phenomenon. The interviewee reported that the government hires for technical and not management skills; therefore, government performance and employees suffer (Robison, 2008).

This is particularly disturbing since leadership is the top driver of employee satisfaction within the federal government (Lavigna, 2014). Satisfaction matters in an agency because it is associated with important organizational outcomes such as high motivation, effort beyond expectations, and low absenteeism and turnover, which in turn, positively affect organizational performance (Choi & Rainey, 2010; S. M. Park & Rainey, 2008; Wright & Davis, 2003; K. Yang & Kassekert, 2010). Moreover, the private sector offers greater rewards and pay; therefore, job satisfaction in itself is part of the competitive value of working for the federal government (Asencio, 2016; Tobias, 2000). Furthermore, the federal government has lost many quality employees due to dissatisfaction in the work

place, and the onset of retiring baby boomers is compounding this loss (Asencio, 2016). Trottier et al. (2008) feel that employee satisfaction is important for federal agencies because employees themselves are critical, suggesting that satisfaction is an end in itself. In addition to this, Park & Rainey (2008) argue that satisfied employees are more likely to engage with others and accept organizational goals, which in turn enhances organizational performance. These reasons alone stress the need to build a more satisfied workforce to improve governmental performance (Asencio, 2016).

When put into perspective, a satisfied workforce of 2.6 million civil servants matters (“Total Government Employment Since 1962,” n.d.). Currently, relatively few studies address the leadership that drives this enormous labor force. Empirical research only broaches the desire for a structured ethical and effective public leadership approach. Initial research is promising with regards to ethical and transformational leadership’s positive effects in the public sector (Asencio, 2016; Koh & Boo, 2001; Trottier et al., 2008; Ulrich et al., 2007; Vitell & Davis, 1990). However, no comprehensive empirical study within the public sector exists that explores public ethics and transformational leadership. Thus, it drives the question of whether a multifaceted approach leads to exceptional public management and improves leadership effectiveness and employee satisfaction. This is particularly important given that leadership and employee satisfaction are top drivers of agency performance, and both are recognized as needing improvement (Saad, 2015; “The Big Picture,” 2015).

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to argue for the establishment of a public leadership theory supported by two principles, transformational leadership and the elements of public

ethics, which will better equip public leaders to function in a complex environment. Ideally, this exceptional form of public leadership will enhance organizational performance through increases in employee satisfaction and leadership effectiveness. Additionally, the research expands upon Bass's transformational leadership model by including public ethics that fit within the ideals of a public administrator (Bass, 1985). Transformational leadership's lack of a developed ethical aspect is deliberately addressed (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Brown, Treviño, & Harrison, 2005; Price, 2003; Schuh, Zhang, & Tian, 2013; Sendjaya, 2005; Toor & Ofori, 2009). Hence, a major focus of this investigation is the public ethics of trust and fairness, community building, sensitivity to diversity, and a commitment to public and organizational interests. The study uses data from the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey (FEVS) to examine outcomes as they relate to the principles of transformational leadership and public ethics.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The analysis is significant as it contributes to a better understanding of effective public leadership and further develops the applicability of transformational leadership. A practical perspective such as this exploration is critical, as unethical and ineffective leadership within the federal government equates to millions of dollars in lawsuits, low employee satisfaction, and unnecessary employee turnover (Caillier, 2016; Katz, 2014; Saad, 2015). Furthermore, the insights from this study may benefit federal leadership programs, seasoned public administrators, employees, and future researchers.

To the author's knowledge, this is one of the few recent empirical studies to investigate the relationship between transformational leadership and ethics in federal agencies. In a review of the literature, only five studies at the federal level in the last decade

explored transformational leadership in direct relation to ethics (Hannah, Jennings, Bluhm, Peng, & Schaubroeck, 2014; Kellis & Ran, 2013; Pandey et al., 2016). These studies find key relationships between transformational leaders and their ethics, along with the promotion of ethical behaviors in employees. In short, the research focuses on the employee's ethical orientation and not the leader's, which is of interest in this study.

In essence, the studies allude to the promising effects of ethical transformational leadership but only breach the surface of the proposed study. Therefore, there is a need for further empirical evidence on the inter-relationship between transformational leadership, ethics, and agency performance. As a result, this study may contribute valuable insights for an effective public leadership style while building upon the transformational leadership theory.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

To avoid confusion, this study provides definitions for the four variables of interest. The dependent variables, employee satisfaction and leadership effectiveness, are operational definitions applied by public administration scholars who utilized the same survey data as this study. The independent variable, public ethics, is a multi-dimensional construct developed by this study through research on ethics and leadership. The second independent variable, transformational leadership, is an existing construct defined by its leading research scholar.

EMPLOYEE SATISFACTION

Employee satisfaction relates to individual satisfaction with the organization and job and whether the employee recommends the organization as a good place to work (Cho & Lee, 2011; Ko & Hur, 2014; Trottier et al., 2008).

LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS

Leadership effectiveness is an individual perception of whether the supervisor and upper management are doing a good job (Trottier et al., 2008).

PUBLIC ETHICS

There are four components encompassed within public ethics: trust and fairness, community building, sensitivity to diversity, and a commitment to public and organizational interests.

Trust and Fairness

Trust and fairness is determined by whether or not the leader is perceived as acting in a fair, equitable, and predictable manner when making decisions and choices (Asencio, 2016; Kalshoven, Den Hartog, & De Hoogh, 2011; Northouse, 2015; Yukl, Mahsud, Hassan, & Prussia, 2013).

Community Building

Community building is fostering positive relationships, a sense of engagement, and community within an organization (Denhardt & Campbell, 2006; Rego, Cunha, & Oliveira, 2008; Spears, 2004; Whitehead, 2009).

Sensitivity to Diversity

Sensitivity to diversity is accepting and respecting others views, beliefs, and values while striving to integrate diverse persons and ideas within an organization (Fernandez et al., 2010; Greenleaf, 1977; Northouse, 2015).

Public and Organizational Interest

A commitment to public and organizational interests involves serving in the interest of others for the benefit of the organization and the public, and specifically not self-interest (De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2008; Denhardt & Campbell, 2006).

TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

According to Bass and Avolio's (1990) theory, transformational leadership focuses on the behaviors of the leader that directly influence and affect the employee. In short, a transformational leader is someone who challenges existing processes, inspires a shared vision, encourages others to act, is a role model, and initiates change (Lester, 2007). Furthermore, a transformational leader motivates, empowers, and develops employees while encouraging critical thinking. In essence, charisma defines the transformational leader who exemplifies the energy and vision to drive change and innovation within an organization, thus reshaping the culture.

The transformational leadership model consists of four constructs: idealized influence, individualized consideration, inspirational motivation, and intellectual stimulation (Bass, 1985). The first two aspects involve the leader's behavior and character. As such, inspirational motivation is an infectious high personal energy, the ability to attain employee loyalty and instill a vision for others to follow. A leader with idealized influence has an elevated behavior or attitude which is a source of admiration, role modeling, and attaining extra effort from employees (Bass & Bruce J. Avolio, 1990). Idealized influence also describes a charismatic and persuasive leader that others seek to emulate, similar to Weber's and House's charismatic leader (Bass & Riggio, 2006; House, 1977). Idealized influence is the component within this model that encompasses an ethical element with the notion that a leader is "counted on to do the right thing, demonstrating high standards of ethical and moral conduct" (Bass & Riggio, 2006, p. 6).

The latter leadership aspects are outward facing towards employee growth and development. In particular, a leader committed to individualized consideration encourages personal and professional development, coaches, and responds based on individual needs.

This particular aspect relates to high levels of employee satisfaction based on the perception of care for others. Similarly, an intellectually stimulating leader is someone who encourages critical thinking, creative problem solving, and self-empowerment in employees while encouraging others to support the new values and beliefs created through this process.

These four components make up Bass's transformational leader.

Table 1.1: Four Components of Transformational Leadership

Leader Focused	
Inspirational Motivation	Visionary leader with an infectious personality that elicits loyalty within employees
Idealized Influence	When the leader becomes a role model that elicits extra effort and admiration from employees. Also described as a charismatic leader.
Employee Focused	
Individualized Consideration	Leader encourages employees' personal and professional development and acts as a coach based on individual needs
Intellectual Stimulation	Encourages critical thinking, problem solving, and self-empowerment in employees and the embracing of new values.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

This research expands upon the existing theory of transformational leadership developed by Bernard Bass (Bass, 1985). Transformational leadership has evolved over the years with early depictions expressly concerned with the transformation of the employee into an elevated self, both morally and professionally (Burns, 1978). Comparatively, later scholars focused on the transformational leader's personal charisma and influence on employees (House, 1977). Recent and widely cited depictions by Bass and Avolio (1990) concentrate on the transformational leader as a change agent for the organization and someone concerned with innovation over the status quo (Bass & Avolio, 1990). Within this

depiction, authors widely agree the current model does not differentiate between ethically good and bad leaders (Bass & Riggio, 2006). For this reason, Burns reserves the term “leadership” for the primary focus of doing good while other terms like “tyrant” and “despot” for the negative behaviors of leaders (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Positive Federal Outcomes

Overall, this change agent contributes to positive organizational outcomes in U.S. federal agencies, as evident in a review of studies within the last 20 years. For example, findings reveal transformational leadership contributes to increases in employee satisfaction, empowerment, performance, and leadership effectiveness (Asencio, 2016; Caillier, 2013; Hill, Seo, Kang, & Taylor, 2011; Moynihan, Pandey, & Wright, 2012; Oberfield, 2014; S. M. Park & Rainey, 2008; Trottier et al., 2008). Furthermore, transformational leadership leads to positive organizational changes in culture and commitment, commitment to change, goal clarity, group cohesion, potency (group self-esteem), public service oriented motivation, turnover intentions, employee cooperation, and work quality (Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003; Hill et al., 2011; Moynihan et al., 2012; Oberfield, 2014; Park & Rainey, 2007). The research presents evidence of transformational leadership’s many positive effects, which contribute to better agency performance.

Similarly, transformational leadership has a positive effect on the dependent variables of interest in this study. For instance, this leadership style affects 72.5% of the variance in follower satisfaction, 70.9% in leadership effectiveness, and 9% in public service motivation which reflects the public interest (Trottier et al., 2008; Wright, Moynihan, & Pandey, 2012). These effects are related to transformational leadership’s empowerment of employees, creation of self-managed teams, and supportive environments (Park & Rainey, 2007). Additionally, the transformational leader’s ability to change employees’ beliefs,

assumptions, and behaviors is conducive to a positive organizational culture (Moynihan et al., 2012).

Federal Transformational Leadership and Ethical Employees

Several investigations find a link between ethics and transformational leadership. However, most focus on the ethical behavior of employees and not the leader, though employees are thought to reflect the leader's behavior (Pandey et al., 2016). The studies conclude that transformational leaders promote ethical employee behaviors. As such, Hannah et al. (2014) researched the link between transformational leadership, duty orientation, and ethical behavior. In this case, transformational leaders who encourage duty orientation in employees also promote ethical employee behaviors. Similarly, Pande et al. (2016) discovered the importance of value congruence in mediating the relationship between transformational leadership and employees' normative public values such as the public interest. Their research also provides evidence that a transformational leader's strong communication of values and organizational vision is instrumental to an ethical culture.

Federal Transformational and Ethical Leaders

While the previous inquiries explore employee ethics, this section focuses on the leader's ethics. In brief, a leader's ethical orientation and transformational leadership behavior is found to contribute to better performance and outcomes in federal agencies. To depict this, Kellis and Ran (2013) describe the need for authentic (ethically based), distributed, and transformational leadership as ideal tenets for public administrators. In their opinion, a leader should have consistent values, ethics, and actions to deal with the high level of discretion and accountability in the public sphere. Although not portraying specific ethical components, their research illustrates the value of a combined leadership approach which positively affects job, organizational, and leader-related outcomes (Kellis & Ran,

2013). Additionally, trust in a leader, which is of interest in this study, is considered an antecedent to transformational leadership (Asencio, 2016; Asencio & Mujkic, 2016).

Theoretical Development

Research demonstrates strong linkages between ethics and transformational leadership, but the conceptualizations are broad and encompass a wide array of interests. In addition, the key components revolve around the moral underpinnings of the leader, such as how the leader encourages ethical behaviors in employees. Thus, the findings indicate there are many intersections unexplored between transformational leadership and ethics. The current study advances the existing transformational leadership theory by considering a desire of scholars to emphasize ethics and further enhance organizational performance. Moreover, it compliments transformational leadership by distinguishing between good and bad charismatic leaders, or pseudo transformational leaders as described in the next chapter.

PUBLIC ETHICS

Commonalities in the literature describe the most valued and applicable ethics to compliment transformational leadership. Research reveals the relevant and recurring leadership ethics of trust and fairness, community building, sensitivity to diversity, and a concern for public and organizational interests. This study refers to these as “public ethics.”

The components of public ethics are prominent within the defining characteristics of other leadership models such as servant, authentic, ethical, integrated, spiritual, responsible, and public transformational leaders (Brown et al., 2005; Dexter-Lynch, 2004; Fernandez et al., 2010; Northouse, 2015; Pitts, 2009; Rego et al., 2008; Whitehead, 2009). Individually, public ethics are shown to aid in effective leadership and greater employee satisfaction within federal agencies (Brown et al., 2005; Choi & Rainey, 2010; Lewicki, Sheppard, Poland, & Minton, 1997; Pitts, 2009; Quader, 2011; Trottier et al., 2008).

As an example, trust in leaders is shown to contribute to 57% of the variance in federal employee job satisfaction (Asencio, 2016). In addition, trust slightly mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction (Asencio, 2016; Braun, Peus, Weisweiler, & Frey, 2013). Likewise, job satisfaction increases with perceptions of fair leadership (Cho & Sai, 2012; Choi, 2012).

Similar to trust, diversity also effects federal agencies. Diversity oriented leadership is a contributor to positive increases in agency performance (Fernandez et al., 2010). Likewise, job climates conducive to diversity are positively related to job satisfaction (Choi, 2012; Pitts, 2009). In opposition to these findings, a higher proportion of racial/ethnic minorities and women in managerial positions is found to be negatively related to employee job satisfaction unless they belong to one of these groups (Choi, 2012). Choi (2012) argues that the interaction and communication variances between people from different social categories contributes to this negative perception.

While studies of public leadership support the inclusion of the first two public ethics, research in the areas of public and organizational interests and community building is lacking. Though public administration scholars frequently describe public interest as critical, and the American Society for Public Administration references this amongst its code of ethics, little empirical research exists to support this desire (Denhardt & Campbell, 2006; Lynch & Lynch, 2009). One loosely related study of managers in Singapore provides some support with their finding that a leader's concern for the welfare of others and the collective good is associated with higher levels of job satisfaction (Koh & Boo, 2001).

Community building also lacks empirical research though six other models of leadership styles reference it as an important ethical leadership behavior. One supporting

study of federal employees did find that relationship building, as a component of an integrated leadership model, contributes to positive organizational performance (Fernandez et al., 2010). As evident, the last two components of public ethics lack research; therefore, there is an opportunity to address a noticeable gap in the literature.

In general, research indicates that both transformational leadership and ethical behaviors are important contributors to positive federal agency outcomes. However, scholars recognize that transformational leadership in itself is not sufficient. Therefore, the study seeks to remedy this concern.

RESEARCH QUESTION

One major question guides the study: what is the effect of leadership style on organizational performance? In an effort to seek the answer and contribute to the literature on leadership in public administration, the exploration specifically addresses the following operationalized research questions:

Q1. To what extent, if any, does combining transformational leadership and public ethics predict employee satisfaction in federal agencies?

Q2. To what extent, if any, does combining transformational leadership and public ethics predict leadership effectiveness in federal agencies?

RESEARCH DESIGN

This quantitative non-experimental correlational study uses data from the 2014 Federal Employee Viewpoint survey with a response of 392,752 federal government employees from 82 agencies. The four operationalized variables (leadership effectiveness, employee satisfaction, public ethics, and transformational leadership) consist of scores from 30 questions within the 118-question survey. Transformational leadership is measured with

respect to Bass' four I's and mirrors other researchers who used the same survey (Asencio & Mujkic, 2016, 2016; Y. J. Cho & Sai, 2012; Kellis & Ran, 2013; Trottier et al., 2008). The measure of public ethics aligns with researchers who used the same survey to measure relationship building, cooperation, diversity, and trust and fairness (Asencio, 2016; Asencio & Mujkic, 2016; Cho & Lee, 2011; Cho & Sai, 2012; Choi, 2012; Fernandez et al., 2010; Ko & Hur, 2014; Pitts, 2009; K. Yang & Kassekert, 2010). Of particular interest is exploring the extent in which elements of transformational leadership and public ethics lead to the positive organizational outcomes of employee satisfaction and leadership effectiveness. A multiple regression analysis, measuring individual perceptions and aggregated at the federal level, is appropriate for the current study to determine the predictive relationship between the variables and is consistent with other researchers (Asencio, 2016; Kellis & Ran, 2013; Oberfield, 2014).

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The analysis recognizes several limitations. The primary limitation is the use of an existing survey and constructing variables from the items. However, secondary analysis employing the same large-scale government data set has increasing support in the social sciences and public administration literature (Asencio & Mujkic, 2016; Cho & Lee, 2011; Cho & Sai, 2012; Choi, 2012; Kellis & Ran, 2013; Ko & Hur, 2014; Pitts, 2009; Trottier et al., 2008; K. Yang & Kassekert, 2010). Additionally, the Federal Employee Viewpoint survey is a nationally validated design that aligns well with Bass' multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ), which is a widely used measure of transformational leadership ("Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire - Mind Garden," 2015). Conversely, it is important to note that the design of the Federal Employee Viewpoint survey does not specifically

measure transformational leadership and public ethics, and is at times measuring general perceptions about agencies and not necessarily perceptions regarding the supervisor; therefore, the measures used are limited in comparison to the MLQ.

Furthermore, results cannot be generalized outside of the federal workforce according to researchers, as contextual variables play an important role (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996). Research suggests there may be threats of multicollinearity within Bass' model and the four I's; however, it does meet tolerance tests (Rafferty & Griffin, 2004; Trottier, Van Wart, & Wang, 2008). Moreover, single-source data is used for transformational leadership and public ethics which might lead to a possible common method bias, and these are only measured from the employee's perspective (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005). Each of these aspects are recognized and given adequate consideration when interpreting the results.

ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

Four additional chapters follow. Chapter two presents a review of transformational leadership and public ethics literature. The chapter continues with a venture into ethics in leadership and public administration while seeking to validate this study's choice of the core components of public ethics. I also describe research on the connection between public ethics, transformational leadership, and public administration. The chapter concludes with the hypotheses.

Chapter three describes the methodology used for this research study. It includes the data source, selection of participants, instrumentation, and data analysis procedures.

Chapter four presents the results of the statistical analysis, including demographic information, a confirmatory factor analysis, and the multi-variate regression. Chapter five

includes a summary and discussion of the findings, implications for practice, and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2: ETHICS AND LEADERSHIP

The purpose of this chapter is to augment studies of transformational leadership and form a foundation for the inclusion of an ethical aspect deemed pertinent for public administration. The first section develops the desire for ethical transformational leadership through a discussion of the origins of the theory and present day scholarship. Following this, I will consider other ethical leadership styles that provide openings to the exploration into ethics. Next, a discussion of ethics within public administration presents additional viewpoints to assist with a conceptual base for public ethics. The chapter concludes with evidence of the effectiveness of both transformational leadership and public ethics, which leads to the hypotheses.

ETHICAL TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

The origins of the transformational leadership theory and current scholarship explain why ethics are important to consider in conjunction with this style. The primary issue is why the focus should be on the path of the leader in lieu of the outcome. The section begins with the original scholar of transformational leadership and continues with the leading scholar who developed a measurable scale. Lastly, additional scholars support the need for ethical transformational leadership.

EARLY SCHOLAR

The earliest scholar of transformational leadership, James MacGregor Burns, defines a transformational leader as morally elevated, similar to present scholars such as Hollander (2004), Johnson (2012), and Ciulla (2004). He describes the purpose of the transformational leader as connecting leaders and employees with each other through a common purpose and in ways that elevate each other to higher levels of motivation and morality (Burns, 1978).

Burns felt leadership was primarily a moral aspect concerned with values, purposes, and ends beyond the mere practicality of needs and results. He relates the development of leaders and followers to Maslow's hierarchy of needs in which the maturation process moves past basic needs to more elevated decision-making. At the peak of this elevation is a concern for justice, equity, and humanity. Additionally, values such as fairness, civility, tolerance, openness, and respect for the dignity of others are pivotal in transformational leaders (Burns, 1978). This ethical obligation is the cornerstone of Burns' transformational leader in which leaders and employees engage in a manner that raises each other's motivations and morality (Johnson, 2012).

Importantly, Burns (1978) recognizes that there are charismatic and transformational leaders who are equally influential and successful, but who have very different effects on society. This is a pivotal thought on transformational leadership and one not emphasized by subsequent scholars. As an illustration, a charismatic leader such as Hitler was successful in his aspirational goals, but also happened to devastate an entire society. With this recognition, there is a need to differentiate between ethically good and bad transformational leaders. Unfortunately, as Bass expanded upon Burns' original conception, he was remiss in the development of a key component of Burns' theory, that of ethics and morality.

LEADING SCHOLAR

However, Bass shares Burns' general sentiments for transformational leadership though his theory lacks this moral and aspirational purpose. Bass's transformational leadership model includes one element that shows some influence of ethics, and that is idealized influence. Idealized influence includes elements where the leader is a role model for employees and demonstrates ethical and moral behaviors, yet the model does not further clarify or elaborate.

In agreement with other scholars, Bass and Steidlmeier (1999, 2004) seek to recognize the ethical components necessary to distinguish between ethical or authentic transformational leaders and unethical or pseudo transformational leaders. As such, authentic transformational leaders have a moral compass, whereas immoral leaders, termed pseudo transformational leaders, do not. Moreover, transformational leadership is inherently linked to and grounded in ethics and morals, such as concerns for liberty, utility, distributive justice, trust, congruence in values, and cooperative action. The authors further elaborate on the leader's moral components as having a concern and respect for others, treating them as more than a means to an end, and empowering them. Additionally, authentic transformational leaders should cultivate honesty, loyalty, fairness, equality, and human rights. They also conclude that there is a delicate balance between individual and community good, which includes people coming together in cooperation based on shared values, interests, and social choice to achieve a common good. Therefore, the transcendence of individual's interests for the interests of the community or organization. In their opinion, the absence of these kinds of morals and ethics is what leads to pseudo transformational leaders.

Meanwhile, they iterate that authentic transformational leaders need to incorporate a core set of moral values but caution that values are relative to culture and context (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). According to them, this ethical relativism poses the greatest leadership challenge and drives their reluctance to develop core ethics. As a result, Bass's early work on transformational leadership did not strive for a moral foundation, whereas his later scholarship calls for this inclusion though he has not theoretically developed it due to a commitment to relativism.

OTHER SCHOLARS

In agreement with the previous scholars, Johnson (2012) argues that the problem with the current model of transformational leadership is that it does not discriminate between an ethically good or bad leader. Consequently, Johnson advocates for an authentic transformational leader who values liberty, equality, and justice. This version of an authentic transformational leader is characterized as creating an ethical climate, promoting cooperation, being authentic, coaching, and mentoring. On the contrary, pseudo-transformational leaders are viewed as manipulative and self-centered while treating employees as a means to an end. Additionally, pseudo transformational leaders are characterized by promoting special interests while compromising the common good, fostering competitiveness, pursuing personal goals, and fermenting greed and envy. Similar to Burns, Johnson also argues that Bass's transformational leader puts goals and tasks before the values that steer these objectives. In short, while these authors explore and describe two distinct ethical and unethical types of transformational leaders, there is no empirical research exploring this distinction.

Additional authors recognize that leadership is a moral action and call for an inclusion of ethics within transformational leadership (Denhardt & Campbell, 2006; Olsen, Eid, & Johnsen, 2006; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990; Price, 2003; Simola et al., 2010; Turner et al., 2002; Whitehead, 2009). For example, Denhardt and Campbell assert that transformational leadership needs to include consideration for democracy, liberty, and justice. Accordingly, the consideration of these values is pivotal for changes in society and working towards a more democratic public service. Denhardt and Campbell (2006) agree and state:

If we ascribe to the idea that transformational leadership in the public sector should involve attention to both the accomplishment of change and moral questions as originally suggested by Burns, then it is a natural progression to extend his model to deal with the question of citizenship and the public interest. (p. 566)

In their model for public administration, termed the “public transformational leader,” they include components such as engagement, ethics, networks of relationships, public interest, citizenship, and democratic values to address their concerns (Denhardt & Campbell, 2006). Like other scholars, they feel that you cannot separate these values and morals from leadership because doing so separates the means and ends.

In general, there is agreement that transformational leadership should include an ethical component to elevate and distinguish it from unintended behaviors and pseudo transformational leaders. Scholars widely advocate for ethics such as honesty or trust, justice or fairness and a sense of equality. Furthermore, the idea of the public interest is stressed as a public leadership ideal (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Denhardt & Campbell, 2006). Additionally, Burns’ respect for the dignity of others plays into a sensitivity to diversity and those different from the leader. These leading scholars of transformational leadership provide ideas for inclusion but stop short of dictating a new theoretical framework that would lend itself to empirical research.

ETHICAL LEADERSHIP

Ethical leadership theories provide an already developed avenue and frame of reference to explore ethical components complimentary to transformational leadership in public administration. Several prominent models of private sector leadership embrace ethical components, such as servant, authentic, spiritual, and ethical leadership. In addition,

there are ethical models specific to public administration such as integrated leadership, new public leadership, and integrations with transformational leadership. The ethical considerations within these public sector styles share many similarities with the private sector models. They also have diverse concerns, which creates a challenge to more narrowly define public ethics. However, one element unique to the public sector is the idea of the public interest. While the public interest is not of direct concern, private sector leadership models still allude to it through characteristics such as the care for others, collaboration, and doing what is best for the organization. Public sector models must be more explicit on this issue.

Overall, each of these models provides an array of values deemed ideal for leadership in both the public and private sector. Prominently represented within these styles are the public ethics of trust and fairness, community building, sensitivity to diversity, and a commitment to public and organizational interests.

While each of these leadership styles share multiple dimensions they also have distinctions, such as servant leadership in which the employees are of the utmost importance and authentic leadership where self-exploration is primary. The review begins with these two more prominent leadership styles.

ETHICAL LEADERSHIP STYLES

Servant Leadership

Servant leadership is one of the first theories to instill a strong focus on moral and integrity based leadership. The term servant leadership was originally introduced by Robert Greenleaf in 1970 (Parris & Peachey, 2013). Servant leadership is an emerging and evolving model of leadership that seeks first and foremost to serve others (Greenleaf, 1977).

Servant leadership was developed in the same era as Bernard Bass's transformational

leadership theory, but unlike Bass's model, servant leadership did not have a well-defined and agreed upon construct to operationalize. Therefore, it has not achieved the same level of prominence (Parris & Peachey, 2013). The servant leader is described as leading with a sense of values, morals, and fairness while being accepting of others and building community (Greenleaf, 1977; Parris & Peachey, 2013; Spears, 2004). Like other leadership theories such as Bass's transformational leader, Spears (2004) considers a leader's ability to be visionary, or to "dream great dreams" (p. 9), as important in balancing daily routines and future needs.

This evolving conceptual framework for servant leadership overlaps with transformational leadership on many facets such as developing others, vision for the organization, competence of the leader, and modeling behaviors. Notably, Latham recognizes this overlap and questions why these two models have not merged. He argues that once a new leadership model emerges, it rarely goes extinct, but rather it continues to develop while paths may be merging with other models. Latham (2014) further states, "while transformational leadership has been widely successful, it appears to be incomplete for the challenges facing current leaders and does not prevent abuses of power and allows for the ends to justify the means" (p. 13). He argues that servant leadership is the alternative model to address this weakness because, like other scholars, he recognizes that transformational leadership is missing a key ethical component to reduce the threat of unscrupulous leadership.

Authentic Leadership

The servant leader is similar to models of the authentic leader who leads with a sense of values, morals, fairness, and community building, all while seeking to be true to oneself (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Henderson & Hoy, 1983; Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner,

Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008; Whitehead, 2009). Authentic leadership is also in close relation to other theories such as transformational leadership. While conceptually related, the purpose of the authentic leader is more innately self-reflection and self-growth, whereas other forms of leaders such as transformational and servant are directed externally towards others' growth and development.

Evidence demonstrates the importance of this leadership model and, specifically, how this ethical model performs in relation to transformational leadership. A survey of 178 full-time evening MBA students at two large southwestern universities found that authentic leadership, when measured in conjunction with transformational and ethical leadership, accounted for an additional unique variance in supervisory satisfaction, organizational citizenship behaviors, and organizational commitment (Walumbwa et al., 2008). This research supports the unique role of ethics with regards to transformational leadership.

Interestingly, another study places authentic leadership as an antecedent to transformational leadership. The study of 91 mid-level managers attending a Midwestern university revealed that authentic behavior in leaders contributes to the perception of transformational leadership by employees (Spitzmuller & Ilies, 2010). The overarching idea is of authenticity, or ethical forms of leadership, being a root concept for other theories such as servant leadership. In a similar fashion, a caution of the study and also noted in other research, is whether the high correlations are due to overlapping constructs between authenticity and transformational leadership or whether authentic leadership is truly an antecedent of transformational leadership; several authors conclude the latter (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Spitzmuller & Ilies, 2010).

Ethical Leadership

Ethical leadership is of significant interest since it encompasses most of the public ethics. An ethical leader has broad values and behaviors that include trust, honesty, integrity, altruism, tolerance, compassion, fairness, justice, and forgiveness (Brown et al., 2005; De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2008; Greenberg, 2007; Kalshoven et al., 2011; Lawton & Páez, 2015; Lewicki et al., 1997; Yukl et al., 2013). Lawton and Páez (2015) add the elements of authenticity, public interest, and moral courage to the vast list of virtues already described by other scholars.

Providing support for public ethics in particular is Northouse's work, which most closely resembles each of the elements of public ethics. Based in part on Aristotle, Northouse (2015) lists five principles to form a foundation for ethical leadership: respecting others, building community, serving others, showing justice, and manifesting honesty. This collective approach revolves around community building that seeks to establish higher moral purposes. Northouse's view on building community is distinct with his focus on common goals, which takes into account multiple perspectives, purposes, cultures, and needs when determining the best outcome. This refers to the need to recognize and appreciate diversity through a sensitivity to different cultures and values. Lawton and Páez (2015) agree, and like Brown et al. (2005) and previous leadership theorists, describe ethical leadership as being culturally and contextually based; their conclusion is that ethical leadership cannot have a definitive framework because of these differences.

While ethical leadership is in the developmental stage, it is showing promise in affecting positive organizational outcomes. Fairness, honesty, community building, and other aspects of this leadership style contribute to leadership effectiveness (Kalshoven et al., 2011; Lewicki et al., 1997). Additionally, they also contribute to employee satisfaction. For

instance, a study of a large Midwestern bank's credit card processing division found supervisory fairness to be highly correlated to employee satisfaction in the area of turnover intention and organizational pride (Lewicki et al., 1997).

The leadership styles described are universal to the public or private sector and provide examples of how ethics are valued and appreciated within the leadership domain. Intertwined throughout the models are the public ethics of trust and fairness, community building, sensitivity to diversity, and public and organizational interest. These models and studies support the significance of ethics for effective leadership and employee satisfaction. In similar fashion, the public sector has aspirational and developed leadership models that resonate with these universal styles.

ETHICAL PUBLIC LEADERSHIP

Five ethical leadership styles are unique to the public sector: integrated leadership, public transformational leader, the integrated transformational leader, the civic capacity transformational leader, and new public leadership. Each of these models acknowledge leadership in the public sector as complex while emphasizing an integrated or compounded approach. The first model, integrated leadership, has five dimensions without relation to an existing model. In contrast, the remaining models are also integrated but each seek to enhance the transformational leadership style with the addition of an ethical element. Similar to the discussions in previous sections, the theorists consider transformational leadership to be a widely effective style, though each argue it is missing the complexity needed to address leadership in the public sector.

Integrated Leadership

Integrated leadership, developed by Fernandez, Cho, and Perry (2010), encompasses five dimensions based on leader roles. The five leadership roles are oriented for tasks,

relationships, change, diversity, and integrity (Fernandez et al., 2010). This style synthesizes aspects of other models demonstrated to assist in leadership effectiveness. As an example, the change-oriented aspect resembles transformational leadership in its focus on changing both the employees and the organization through innovation and influencing.

Three of the leader's roles resemble aspects of public ethics: community building, fairness, and sensitivity to diversity. For instance, the relationship-oriented leader has a concern for others and a desire to build community through interpersonal relationships amongst organizational members. The integrity-oriented leadership is about fairness, equitable treatment, and adhering to legalities. Lastly, the diversity-oriented leader is about recruiting people from different backgrounds, workforces, and even ethnicities to integrate diverse ideas for the purposes of creativity and better decision making.

The study's findings, at the sub-agency level within the U.S. federal government, indicate that each dimension of the integrated leader contributes to overall organizational performance (Fernandez et al., 2010). Interestingly, the study is one of the few to use two data sources. The 2006 Federal Human Viewpoint survey gauged integrated leadership and the PART governmental program assessment tool analyzed governmental performance. While controlling for politicization of the agency, budget, organizational complexity, and sub-agency type, the integrated leader accounts for an estimated 4% of the variance in organizational performance. Furthermore, agencies such as the Internal Revenue Service and Social Security Administration were the highest on the integrated leadership scale (Fernandez et al., 2010).

Integrated Ethical TFL Models

While the previous style creates a new model for public administration, several theorists seek to integrate ethical components in conjunction with transformational

leadership. The public transformational leader, the integrated transformational leader, the civic capacity transformational leader, and new public leadership each include transformational leadership within their theories while augmenting it with an ethical component deemed critical for public administrators. Though the models are pertinent for consideration, the scholars have focused primarily on building theory and only narrowly on empirical research.

The first model, the public transformational leader, infuses democratic norms within the existing transformational leader style (Denhardt & Campbell, 2006). Values encompassed within this new model include collaboration, the public interest, constitutional values, citizenship, democratic values, networks of relationships, and governance. This model integrates these norms within the leader who in turn incorporates it within the organization.

Similarly, other theorists sought an infusion of an ethical element called civic capacity in conjunction with transformational leadership. As such, civic capacity has three dimensions: civic drive, civic connections, and civic pragmatism. The researchers note that transformational leadership needs to be augmented with these additional constructs to be useful in the public sector (Sun & Anderson, 2012). This study is unique with its concern for collaboration, thus recognizing that an agency is interconnected and dependent upon other entities for success.

In contrast to an ethical infusion, another study argues for the incorporation of several styles. An analysis of 75 articles on public leadership spanning 2003-2012 concludes that the optimal public leadership style would be an integration of three styles (Orazi et al., 2013). In their determination, public sector leaders should primarily be

transformational, complimented with a moderate transactional focus, and a heavy integration of integrity and ethics (Orazi et al., 2013). While this was determined theoretically, it lacks the empirical validation as do several of the other integrated models previously described. In contrast, empirical research forms the foundation of the next model.

New Public Leadership

Kellis and Ran's (2013) integration of transformational leadership theorizes a new concept, but it is not a unique style. The New Public Leadership Theory (NPLT) is a compounded model with components from authentic, transformational, and distributed leadership. Each of these styles has particular elements the authors deem critical for successful public leadership. Authentic leadership, referred to as values based, is included for its clarity of personal values, ethical reasoning, and integrity components. Values based leadership recognizes the need for morality within democratic leadership. Meanwhile, transformational leadership is included for its focus on organizational improvement and its performance in both public and private organizations (Trottier et al., 2008). Lastly, distributed leadership recognizes leadership as shared and occurring within networks, teams, alliances, and other collaborative arrangements.

In connection with prior theories, the study utilized the Federal Human Viewpoint survey and separately analyzed each of the three leadership styles over three periods (2006, 2008, and 2010). They measured each style against three outcomes: job related outcomes (satisfaction with position); organization outcomes (organization effectiveness, mission, and satisfaction with organization); and leader outcomes (leadership effectiveness and behaviors). The study found that distributed leadership does not predict leadership outcomes while transformational leadership and values based (authentic) do. Furthermore, transformational leadership predicts organizational outcomes but does not predict job related

outcomes (satisfaction with position) which is inconsistent with prior studies (Trottier et al., 2008). Surprisingly, authentic or values based leadership was not a contributor to organizational outcomes except when all three analysis periods were combined. However, it was the best predictor of job related outcomes over all three surveys. Interestingly, the values based leadership had a greater effect than transformational leadership in terms of satisfaction with the position. In short, transformational and authentic leadership were predictive of all three combined outcomes while distributed leadership was not. The study did not conjoin all three leadership styles into one construct while measuring the New Public Leadership theory. This, then, leaves a gap in the research of whether the combined style leads to a significantly better form of public leadership.

A related study, focusing on this leadership style in practice, reviewed an agency which experienced a dramatic turnaround in employee satisfaction and satisfaction with the leader. Dr. Berwich, from the Centers for Medicare and Medicaid Services (CMS), is recognized as encompassing the characteristics and behaviors of the NPLT style. During his tenure, overall performance and employee morale increased, therefore providing evidence for this style's ability to improve agency outcomes (Kellis & Ran, 2015).

In summary, the public and private leadership theories provide insights and support for the importance of ethics for a leader, and most importantly, further support for the specific components of public ethics. The arguments previously described show an overall picture of similarity in the need for including an ethical component for leadership in both the public and private sector. Table 2.1 summarizes the major ethical leadership theories reviewed and provides evidence for public ethics, which are in bold notation. For the purpose of succinctness, the literature did not present two styles listed in the table, spiritual

and responsible leadership, but these do relate to the study with their support for community building, care for others, and a focus on public and organizational interests.

Table 2.1: Ethical Leadership Literature Summary

Leadership Style, Authors and Their Models	Ethics
<p>Servant Leader <i>Greenleaf (1977)</i> Seeks first to serve others, purpose is to benefit least privileged in society, with a primary focus on the self-first as a person and then focus on helping others <i>Larry Spears (2004)</i> Further defined by ten characteristics: listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, growth of others, and building community <i>Parris & Peachey (2013)</i> Additional characteristics such as authenticity, credibility, honesty, humility, integrity, modeling behaviors, trust, vision, and stewardship</p>	<p>Empathy and acceptance of others, community building, an understanding of ethics and values, honesty, humility, trust, and authenticity</p>
<p>Authentic Leader <i>Henderson & Hoy (1983)</i> Leader has strong sense of self above organization, does not manipulate others, and accepts responsibility for actions <i>Avolio & Gardner (2005)</i> Analyzed other authentic models to discover other elements such as confidence, hope, resiliency in leader, positive morals, and leader self-awareness of values, emotions, and motives, self-regulation, and relational transparency <i>Walumbwa, et al. (2008)</i> Self-awareness, balanced processing (objective and unbiased), internalized moral perspective (values based), and relational transparency (expressing values) <i>Whitehead (2009)</i> Four cores: self, empathy, trust building, and community</p>	<p>Leads with a sense of values and morals; fairness, sense of self not changed by the organization; building community within organization and community</p>
<p>Spiritual Leadership <i>Cacioppe (2000)</i> Experiencing meaning and value within the work environment and being your authentic self; feeling connected and caring for others needs <i>Rego et al. (2008)</i> Five dimensions: sense of community, alignment with organizational values, contribution to society, enjoyment at work, and inner life</p>	<p>Community building, values, and care for others</p>
<p>Responsible Leader <i>Johnson (2012)</i> The responsible leader has seven core roles with the leader as a: steward, servant, coach, architect, storyteller, change agent, and citizen.</p>	<p>Values, though not explicit, of organizational and community best interest (public interest)</p>
<p>Ethical Leader <i>Brown et al. (2005)</i> 10-item scale: ethical personal life, way results are obtained, listening, enforces ethical standards, fair and balanced decisions, trustworthy, encourages ethics or values, sets an example for ethics, employee's best interest and does the right thing <i>De Hoogh & Den Hartog (2008)</i> Morality and fairness, role clarification, power sharing, trust, transparent communication, caring about employees, and creating a just working environment <i>Lawton & Paez (2015)</i> Authentic, public interest, and moral courage <i>Kalshoven et al. (2011)</i> Seven item scale: fairness, integrity, ethical guidance, people orientation, power sharing, role clarification, and a concern for sustainability <i>Northouse (2015)</i> Five principles to form a foundation for ethical leadership: respecting others, building community, serving others, showing justice, and manifesting honesty <i>Greenberg (2007)</i> Core aspects of ethical leadership include three widely recognized forms of organizational justice, those of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice</p>	<p>Ethics and values, fairness, trust worthy, morality, justice, integrity, authenticity, public interest, and honesty</p>

Lewicki, Sheppard, Poland, & Minton, (1997)

Depictions of justice were explored and included distributive justice, procedural justice, and a participatory form of justice

Lawton and Páez (2015)

They add elements such as authenticity, public interest, and moral courage to the vast list of virtues already described by other scholars.

Public Sector Models

Integrated Leadership

Fernandez, Cho, & Perry (2010)

Five dimensional model of leadership roles- tasks (setting goals and performance standards), relationships (concern for others and fostering interpersonal relationships), change (development of employees and organization), diversity, and integrity (fairness, equitable, and legal) oriented.

Diversity, integrity, equality, **concern for others**, relationships and **community building**, and **fairness**

Ethical Transformational Leadership Models

Denhardt & Campbell (2006)

Public Transformational Leader- Eight values encompassed within this model. Values encompassed within this new model include collaboration, the public interest, constitutional values, citizenship, democratic values, networks of relationships, governance, and multiple accountabilities.

Collaboration and **public interest**

Sun & Anderson (2012)

Civic Capacity Transformational Leader has three dimensions: civic drive, civic connections, and civic pragmatism. Civic drive is the motivation to be civically active with social issues and see new opportunities. Civic connections is creating a network of cultural and social institutions that can be mobilized for civic action. Civic pragmatism is the ability to convert social opportunities into action by leveraging structures and mechanisms for collaboration.

Civically active, collaboration, and creating a network

New Public Leadership

Kellis & Ran (2013)

Integrated model of leadership that combines aspects from distributed, transformational, and authentic leadership theories. Authentic for focus on values, ethics, and morality; transformational as a change agent and employee development; and distributed for recognizing that leadership is a group experience that happens at all levels in the work unit

Shared values and ethics though not explicit

Primary Model for Study

Transformational Leadership

Bass (1996) and Bass & Avolio (1990)

Inspirational motivation (vision, energy, and employee loyalty), individualized consideration (development of others), intellectual stimulation (encourages critical thinking, problem solving, self-empowerment, and shared new values), and idealized influence (admiration, role model, and charismatic leader).

Shared values though not explicit

ETHICS IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Ethical Public Administration

This section provides evidence as to why trust and fairness, community building, sensitivity to diversity, and public and organizational interest are of particular importance to this study and concludes with the development of the public ethics concept. The research below describes ethics as a necessary point of discussion within public administration.

Paul Appleby was one of the first presidents of the American Society for Public Administration and one of the first to focus on the need for ethics within public

administration. Appleby considered the public interest, common good, and social progress as key elements in ethical public servants (Lynch & Lynch, 2009). The code of ethics adopted in 2013 includes eight ethical principles: serving the public interest, respecting the constitution and law, encouraging the public's democratic participation/engagement in government, social equity (treat all persons fairly and equally), advising superiors and peers, personal integrity, promoting ethical organizations, and professional development. This code of ethics furthers the public interest and internal organizational integrity, though notably, additional research is needed to better understand the codes and the ethical behavior they promote (Svara, 2014).

In the field of public administration, many scholars theorize which values are desirable for leaders and public service. To define boundaries, Brady (2003) describes administrators without a purpose or ethics as managers, while those with such traits are leaders. Values such as the public interest, fostering equitable organizations, removing racism and sexism, encouraging justice, truthfulness, courage, and achieving efficiency with finite resources are considered valuable in public administration (Lynch & Lynch, 2009). In addition, the public interest is considered the purpose of public administration (Dexter-Lynch, 2004). Moreover, the ideals of fairness, justice, and avoidance of favoritism are thought to be pivotal to good government (Hanbury, 2004). Lastly, it is seen as desirable for public servants to be benevolent and care for others (Frederickson & Hart, 1985; Perry, 2011). As demonstrated, the tenets of public ethics are common threads amongst these scholars. These are considered internal goods that are essential to the practice of sound public administration (Brady, 2003; Cooper, 1987).

SUMMARY OF PUBLIC ETHICS

Overall, there is a wide list of ethical ideals in the literature on leadership styles, public administration, and in theories of transformational leadership. These provided a guide to the selection of more specific ethics for further consideration. This study focuses on the public ethics of trust and fairness, community building, sensitivity to diversity and public and organizational interest.

Trust is prominent within studies of servant, authentic, and ethical leadership (Brown et al., 2005; Lynch & Lynch, 2009; Parris & Peachey, 2013; Whitehead, 2009). Trust is considered a critical precursor to effective leadership and satisfied employees (Asencio, 2016; Trottier et al., 2008). Additionally, trust and fairness overlap within the literature; thus, I consider it as one element within this study. Trust is described as being relied upon to keep one's word and acting in a fair and predictable manner (Asencio, 2016; Brown et al., 2005; De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2008).

Fairness is prominent in the ethical leadership style and is represented by Greenberg's (2007) focus on organizational and procedural justice and De Hoogh and Den Hartog's (2008) notion of a just environment. Fairness in decisions, rewards, and punishment is represented in the ethical and integrated leadership styles (Brown et al., 2005; De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2008; Fernandez et al., 2010; Kalshoven et al., 2011). Fairness is also well represented in public administration ethics (Cooper, 1987; Hanbury, 2004; Lynch & Lynch, 2009; Menzel, 2015). Fairness is defined as treating others in a fair and equal manner, not showing special treatment or consideration when rewarding or punishing, and fairness in making decisions and choices (Kalshoven et al., 2011; Northouse, 2015; Yukl et al., 2013).

A sense of community building through relationships and collaboration across workgroups is prominent in the integrated, servant, authentic, responsible, ethical, and spiritual leadership models (Fernandez et al., 2010; Northouse, 2015; Rego et al., 2008; Spears, 2004; Whitehead, 2009). While community building was not prominent in many public administration studies, it was referenced by several scholars including Burns for its importance with regards to creating brotherhood in relation to the transformational leader (Ciulla, 2004; Khar, Praveen, & Aggarwal, 2011). Community building is defined as fostering positive interpersonal relationships, a sense of community, and encouraging engagement within the organization and workgroups (Denhardt & Campbell, 2006; Rego et al., 2008; Spears, 2004; Whitehead, 2009).

Respect for diversity and tolerance in accepting and recruiting those different from oneself is included in the integrated, ethical, and servant leadership styles (Fernandez et al., 2010; Greenleaf, 1977; Northouse, 2015). Tolerance and respect for diversity is widely cited as part of the ethics of a public administrator (Choi & Rainey, 2014; Lynch & Lynch, 2009; Moore, 2012; Pitts, 2009). Also, seeking diversity of opinion and representation within the public workforce better represents and serves the interest of diverse people (Wright, 2015). Sensitivity to diversity is defined as acceptance and respect for others, their views, beliefs, and values (Greenleaf, 1977; Northouse, 2015). Another important component of diversity includes recruiting people from different backgrounds, workforces, and ethnicities to integrate diverse ideas (Fernandez et al., 2010).

The last public ethic, serving in the best interest of the public and the organization is represented indirectly in the responsible, spiritual, integrated, and servant leadership models and directly in models of the ethical and public transformational leader (Brown et al., 2005;

Cacioppe, 2000; Denhardt & Campbell, 2006; Fernandez et al., 2010; Johnson, 2012; Lawton & Páez, 2015; Spears, 2004). Mindfulness towards the public interest and a concern for others was prominent within the public administration and ethics literature and is a key aspect of the public administrator's code of ethics (Frederickson & Hart, 1985; Lynch & Lynch, 2009; Pratte, 1988). For instance, Asencio and Mujkic (2016) emphasize the social importance of public organizations and the need for leaders to encourage employees to go beyond self-interest in consideration of the public interest. Public and organizational interest is defined as dialogue, goals and actions based on the public or organizational interest, and serving in the interest of others (De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2008; Denhardt & Campbell, 2006).

Public ethics are complimentary to Bass's thoughts on an authentic transformational leader. Bass & Steidlmeier (1999) describe core ethics for this moral leader as being concerned for others, impartial and fair, respecting others' interests, being just, and empowering and treating others with equality. Table 2.2 summarizes the public ethics found in the literature and their operational definitions for use in this study.

Table 2.2: Public Ethics Definition

Trust & Fairness	Treat others in a fair, equal, and predictable manner, not showing special treatment or consideration when rewarding or punishing and fairness in making decisions and choices (Asencio, 2016; Kalshoven et al., 2011; Northouse, 2015; Yukl et al., 2013). Being relied upon to keep ones word (Brown et al., 2005; De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2008).
Community Building	Foster positive interpersonal relationships, a sense of community, and encouraging engagement within the organization and workgroups (Denhardt & Campbell, 2006; Rego et al., 2008; Spears, 2004; Whitehead, 2009).
Sensitivity to Diversity	Acceptance and respect for others, their views, beliefs, and values (Greenleaf, 1977; Northouse, 2015). Recruiting people from different backgrounds, workforces, and ethnicities to integrate diverse ideas (Fernandez et al., 2010).
Public & Organizational Interest	Dialogue, goals and actions based on the public or organizational interest and serving in the interest of others (De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2008; Denhardt & Campbell, 2006).

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION, TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP,
AND PUBLIC ETHICS

The last section provides evidence for three proposed hypotheses. The first hypothesis describes the established link between transformational leadership, employee satisfaction, and leadership effectiveness. The second hypothesis explores a similar link between public ethics, employee satisfaction, and leadership effectiveness. The third and final hypothesis seeks to explore the dynamics of combining transformational leadership and public ethics in terms of its impact on employee satisfaction and leadership effectiveness.

The research presented also provides evidence for a distinction between the dimensions of

transformational leadership and public ethics. This is important for the third hypothesis, which seeks to create an exceptional form of leadership in public administration, one that incorporates multiple distinct elements to address aspects of both ethical and effective leadership.

TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP, EMPLOYEE SATISFACTION, AND LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS

Transformational leadership is widely praised within public administration for its positive organizational effects. Transformational leadership has a breadth of research showing that it contributes to greater employee satisfaction and leadership effectiveness. The section to follow describes employee satisfaction and then leadership effectiveness studies within U.S. federal agencies. The studies present a direct relationship between transformational leadership and employee satisfaction, thus supporting the first hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1: An increase in transformational leadership is positively associated with increases in (a) employee satisfaction and (b) leadership effectiveness.

Direct Relationship to Employee Satisfaction

Studies of U.S. federal agencies show that transformational leadership has a resoundingly positive effect on employee satisfaction. In one such study, using the 2002 Federal Human Capital Survey consisting of 100,657 employees, transformational leadership accounted for a 72.5% variance in employee satisfaction (Trottier et al., 2008). The strongest indicator of employee satisfaction is idealized influence, which consists of a participative management style and consideration of employees. This effect on employee satisfaction exceeded other satisfaction contributors such as pay, promotion, coworkers, and working conditions, highlighting the positive effects of leadership style on the federal workforce (Trottier et al., 2008). Management's individualized development plans and

personalized attention, which are characteristics of individualized consideration, also contributed to these positive effects. Surprisingly, intellectual stimulation had a slightly negative correlation with satisfaction. The authors relate this to its change oriented aspect, which may cause unsettled feelings in employees.

Asencio (2016) also found a positive relationship between transformational leadership and employee satisfaction. He relates this style's individualized consideration and being responsive to individuals' aspirations and needs to employee satisfaction. Additionally, employee satisfaction increases if the leader's inspirational motivation and idealized influence adjusts to address the goals and interests of employees. His study, though eight years later, found results similar to Trottier et al. (2008), with transformational and transactional leadership contributing to a high positive variance of 83% for employee satisfaction. The inclusion of transactional leadership may contribute to the higher variance. This study's separation of individualized consideration from transformational leadership, in a similar fashion to other studies, may also further skew the results in comparison to the previous study (Pandey et al., 2016; Wright & Pandey, 2010). Though transformational leadership did not include all theorized components (individualized consideration), it still had the highest effect on employee satisfaction ($B = 0.553$) followed by individualized consideration ($B = 0.429$), and both were considerably higher than transactional leadership ($B = 0.147$). The author provides several reasons to explain this link between transformational leadership and employee satisfaction. These include the fact that leaders increase employee satisfaction by recognizing employees' abilities, aspirations, and needs and adjusting their motivational and influencing behaviors to relate to the goals of employees, each of which are aspects of individualized consideration and inspirational

motivation. In addition, transformational leaders contribute to a satisfied workforce by allowing employees to voice their concerns, which is considered intellectually stimulating. The author concludes that satisfied employees lead to greater motivation and productivity (Asencio, 2016).

Oberfield also used the same federal survey and found that increases in transformational and transactional leadership are positively associated with employee satisfaction, cooperation, and perceptions of work quality. This longitudinal study, from 2004-2011, found similar results in that transformational leadership was reported to have an even stronger effect on employee satisfaction ($B = 0.637$) than transactional leadership ($B = 0.153$) (Oberfield, 2014). The considerable difference in this study's elevated importance of transformational over transactional leadership, when compared to Trottier et al. (2008) and Ascencio (2016), appears related to the study's alignment of individualized consideration as a component of transformational leadership. As leaders shifted towards transformational ideals, they saw much higher gains in employee satisfaction than other areas such as cooperation and perceptions of work quality. This suggests that leaders first shape how employees experience their organization and then indirectly shape other outcomes.

Contrary to these findings and utilizing the same federal survey, a longitudinal study from 2006-2010, measured at three time periods, found that transformational leadership was a significant predictor of organizational outcomes but not employee satisfaction (Kellis & Ran, 2013). Transformational leadership only contributed to employee satisfaction with the position, which is a slight variation from job satisfaction, during one of the periods. However, transformational leadership is a significant contributor for other positive organizational outcomes (organizational, job related satisfaction, and leadership

effectiveness) only when each of the time periods are considered simultaneously. Thus, we need further analysis to determine whether additional variables such as leadership changes and the environment contribute to these inconsistent outcomes.

Two additional studies using a different secondary dataset, the Merit Principles federal employee survey from 2000, found results similar to prior research. The study found transformational leadership ($B = 0.575$) is a significantly higher predictor of job satisfaction than transactional leadership ($B = 0.166$) (Park & Rainey, 2007, 2008). Their study also aligned individualized consideration with transformational leadership. This is more psychometrically appropriate for the transformational model developed by Bass (Bass, 1996; Hemsworth, Muterera, & Baregheh, 2013).

Transformational Leadership and Leadership Effectiveness

When leadership is effective, it is thought to shape employees' behaviors and attitudes, which affect many aspects of the organization (Oberfield, 2014). Leadership effectiveness, as defined by employees' high regard for the leader and viewing the leader as doing a good job, is most closely affected by transformational leadership's idealized influence, mirroring the finding with employee satisfaction (Trottier et al., 2008). Less effective, but still integral, are individualized consideration, inspirational motivation, and, to a much lower degree, intellectual stimulation. Respectively, Trottier et al. found transformational leadership contributed to 70.9% of the variance in leadership effectiveness.

Kellis and Ran (2013) also link transformational leadership to increasing leadership effectiveness through an array of outcomes such as job (employee satisfaction), organizational (organizational effectiveness and alignment with mission), and leader outcomes (directing the organization with expected and appropriate leader behavior). In itself, each of these outcomes is important for organizational performance.

The research presented describes transformational leadership's many positive effects within the public sector for organizational, leadership, and employee outcomes.

Transformational leaders help to increase employees esteem, motivation, and satisfaction. They also help to create an organizational culture that is accepting of change, is committed to a mission, and has low turnover intentions (Caillier, 2014, 2016; Park & Rainey, 2008).

Overall, transformational leadership has a breadth of research related to its positive effect on employee satisfaction and leadership effectiveness within the public sector (Asencio, 2016; Oberfield, 2014; Trottier et al., 2008). A transformational leader's consideration of employees through coaching and individualized attention, role modeling, creating a vision, providing a sense of empowerment, and motivating others to do more than is expected leads to greater leadership effectiveness and employee satisfaction, thus providing support for the first hypothesis (Trottier et al., 2008).

PUBLIC ETHICS, EMPLOYEE SATISFACTION, AND LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS

Researchers have identified an array of beneficial outcomes arising from ethical leadership. In short, ethical leadership and culture within public administration has many positive outcomes such as satisfied employees, greater leadership effectiveness, and higher government performance (Brown et al., 2005; Choi & Rainey, 2010; Hassan et al., 2014; Kalshoven et al., 2011; Koh & Boo, 2001; Park & Blenkinsopp, 2013; Ulrich et al., 2007; Vitell & Davis, 1990; Walumbwa et al., 2008; C. Yang, 2014). The research to follow represents public ethics well. However, ethical studies are not abundant within the public sector literature so private sector research is included to provide additional support for the second hypothesis.

Hypothesis 2: An increase in public ethics is positively associated with increases in (a) employee satisfaction and (b) leadership effectiveness.

Public and Organizational Interest

Several studies associate public and organizational interest to employee satisfaction and leadership effectiveness. For instance, a study involving Singapore MBA students' perceptions of managers found a positive relationship between employee satisfaction and a commitment to public and organizational interest. In particular, Kohn and Boo (2001) conclude that the ethical climate of an organization, defined as respecting employee values and interests, concern for employees and their welfare, a focus on collective good, and complying with rules and standards, is positively associated with an employee's job satisfaction.

Additionally, a few loosely related studies link public interest to employee satisfaction and leadership effectiveness. For example, a study of a state government in the U.S., found that ethical leadership reduces absenteeism and has a positive influence on organizational commitment and willingness to report ethical problems (Hassan et al., 2014). In particular, public servants hold each other accountable to the public interest by the reporting of ethical problems. Correspondingly, the sense of commitment achieved through ethical leadership is an indirect reflection of employee satisfaction. Similarly, a survey of U.S. city chief administrators found that ethics enhancement strategies increase accountability by increasing the public servant's willingness to be open to public scrutiny, therefore contributing to acting in the public interest (Feldheim & Wang, 2002).

Trust and Fairness

Trust and fairness is the most widely studied of the public ethics. One of its many benefits is its contribution to employee satisfaction. In a Taiwanese ethical leadership study

involving employed executive MBA alumni, ethical leadership such as treating employees fairly, adhering to ethical standards, listening to ideas, and doing the right thing was found to be positively related to job satisfaction (C. Yang, 2014).

De Hoogh and Den Hartog (2008) created an ethical leadership scale based on leaders empowering employees and being perceived as showing fairness and integrity (does not show favoritism, considers feelings when acting, and does not manipulate subordinates, etc.). This study of Netherland CEO's and their staff reported that ethical leadership behaviors positively relate to trust in management and organizational commitment. Trust in management and organizational commitment are both contributors to job satisfaction and leadership effectiveness. In a similar study, ethical leader behaviors (people orientation, fairness, power sharing, ethical guidance, concern for sustainability, integrity, and role clarification) have a positive correlation to satisfaction with the leader (Kalshoven et al., 2011).

Another study within the areas of nursing and social work found a positive relationship between respect in the workplace and job satisfaction (Ulrich et al., 2007). Respect in the workplace involves perceptions of organizational justice and procedural fairness. Furthermore, in a meta-analysis of 42 studies, when employees believed the climate fostered ethical decisions based on the well-being of others, the employees rated their job satisfaction higher (Martin & Cullen, 2006).

Sensitivity to Diversity and Community Building

Sensitivity to diversity and community building also contributes to employee satisfaction and leadership effectiveness. For instance, diversity management and organizational fairness in U.S. federal agencies are found to increase group performance and job satisfaction (Choi & Rainey, 2014; Pitts, 2009). For example, a study of U.S. federal

agencies links diversity management to increases in group performance and job satisfaction (Pitts, 2009). Additionally, ethical leadership increases job satisfaction with consideration of work tenure. Diversity management reflects three areas: supervisor's commitment to a workforce representative of all segments of society, policies and programs that promote diversity, and supervisors working well with employees of different backgrounds.

Similar results were also found in another federal study in which diversity management and organizational fairness seemed to enhance employee reports of job satisfaction (Choi & Rainey, 2014). In the same author's prior study, racial diversity was negatively related to organizational performance except when moderated by diversity management policies, practices, and team processes. This then supports the need for active diversity management in diverse governmental organizations (Choi & Rainey, 2010).

With regard to community building, the spiritual leadership model fosters positive interpersonal relationships and a sense of community which creates happier employees and better relationships with leaders, thus alluding to more satisfied employees and greater leadership effectiveness (Rego et al., 2008).

Studies on ethical leadership in general, such as Vitell and Davis (1990) found that professionals working in an unethical working environment had lower job satisfaction. Additionally, ethical leadership was found to increase job satisfaction when considering work tenure (Pitts, 2009).

Leadership Effectiveness

The research in the previous section provided indirect evidence for public ethics effect on leadership effectiveness. This section provides direct support, though it is less developed in comparison to questions of employee satisfaction, by noting loosely related studies that provide supporting evidence. The first example is

an ethical form of leadership called authentic leadership. Authentic leadership is thought to create effective leaders because the leaders are more predictable (Johnson, 2012). If leaders are predictable, employees spend less time anticipating the leader's actions, and this creates greater trust and satisfaction in employees. As a result, greater trust and satisfaction in leaders contributes to greater productivity and performance and, indirectly, leadership effectiveness.

Additionally, empirical research demonstrates the positive relationship between ethical leadership and leadership effectiveness. Scholars found that ethical leadership, defined by treating employees fairly, being open to what employees have to say, having the best interest of the employee in mind, and making fair and balanced decisions is positively related to leadership effectiveness. This study measured perceptions of ethical leadership within a financial services firm comprised of 185 work groups (Brown et al., 2005). Another study of 259 public and private sector employees found that ethical leadership is positively related to leadership effectiveness through positive social exchanges (Hassan, Mahsud, Yukl, & Prussia, 2013).

Similarly, Kalshoven et al. (2011) found a positive correlation between ethical leadership and leader effectiveness. Their study proposes seven aspects of ethical leadership in the areas of fairness, role clarification, integrity, ethical guidance, concern for sustainability, people orientation, and power sharing and positively correlates these with leader effectiveness. Overall, these studies provide support for a connection between public ethics (trust and fairness, community building, sensitivity to diversity, and public and

organizational interest), employee satisfaction, and leadership effectiveness thus lending support for the second hypothesis.

TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND PUBLIC ETHICS IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

As evident from the research presented in the first two hypotheses, both transformational leadership and public ethics, individually, play an important role in employee satisfaction and leadership effectiveness. As such, transformational leadership and ethical leadership each contribute distinctly to these outcomes. The research to follow presents how these two leadership behaviors, in tandem, affect the U.S. public sector to provide additional support for the final hypothesis. Additionally, the section concludes with research within the public and private sector portraying the distinction between these two, which is equally important for the final hypothesis.

Hypothesis 3: The ethical public transformational leader (public ethics + transformational leader) produces greater positive variances in (a) employee satisfaction and (b) leadership effectiveness than the transformational leader model alone.

For the purpose of this study, I reviewed public sector literature on transformational leadership in conjunction with public ethics over a 16-year period (2000-2016). The review describes the promising outcomes for public ethics and transformational leadership in public administration. The research demonstrates how these elements affect the variables of interest, employee satisfaction and leadership effectiveness. However, the direct link is limited, so relationships to other variables affecting organizational performance can assist with exploring the breadth of interplay between these two aspects. In short, the positive affects presented relay that each of the leadership behaviors are effective yet distinct elements.

Trust

Several studies focus specifically on trust in leadership. The first study found a mediation between transformational leadership, trust, and employee satisfaction (Asencio, 2016). A transformational leader who is a role model (idealized influence) and concerned for an employee's welfare and development (individualized consideration) creates this sense of trust, which leads to greater employee satisfaction. Similarly, in another study of federal employees, transformational leadership is positively and significantly related to trust in the leader ($\beta = 0.30$), and the element of individualized consideration is the most significant for trust in the leader ($\beta = 0.74$) (Asencio & Mujkic, 2016).

Fairness

Fairness is frequently studied in relation to trust in leadership. In a recent transformational leadership presidential study, international students explored perceptions of trust and fairness in relation to the likelihood of voting for Barack Obama and Hillary Clinton. The study is from 2008, just after Barack Obama received the Democratic nomination. The study found that fairness is the most important leadership trait, and more importantly, it was the only trait to be a significant indicator of outcomes for both candidates (Quader, 2011). According to the study, the perception of fairness is the single most essential leadership trait which leaders should acquire to garner trust and commitment amongst voters. Of utmost importance, fairness and trust were more significant than transformational leadership.

Fairness and equity are synonymous within studies. In a survey of federal agencies, transformational leadership is found to be positively correlated with perceptions of procedural equity and objective appraisal systems (Park & Rainey, 2007). Similar to the

presidential study, these descriptors for fairness are also the single most important factor in garnering trust and commitment.

Another closely related study focuses on value congruence and normative public values. Value congruence is the extent in which individual values match with the organizational values, whereas normative public values encompass a form of fairness represented by equity and a related focus on public interest. A study of city administrators found that as transformational leadership increases so does value congruence and the application of normative public values by employees (Pandey et al., 2016). It is through these that employees display increased levels of fairness and concern for the public interest. Though this study reflects the ethics of employees, the role modeling influence of a transformational leader implies that these ethics are also present within the supervisor.

Public and Organizational Interest

Loosely related studies concerning transformational leadership harbor the ethics of public and organizational interest. Similar to the prior studies, they reiterate the effects a leader has on the employee and the notion that role modeling implies the transformational leader helps to shape the employees' ethical values and behaviors. The first study represents public and organizational interest through duty orientation or the willingness to put other's interests ahead of one's own. In a survey of U.S. drill instructors, the direct supervisor's level of transformational leadership is positively related to an employee's duty orientation (Hannah et al., 2014). Similarly, the additional consideration of a leader's ethical behavior in conjunction with transformational leadership also positively affects duty orientation in employees.

Like duty orientation, public service motivation (PSM) benefits the public or organization and is another employee behavior positively affected by transformational

leadership. Public service motivation describes the internal motives that drive individuals to serve in the public interest within their community or organization (Caillier, 2013). A study of city managers found transformational leadership to have a small relationship to public service motivation with a positive correlation of .117 (Caillier, 2013).

Another study of 6,900 federal employees found transformational leadership to have a considerably higher positive relationship to public service motivation with a correlation of .483 (Park & Rainey, 2008). Public service motivation (PSM) in turn positively affects job satisfaction, perceived organizational performance, and lower turnover intentions (Park & Rainey, 2008). Transformational leadership and PSM combined lead to more pronounced positive relationships among organizational outcomes. While PSM is an intrinsically motivating factor, the study also measured external motivations such as pay, job security, and physical working conditions. Interestingly, the study found that transformational leadership motivates employees more in relation to organizational outcomes than the external forms of motivation (Park & Rainey, 2008). These findings are similar to Trottier et al.'s (2008) discovery that transformational leadership is a better predictor of satisfaction than pay, promotion, and working conditions.

Community Building

Like public interest, there are no well-developed studies in relation to community building and transformational leadership, but there are closely related studies. One such study related to community building is on cohesion. Cohesion involves members of the platoon pulling together to get the job done. A study of platoon leaders and sergeants found positive outcomes in unit performance with relation to transformational leadership. The transformational platoon leader is positively related to unit cohesion and indirectly related to

performance through this cohesion. The results are similar for the platoon sergeant (Bass et al., 2003).

Another study found that transformational leadership contributes to employee cooperation and work quality. Transformational leadership affects work quality slightly more than cooperation (Oberfield, 2014). Employee cooperation is instrumental in building community and engagement amongst a workforce, while work quality is closely related to organizational performance. The inference is that transformational leadership also indirectly effects performance, though research is inconclusive regarding a direct effect (Oberfield, 2014).

Diversity Orientation

Diversity orientation and transformational leadership studies are scarce within public administration. One relevant study focuses on change, which is similar to transformational leadership, relations orientated leadership, and diversity oriented leadership (Fernandez et al., 2010). The study found these leadership aspects affect performance within federal sub-agencies and account for a low 4% in the variance. In their model, diversity and change-oriented leadership were highly correlated (.77) yet found to be distinct enough to create two separate dimensions (Fernandez et al., 2010).

In short, research on transformational leadership within public administration is well established. Similarly, the public ethic of trust and fairness has a breadth of research lending to its expected positive public organizational affects. However, the latter three public ethics need further development as studies are only indirectly related in the public sector literature. However, private sector studies augment this relationship and can be used to provide support for the last hypothesis.

CONCEPTUALLY DISTINCT

Research relating to transformational and ethical leadership, with an emphasis on public ethics, lends credence to the conceptual distinction between these behaviors and provides support for each having a distinct role in organizational outcomes. There are noticeably high correlations between transformational leadership and ethics; however, each are unique dimensions. Not surprisingly, transformational leadership's idealized influence component has the highest correlation to ethics. The last research discussed displays the interplay of these elements and provides support for the final hypothesis.

In the first example, Brown, Trevino, and Harrison's (2005) research on ethical leadership found a significant and positive correlation between ethical leadership (acts in the best interest of employees, does the right thing, fair and balanced decisions, listens to employees, and acts in an ethical manner) and the idealized influence component of transformational leadership at .71. Multiple validation tests found this relationship. However, the tests note a distinction between ethical and transformational leadership. The study validated a 10 item Ethical Leadership Scale (ELS) and chose idealized influence for comparison out of the four transformational components, due to its recognized relationship to ethics.

Internationally, transformational leadership has shown positive and significant associations with ethical leadership, yet they remain conceptually distinct (Toor & Ofori, 2009). A study of Singapore's authentic senior leaders in a construction industry found that ethical leadership (utilizing Brown et al, 2005's ELS scale) is significantly and positively correlated with transformational leadership ($r=.58$, $p<.01$) (Toor & Ofori, 2009). They attribute this high correlation to Burns' (1978) view that transformational leaders are more likely to model ethical behaviors since the goal of transformational leaders is to raise

aspirations of both leaders and employees. They also found that transformational leadership predicts ethical leadership (Toor & Ofori, 2009).

Similarly, in a study of 100 French companies, Bacha and Walker (2013) found that employees who perceive their supervisors to be fair also strongly correlate them with transformational leadership at .71. They related this strong correlation to supervisors treating their employees fairly and a transformational leaders' integrity, open and honest communication, and consideration of moral and ethical consequences. These characteristics are considered to be natural within leaders that take individual needs into considerations while setting positive examples (Bacha & Walker, 2013).

In addition, a study of employed Chinese MBA students found a significant and positive correlation between moral leadership (virtuous, selflessness, acting for the common good, and altruistic) and transformational leadership at .63 ($p < .001$). Interestingly, the study proposes that employees recognize transformational leaders' behaviors and then search for intentions and motives because transformational leadership is morally neutral. Employees are drawn to search for morally relevant cues, which makes moral leadership more pronounced (Schuh et al., 2013).

Lastly, servant leadership is a positive form of leadership with ethical components. It is empirically distinct, yet highly correlated to transformational leadership. Liden et al. (2008) created a seven dimensional scale for defining servant leadership including: showing sensitivity to others, genuine concern for helping the community, supporting and assisting others, empowering others, helping employees grow and succeed, putting employees first, and behaving ethically by being open, fair and honest with others. Each of the seven aspects are significantly and highly correlated with transformational leadership between .53 and .79.

Behaving ethically and justifiably is correlated at .76 with transformational leadership. Additionally, the analysis shows that servant leadership is distinct from transformational leadership for each of the studied outcomes. Servant leadership explains more variance in community citizenship behaviors at 19% whereas transformational leadership explains a higher variance in organizational commitment at 11%. This study is one more example of the distinction and high correlations between ethical forms of leadership and transformational leadership.

As evident, the research presented provides support for the last hypothesis, which seeks to understand the relationship between transformational leadership and public ethics in tandem within the public sector. As described by previous researchers, both public ethics and transformational leadership have characteristics that lead to important positive organizational outcomes such as greater employee satisfaction and leadership effectiveness. This leadership style and ethical behaviors are highly correlated yet make distinct contributions to organizational outcomes. Since public administrators need to be both highly effective and ethical, these two elements individually are insufficient. The research presented lends support for the final hypothesis, which combines these two elements for the development of an exceptional form of public leadership.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

The primary research method for this study is a multivariate regression analysis using secondary data to determine whether public ethics assists the transformational leadership style in creating a more effective public administrator and greater satisfaction amongst employees. Bass and Avolio's (1990) theory of transformational leadership and the public ethics discovered in the literature review frame the operational conceptualization for the study. This study's conceptual framework includes two dependent variables, employee satisfaction and leadership effectiveness, and two independent variables, transformational leadership and public ethics.

DATA

The research study utilizes secondary data from a survey administered to U.S. federal employees through the Office of Personnel Management (OPM). The Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey (FEVS) is the largest available survey of government employees and is administered yearly both electronically and in paper format ("2014 Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey Results," n.d.). Participant responses are confidential and protected under the public privacy act. The survey "measures employees' perceptions of whether, and to what extent, conditions characterizing successful organizations are present in their agencies" ("Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey Results," n.d.).

The 2014 data set of interest contains responses from 82 agencies, of which 37 are large and 45 are small agencies. The response rate of 46.8% comprises 392,752 out of 839,788 employees selected through a stratified random sampling method. The survey questions cover a wide variety of topics such as ethics, communication, creativity, flexibility, strategic thinking, leveraging diversity, leading people, results and effectiveness,

job satisfaction, personal experiences, collaborating within the organization, and demographic questions. The occupational demographics describe a diverse range of employees including full-time, part-time, new hires, long-term hires, and from a variety of occupations.

INSTRUMENTATION

This research uses the 2014 FEVS survey weighted dataset. Of the 118 survey questions, 84 of which are not demographic or agency related, 30 are used to measure the variables of interest in this study. There are five questions representing the dependent variables and 25 representing the independent variables. The literature review, including Bass's full range leadership model, Willems et. al (2012), Asencio & Mujkic (2016), Asencio (2016), and Trottier, Van Wart, and Wang (2008) provided guidelines for the selection and categorization of relevant questions to be used in this study. In particular, several research studies explored transformational leadership and ethics; therefore, the questions chosen for this study mirror these for ease of comparison (Asencio & Mujkic, 2016; Fernandez et al., 2010; Kellis & Ran, 2013; Trottier et al., 2008). The FEVS survey does not purposefully measure the study's variables, but the questions are in direct relation to the variables of interest.

Trottier et al. (2008) performed a similar transformational leadership analysis using the same survey as this study in 2002. The study focused on transformational leadership and its effects on leadership effectiveness and employee satisfaction. They chose to realign individualized consideration as transactional leadership instead of transformational leadership due to perceived fit. The perceived fit references transactional research from the 1960s that included aspects of individualized consideration. This study maintains individual

consideration under the transformational leadership element as originally depicted in Bass's model, which is also consistent with research studies of transformational leadership in conjunction with moral and ethical elements (Bass, 1985; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Simola et al., 2010). The rationale behind this choice is to recognize the widely validated alignment of individualized consideration within transformational leadership studies and to maintain consistency for further comparison to other research.

Survey questions that represent Bass's conceptualization of transformational leaders, in which individuals' needs are considered, the leader is a source of model behavior, the leader motivates employees and stimulates employees intellectually, were chosen for inclusion in this study (Bass, 1985). The final question selection drew from and compared existing research that utilized the same survey in regards to transformational leadership (Asencio & Mujkic, 2016; Fernandez et al., 2010; Kellis & Ran, 2013; Trottier et al., 2008). The twelve FEVS questions below are adopted from prior research to measure the independent variable of transformational leadership.

Table 3.1: Transformational Leadership Index

Transformational Leadership (comprised of four components and 12 questions), adopted from Asencio & Mujkic (2016) and Asencio (2016)

Transformational Leadership

Individualized Consideration

1. My supervisor supports my need to balance work and other life issues. (Q42)
2. My supervisor/team leader provides me with opportunities to demonstrate my leadership skills. (Q43)
3. My supervisor/team leader provides me with constructive suggestions to improve my job performance. (Q46)
4. Supervisors/team leaders in my work unit support employee development. (Q47)
5. My supervisor/team leader listens to what I have to say. (Q48)

Idealized Influence

1. My organization's senior leaders maintain high standards of honesty and integrity. (Q54)
2. I have a high level of respect for my organization's senior leaders. (Q61)

Inspirational Motivation

1. Employees have a feeling of personal empowerment with respect to work processes. (Q30)
2. In my organization, senior leaders generate high levels of motivation and commitment in the workforce. (Q53)
3. Managers communicate the goals and priorities of the organization. (Q56)

Intellectual Stimulation

1. I feel encouraged to come up with new and better ways of doing things. (Q3)
2. Creativity and innovation are rewarded. (Q32)

Transformation Leadership Scale

- A composite of all items (twelve questions) included in Individualized Consideration, Idealized Influence, Inspirational Motivation, and Intellectual Stimulation (Q#) indicates question from FEVS survey

The FEVS questions chosen for the public ethics scale represent the elements derived from the ethical leadership literature. Research that utilizes the same survey and has similar concepts such as trust, fairness, justice, diversity, and relationship orientation, which is similar to community building, aided in the question selection (Asencio, 2016; Asencio & Mujkic, 2016; Choi, 2012; Fernandez et al., 2010; Kellis & Ran, 2013; Oberfield, 2014).

Table 3.2: Public Ethics Index

Public Ethics

Trust & Fairness (fairness mirrors Choi 2012)

1. I have trust and confidence in my supervisor. (Q51)
2. I can disclose a suspected violation of any law, rule or regulation without fear of reprisal. (Q17)
3. Arbitrary action, personal favoritism and coercion for partisan political purposes are not tolerated. (Q37)
4. Prohibited Personnel Practices (for examples, illegally discriminating for or against any employee/applicant, obstructing a person's right to compete for employment, knowingly violating veterans' preference requirements) are not tolerated. (Q38)

Community Building

1. Employees in my work unit share job knowledge with each other. (Q26)
2. Managers promote communication among different work units (for example, about projects, goals, needed resources). (Q58)
3. Managers support collaboration across work units to accomplish work objectives. (Q59)

Sensitivity to Diversity (Choi, 2012)

1. Policies and programs promote diversity in the workplace (for example, recruiting minorities and women, training in awareness of diversity issues, mentoring). (Q34)
2. My supervisor is committed to a workforce representative of all segments of society. (Q45)
3. Supervisors work well with employees of different backgrounds. (Q55)

Public and Organizational Interest

1. The people I work with cooperate to get the job done. (Q20)
2. My agency is successful at accomplishing its mission. (Q39)
3. I believe the results of this survey will be used to make my agency a better place to work. (Q41)

Public Ethics Scale

- A composite of all items (thirteen questions) included in Trust & Fairness, Community Building, Sensitivity to Diversity, and Organizational Interest
(Q#) indicates question from FEVS survey

Employee satisfaction and leadership effectiveness are the intended outcomes and dependent variables of interest. The three questions measuring employee satisfaction relate to satisfaction with the supervisor and the organization and are represented in similar studies (Kellis & Ran, 2013; Oberfield, 2014; Trottier et al., 2008a). Employee satisfaction mirrors the questions chosen by Ko and Hur (2013).

Table 3.3: Employee Satisfaction Index

Employee Satisfaction – a composite of three items

1. I recommend my organization as a good place to work. (Q40)
 2. Considering everything, how satisfied are you with your job? (Q69)
 3. Considering everything, how satisfied are you with your organization? (Q71)
- (Q#) indicates question from FEVS survey

The two questions measuring leadership effectiveness are an employees' perception of how well supervisors and management are doing their job and are represented in a similar study (Trottier et al., 2008).

Table 3.4: Leadership Effectiveness Index

Leadership Effectiveness – a composite of two items

1. Overall, how good a job do you feel is being done by your immediate supervisor? (Q52)
 2. Overall, how good of a job do you feel is being done by the manager directly above your immediate supervisor? (Q 60)
- (Q#) indicates question from FEVS survey

The following covariates are characteristics of employees: supervisory status (1 = non-supervisor, 0 = supervisor), gender (1 = female, 0 = male), and minority status (1 = minority, 0 = non-minority). They have been used in a prior study interested in transformational leadership and ethics (Asencio, 2016).

DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

The data analysis begins with determining the internal reliability of the constructs chosen. The two statistical procedures performed determine internal reliability prior to the regression analysis, Cronbach's alpha and a confirmatory factor analysis. Cronbach's alpha tests the reliability of the transformational and public ethics indexes for internal consistency, as there are multiple items within the questionnaire for measurement of the same concepts. The test measures how closely related the questions are as a group to assist in forming the indexes. Transformational leadership is a composite of all questions included in individualized consideration, idealized influence, inspirational motivation, and intellectual stimulation subcategories. Public ethics is a composite of all questions included in the trust

and fairness, community building, sensitivity to diversity, and public and organizational interest subcategories. An acceptable alpha value of .70 or above out of 1.00 is the preferred value in social science research and guides this research (Berman & Wang, 2011).

A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using SPSS measures the internal reliability of the composite indexes and confirms whether constructs are appropriate for this study and whether there is multidimensionality. CFA is a statistical procedure used to test how well the measured variables represent the constructs and whether they are separate constructs, therefore each not measuring the same phenomenon. In examining the total variance explained, attention to the eigenvalues and percent of variance helps to indicate whether each composite index composes a unique dimension within the study. There is dimensionality if the eigenvalues vary between constructs. Additionally, the percent of variance must also vary to indicate that each measurement is a separate construct. Lastly, the variance inflation factor (VIF) score within the regression analysis are reviewed to determine if this is low, thus indicating low levels of multicollinearity in the model.

The two dependent variables (employee satisfaction and leadership effectiveness) and the independent variables (transformational leadership and public ethics) are continuous. Therefore, the most appropriate statistical analysis is a multi-variate regression and the method is consistent with other research studies in the literature review (Asencio & Mujkic, 2016; Berman & Wang, 2011; Kellis & Ran, 2013; Trottier et al., 2008). A multiple regression analysis, aggregating all U.S. federal employees, using individual level perceptions is performed using the 2014 Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey weighted data. It is anticipated that agency leaders will not completely lack public ethics or transformational leadership behaviors as research indicates that public sector leaders display

each of these characteristics (Fernandez et al., 2010; Kellis & Ran, 2013; Trottier et al., 2008).

The following multiple linear regression analysis assumptions test whether the method is appropriate and, if necessary, what data modifications are required: linearity, normality and independence of the error terms, multicollinearity, and homoscedasticity. Linearity indicates that the relationship between the variables are linear and not curved when viewing a scatterplot diagram. Additionally, the errors between the observed and predicted values should be normally distributed and are checked by reviewing a histogram. Next, the data is checked for multicollinearity to determine whether the correlations between independent variables in a Pearson's bivariate correlation test are below .80 out of 1.00 or whether they meet VIF score requirements. Lastly, a scatter plot of residuals versus actuals determines whether the data has homoscedasticity, which is preferred, by confirming that there is no clear pattern amongst the data such as a cone shape. This further clarifies that the dependent variables' observed and predicted residuals are equal across the values of the independent variable. Importantly, homoscedasticity tests a regression model's ability to predict a dependent variable consistently across all values of the independent variable. Thus, this confirms the model's consistency for accurately predicting low or high values of the dependent variable. Each of these tests must be met to ensure the accuracy of the multivariate regression results. The model specification is as follows:

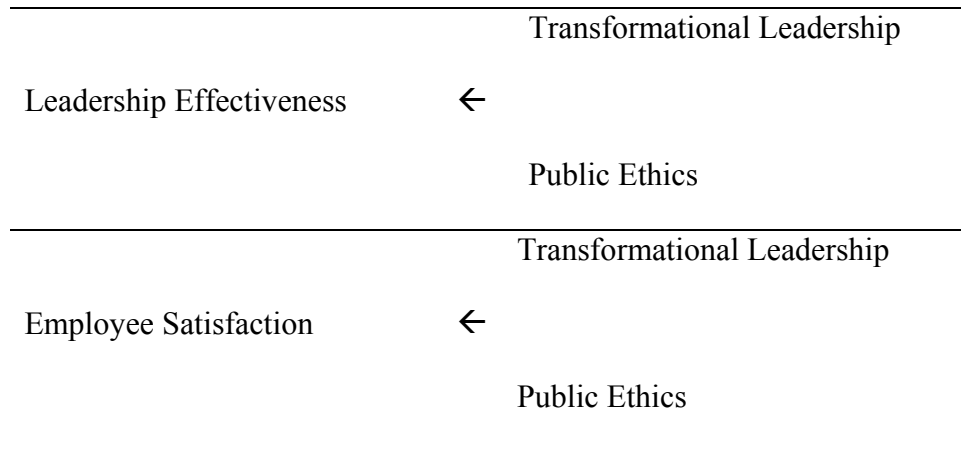


Figure 3.1: Research Model

Regression Analysis:

1. Leadership effectiveness = $a + b(\text{transformational leadership})$
2. Employee satisfaction = $a + b(\text{transformational leadership})$
3. Leadership effectiveness = $a + b(\text{public ethics})$
4. Employee satisfaction = $a + b(\text{public ethics})$
5. Leadership effectiveness = $a + b_1(\text{transformational leadership}) + b_2(\text{public ethics})$
6. Employee satisfaction = $a + b_1(\text{transformational leadership}) + b_2(\text{public ethics})$

*Each model considers the covariates of gender, minority status, and supervisory status and the analysis is at the individual level with aggregation at the federal level.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

This study explores the relationship between transformational leadership and public ethics, and whether these contribute to employee satisfaction and leadership effectiveness. A regression and hierarchical analysis examines the explanatory power of the portrayed models (transformational leadership and public ethics). This chapter presents the results of the data analysis for the three hypotheses. Displayed first are the descriptive statistics, followed by a confirmatory factor analysis or procedure related to creating and transforming variables and index construction. The next section details the tests performed to ensure that the analysis meets the assumptions of multiple regression. Last, is the hypotheses testing, or regression analyses, followed by a summary of the results.

DESCRIPTION OF SAMPLE

The data source is from the 2014 Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey (FEVS) administered by the U.S. Office of Personnel Management (OPM). The 2014 data set of interest contains responses from 82 agencies, of which 37 are large and 45 are small. The response rate of 46.8% comprises 392,752 individual respondents out of 839,788 employees selected through a stratified random sampling method. Presented in Table 4.1 are the frequencies and percentages of the number of respondents. As evident, the respondents are predominately non-minorities at 58.5% and non-supervisors at 73.6%. There is a slightly higher percent of males at 47.6% compared to 44.1% females, although 8.3% did not respond.

Table 4.1: Demographic Descriptive Statistics

	Unweighted	Unweighted	Weighted	Weighted
Supervisory Status	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Supervisor	75,797	19.3%	292,844	16.5%
Non-Supervisor	288,886	73.6%	1,345,121	75.9%
Missing Response	28,069	7.1%	133,335	7.5%
Total Responses	392,752		1,771,301	
Gender				
Male	187,105	47.6%	922,526	52.1%
Female	173,341	44.1%	702,068	39.6%
Missing	32,306	8.2%	146,707	8.3%
Total Responses	392,752		1,771,301	
Minority Status				
Non-Minority	229,578	58.5%	990,832	55.9%
Minority	120,168	30.6%	591,431	33.4%
Missing	43,006	10.9%	189,038	10.7%
Total Responses	392,752		1,771,301	

CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS

After a number of iterations of Principal Components Factoring using an orthogonal (Varimax) rotation, the results supported a two-factor model of transformational leadership and a one-factor model of public ethics with items loading differently on factors when compared to the original constructs described in chapter three. The difference warrants a discussion of how the factor analysis evolved. Figure 4.1 depicts the priori factor structure for transformational leadership and public ethics.

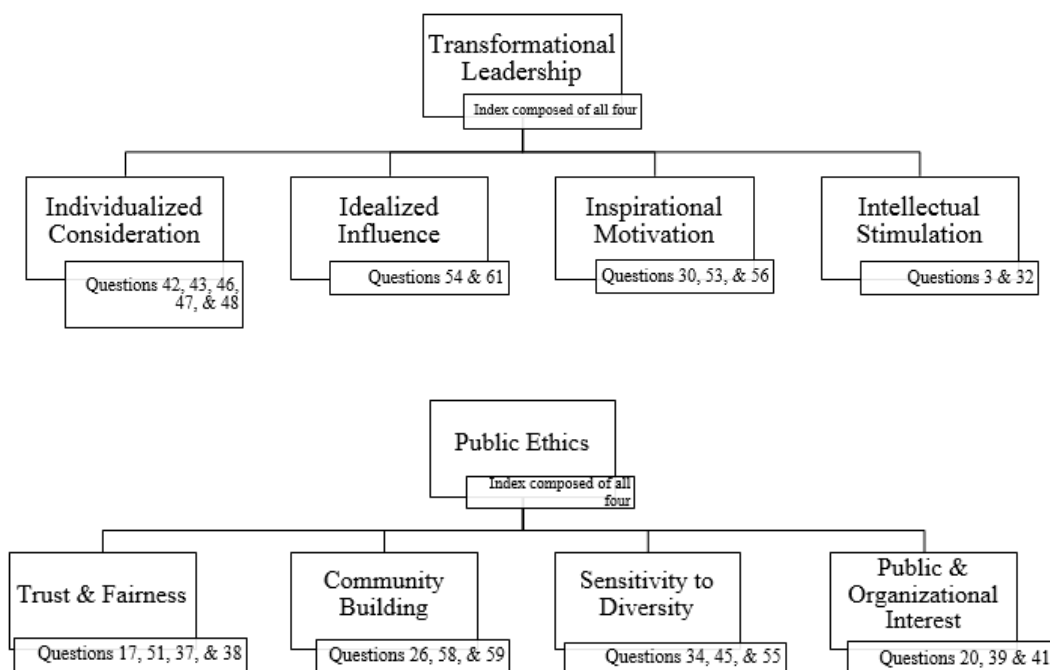


Figure 4.1: Priori Factor Structures

Transformational Leadership

The principal component analysis (PCA) describes the exploration performed on 12 questions within the FEVS to measure transformational leadership. The suitability of PCA was assessed prior to analysis. Inspection of the correlation matrix showed that all variables had at least one correlation coefficient greater than .30. The overall Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure was .947 with individual KMO measures all greater than .90, which is classified as meritorious, according to (Kaiser, 1974). Bartlett's test of sphericity was statistically significant ($p < .0005$), indicating that the data was likely factorizable.

The PCA revealed two components, transformational leadership and individualized consideration, that had eigenvalues greater than one and which explained 60.862% and 12.732% of the total variance. Visual inspections of the scree plot indicated that two components should be retained (Cattell, 1966). In addition, a two-component solution met

the interpretability criterion. This is consistent with the question selection and results found by Ascencio (2016) in a similar transformational leadership study. Consequently, two components were retained.

The two-component solution explained 73.595% of the total variance. A Varimax orthogonal rotation was employed to aid interpretability. The interpretation of the data was consistent with the leadership traits the questions were chosen to measure, with strong loadings of individualized consideration on component two, and idealized influence, inspirational motivation, and intellectual stimulation on component one, as recognized in Figure 4.2. Component loadings and communalities of the rotated solution are presented in Appendix C. Each scale has a high level of internal consistency as determined by a Cronbach's alpha of .924 or higher. Furthermore, each exceeds the recommended value of .7 or higher.

Transformational leadership clearly loads as a two-factor structure though research is mixed as to whether it is unidimensional. Consistent with other studies, individualized consideration loads as one factor and the remaining three components of transformational leadership as a second factor (Ascencio, 2016; Ascencio & Mujkic, 2016).

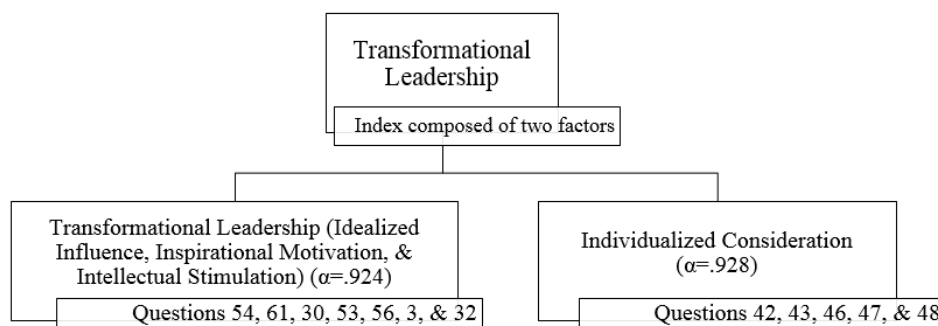


Figure 4.2: Final Transformational Leadership Factor Structure

Public Ethics

The principal component analysis (PCA) describes the exploration performed on 13 questions within the FEVS to measure Public Ethics. Inspection of the correlation matrix showed that all variables had at least one correlation coefficient greater than .30. The overall Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure was .925 with individual KMO measures all greater than .86, results which Kaiser (1974) classifies as “meritorious” to “marvelous.” Bartlett’s test of sphericity was statistically significant ($p < .0005$), indicating that the data was likely factorizable.

The PCA revealed one component with an eigenvalue greater than one and which explained 54.002% of the total variance. Visual inspections of the scree plot indicated that one component should be retained (Cattell, 1966). In addition, a one-component solution met the interpretability criterion. Therefore, one component was retained. A Varimax orthogonal rotation was employed to aid interpretability, but, due to one factor, the solution cannot be rotated. The interpretation of the data was consistent with the ethical traits the questions were chosen to measure with strong loadings on one component as referenced in Figure 4.3. The confirmation factor analysis considered public ethics a unidimensional construct with one factor consisting of 13 questions. The scale has a high level of internal consistency as determined by a Cronbach’s alpha of .927. Additional component loadings and communalities are presented in Appendix C.

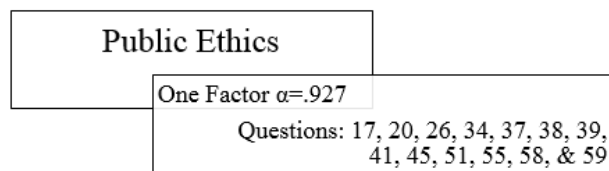


Figure 4.3: Final Public Ethics Factor Structure

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Table 4.2 presents frequencies and percentages for the five relevant variables. The variable measures are on a scale ranging from one to five. Participants responded to all survey items using a five point-point Likert scale (from 1 = “Strongly disagree” or “Very dissatisfied” to 5 = “Strongly agree” or “Very satisfied”). The distribution for each variable is significantly skewed; therefore, the median, as compared to the mean, is the best measure of central tendency and is listed in Table 4.2.

According to the frequencies, employee satisfaction is mixed with 47.7% being very satisfied or satisfied compared to 47% (score of 3.75+) of employees neither satisfied nor dissatisfied and dissatisfied. Employees perceive their leaders as more effective than not at 52.6% (score of 3.75+), with 23.6% neither agreeing nor disagreeing, and 14.1% not agreeing. Transformational leadership (minus individualized consideration) was less highly perceived at 28.6% (score of 3.75+) compared to 54.4% neither agreeing nor disagreeing. Transformational leadership, with regard to individualized consideration, is highly perceived at 59.8% (score of 3.75+) compared to 33.9% neither agreeing nor disagreeing. Perceptions of public ethics are divided with 34.8% agreeing the supervisor displays these traits compared to 31.8% neither agreeing nor disagreeing. Public ethics, due to the high number of questions included in the scale and the requirement for a response on each question to be included in the results, does have a high percent of missing responses at 33.6%. In summary, federal employees are stronger in individualized consideration than either transformational leadership or public ethics and they are somewhat satisfied with their perceived effective leaders.

Table 4.2: Variable Descriptive Statistics- Frequencies & Medians

	Unweighted Frequency	Unweighted Percent	Weighted Frequency	Weighted Percent
Employee Satisfaction				
1-1.99	28,119	7.2%	124,957	7.1%
2-2.99	56,035	14.2%	255,497	14.4%
3-3.74	100,261	25.6%	462,005	26.1%
3.75-4.99	146,028	37.1%	642,397	36.3%
5	41,615	10.6%	168,795	9.5%
Missing Response	20,694	5.3%	117,650	6.6%
Total	392,752		1,771,301	
Median	4.00		3.667	
Leadership Effectiveness				
1-1.99	18,177	4.6%	88,172	5%
2-2.99	37,430	9.5%	179,540	10.1%
3-3.74	92,816	23.6%	432,768	24.4%
3.75-4.99	138,360	35.3%	602,217	34%
5	67,910	17.3%	272,252	15.4%
Missing Response	38,059	9.7%	196,352	11.1%
Total	392,752		1,771,301	
Median	4.00		4.00	
Transformational Leadership				
1-1.99	39,952	10.3%	186,446	10.6%
2-2.99	72,356	18.4%	338,388	19.1%
3-3.74	101,269	25.7%	459,442	25.8%
3.75-4.99	99,906	25.5%	422,497	23.8%
5	12,147	3.1%	48,508	2.7%
Missing Response	67,122	17.1%	316,018	17.8%
Total	392,752		1,771,301	
Median	3.4286		3.2857	
Transformational Leadership – Individualized Consideration				
1-1.99	22,284	5.6%	111,320	6.3%
2-2.99	38,523	9.9%	185,767	10.4%
3-3.74	72,109	18.4%	342,900	19.3%
3.75-4.99	168,451	42.9%	734,349	41.4%
5	66,506	16.9%	268,271	15.1%
Missing Response	24,879	6.3%	128,692	7.3%
Total	392,752		1,771,301	
Median	4.00		4.00	

Public Ethics	Unweighted Frequency	Unweighted Percent	Weighted Frequency	Weighted Percent
1-1.99	10,571	2.9%	51,275	2.8%
2-2.99	37,614	9.4%	181,998	10.2
3-3.74	76,494	19.5%	358,132	20.1%
3.75-4.99	127,691	32.7%	541,103	30.6%
5	8,259	2.1%	31,980	1.8%
Missing Response	132,123	33.6%	606,810	34.3%
Total	392,752		1,771,301	
Median	3.769		3.692	

Note. The response meanings vary depending upon the question, such as one being Strongly disagree or Very dissatisfied, three as Neither agree nor disagree or Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied, and five as Strongly agree or Very satisfied.

CORRELATIONS

The primary variables of interest have high and significant positive correlations ($p < .01$) as evident from the bivariate correlation matrix in Appendix D. Satisfaction is correlated with transformational leadership at .817, public ethics at .798, and individualized consideration at .635. Leadership effectiveness is correlated with public ethics at .796, individualized consideration at .793, and transformational leadership at .749. Though all correlations are high, satisfaction is the highest with transformational leadership, whereas leadership effectiveness is slightly higher with public ethics. The covariates, supervisory status, gender, and minority status have extremely low correlations of less than .1 with the independent variables. Supervisory status has a very low negative correlation with both employee satisfaction (-.086) and leadership effectiveness (-.067), with non-supervisors being slightly less satisfied and viewing leaders as slightly less effective.

The correlations between the independent variables, transformational leadership and public ethics are high. Individualized consideration is correlated with transformational leadership at .668 and public ethics at .795. Transformational leadership is correlated with

public ethics at .877. Notably, public ethics are more strongly correlated with the two dimensions of transformational leadership than these dimensions are with each other.

Correlations above .70 are targets for exploration to ensure multi-collinearity does not cause an issue with the analysis. A common exploration, the VIF score, provides a reasonable and intuitive indication of the effects of multi-collinearity on the variance of the regression coefficient. Upon further exploration within the regression models, the VIF scores are all below 10 for each variable within the models, with most regressions not exceeding 1.827 and the third hypothesis's multiple regression not exceeding 6.636, thus considered an acceptable level. Therefore, reduction of variables or other correctional methods are not recommended (O'Brien, 2007; Statistical Solutions, 2018). Furthermore, combining variables without theoretical underpinnings, or removing variables which eliminate possible relationships, is considered to do more harm than good. However, the final hypothesis includes a hierarchical regression analysis that uses a likelihood ratio test in conjunction with a multiple regression analysis to ensure that the potential effects of multi-collinearity are viewed from several perspectives and all reported results are respectful of the high collinearity.

HYPOTHESIS TESTING

The intent of this research is to explore the relationship between transformational leadership, public ethics, employee satisfaction, and leadership effectiveness. From the principal component analysis, transformational leadership divides into two components, transformational leadership (inspirational motivation, idealized influence, and intellectual stimulation) and individualized consideration. All tests below reflect the division.

BASIC REQUIREMENTS OF A MULTIPLE REGRESSION

Each of the hypotheses' models meet the basic requirements for a multiple regression analysis unless otherwise noted. The dependent variables are measured at the continuous level, and the independent variables are either continuous or nominal. All have linear relationships, homoscedasticity (residuals are normally distributed with a zero mean and equal variance), residuals are normally distributed, and the outliers are not influential upon the results. Further details of the analyses are in Appendix E.

As such, scatterplots of all tests were visually inspected with a fit line to indicate whether a linear relationship exists between variables. This analysis showed a linear relationship for all variable sets within the hypotheses. Additionally, residuals are normally distributed as assessed by visual inspection of a normal probability plot.

There is homoscedasticity as assessed by visual inspection of a plot of studentized residuals versus unstandardized predicted values. Additionally, further analysis of additional plotting techniques confirmed this conclusion. One out of the eight original models did not meet the requirement of homoscedasticity. The model of individualized consideration and employee satisfaction did not meet this test; therefore, it was combined with transformational leadership for the analysis. The substitute model does meet the requirement for homoscedasticity.

There is no conclusive evidence of multicollinearity issues, as assessed by tolerance values greater than 0.1 or VIF scores less than 10, though the combined models indicate the coefficients may not be reliable. If multicollinearity exists, or variables are highly correlated, it is difficult to separate the effects or individual impact of each independent variable upon the dependent variable; therefore, the results only report what it is trustworthy to estimate.

There are outliers as evident from case-wise diagnostics. All outliers were reviewed and determined not to be data entry errors or measurement errors; they are genuine values that are considered outside of the predicted value. The number of outliers in all analyses is less than 0.88% of all observations. The leverage value of each outlier is well below the .2 or lower recommended value with none exceeding .00001 (Laerd Statistics, 2015). Additionally, the Cook's distance value for each outlier did not exceed .00019, which is also well below the recommended less than 1.00 (Laerd Statistics, 2015). This provides justification for not removing the outliers in each regression model since they do not appear to have a significant influence upon the analysis.

All regressions utilize weighted data and report the adjusted R^2 with consideration of the covariates of supervisory status, gender, and minority status. Additionally, all results are statistically significant with a predictive value of $p < .0005$. All predictive point analysis is on a scale of one to five. Further details for all regression results are located in Appendix E.

REGRESSION RESULTS

Transformational Leadership and Employee Satisfaction

Transformational leadership accounts for 66.8% of the positive variance in employee satisfaction. A one-point increase in transformational leadership equates to a .837 increase in employee satisfaction, on a scale of one to five, with a 95% confidence interval range of .836 to .838. Individualized consideration in measurement with employee satisfaction does not meet the linear regression requirement for homoscedasticity; therefore, it is not included in the regression results.

As an adequate substitute for analysis, transformational leadership combined with individualized consideration accounts for 68.6% of the variance in employee satisfaction. A one-point increase in each equates to an accumulated .893 increase in employee satisfaction,

with transformational leadership at .716 and individualized consideration at a low .177, and a 95% confidence interval range of .891 to .897.

Transformational Leadership and Leadership Effectiveness

Transformational leadership accounts for 56.4% of the variance in leadership effectiveness. A one-point increase in transformational leadership equates to a .774 increase in leadership effectiveness, with a 95% confidence interval range of .773 to .775.

Individualized consideration accounts for 63.1% of the variance in leadership effectiveness.

A one-point increase equates to a .806 increase in leadership effectiveness, with a 95% confidence interval range of .805 to .807. Together they account for 72.1% of the variance in leadership effectiveness. A one-point increase in each equates to an accumulated .948 increase in leadership effectiveness, with transformational leadership at .406 and individualized consideration at .542, and a 95% confidence interval range of .946 to .951.

Therefore, these results lend support for Hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 1: An increase in transformational leadership is positively associated with increases in (a) employee satisfaction and (b) leadership effectiveness.

Public Ethics and Employee Satisfaction

Public ethics accounts for 64% of the variance in employee satisfaction. A one-point increase in public ethics equates to a .982 increase in employee satisfaction, with a 95% confidence interval range of .980 to .983.

Public Ethics and Leadership Effectiveness

Public ethics accounts for 63.7% of the variance in leadership effectiveness. A one-point increase in public ethics equates to a .995 increase in leadership effectiveness, with a 95% confidence interval range of .993 to .996. Therefore, the results lend support for

Hypothesis 2.

Hypothesis 2: An increase in public ethics is positively associated with increases in (a) employee satisfaction and (b) leadership effectiveness.

Satisfaction, Transformational Leadership, and Public Ethics

Transformational leadership, individualized consideration, and public ethics together account for 70.6% of the variance in employee satisfaction. A one-point increase in each equates to an accumulated .952 increase in employee satisfaction, with a 95% confidence interval range of .945 to .960. The results only list the combined coefficient due to the strong collinearity between variables, thus the combined results are reliable but the individual effects cannot be accurately determined. The variable VIF scores are each below the acceptable 10 but they are high enough to create uncertainty in the reliability of the coefficients, with public ethics the highest at 6.581 following by transformational leadership at 4.435 and individualized consideration at 2.757.

Transformational leadership and public ethics together account for 70.4% of the variance in employee satisfaction, closely mirroring the combined model. A one-point increase in each equates to an accumulated .952 increase in employee satisfaction, with a 95% confidence interval range of .946 to .956.

Leadership Effectiveness, Transformational Leadership, and Public Ethics

Transformational leadership, individualized consideration, and public ethics together account for 73% of the variance in leadership effectiveness. A one-point increase in each equates to an accumulated .988 increase in leadership effectiveness, with a 95% confidence interval range of .98 to .992. The results only list the combined coefficient due to the strong collinearity between variables, thus the combined results are reliable but the individual effects cannot be accurately determined. The variable VIF scores are each below the

acceptable 10 but they are high enough to create uncertainty in the reliability of the coefficients, with public ethics the highest at 6.636 following by transformational leadership at 4.475 and individualized consideration at 2.764.

Transformational leadership and public ethics together account for 65.1% of the variance in leadership effectiveness, which is considerably lower than the combined model, thus reinforcing the importance of individualized consideration for leadership effectiveness. A one-point increase in each equates to an accumulated .978 increase, with a 95% confidence interval range of .973 to .984.

HIERARCHICAL MULTIPLE REGRESSION

A hierarchical multiple regression provides a method to determine the variance increase explained by the addition of a single independent variable (Laerd Statistics, 2015). Since standard multiple regression does not report shared variations or those uniquely attributed to a particular independent variable, the hierarchical method is preferred for a complex model such as the last hypothesis. This will determine whether public ethics adds any significant and unique variation within the complex model, and if so, to what magnitude. Additionally, a likelihood-ratio test as a function of a hierarchical multiple regression helps to choose the best model between two nested models. It aids in determining whether the addition of variables is statistically significant. The purpose of this test is to conclude which is the best model to predict the dependent variables, thus determining if the smaller model is as good a fit for the data as the larger model. This, then, provides an answer to whether public ethics significantly improves the prediction of employee satisfaction and leadership effectiveness over and above transformational leadership and individualized consideration alone. As such, the following analyses were performed and the complete results are listed in Appendix F.

Satisfaction - Hierarchical Multiple Regression

The hierarchical multiple regression determines if the addition of public ethics improves the prediction of employee satisfaction over and above transformational leadership and individualized consideration. See Table 4.3 for full details on the regression model. The third and inclusive model incorporating transformational leadership, individualized consideration, and public ethics to predict employee satisfaction has an adjusted R^2 of .706. The addition of public ethics to the prediction of employee satisfaction leads to a statistically significant increase in R^2 of .013 as evidenced by Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Satisfaction Hierarchical Multiple Regression Model Summary

Model	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				Sig. F Change	Durbin Watson
					ΔR^2	F Change	Df1	Df2		
1	.089 ^a	.008	.008	.99560	.008	2649.376	3	991033	.000	. ^d
2	.833 ^b	.693	.693	.55358	.685	1107241.903	2	991031	.000	
3	.840 ^c	.706	.706	.54192	.013	43102.658	1	991030	.000	

- Predictors: (Constant), Minority Status, Supervisory Status, Gender
- Predictors: (Constant), Minority Status, Supervisory Status, Gender, Transformational Leadership, Individualized Consideration
- Predictors: (Constant), Minority Status, Supervisory Status, Gender, Transformational Leadership, Individualized Consideration, Public Ethics
- Not computed because fractional case weights have been found for the variable specified on the WEIGHT command.
- Dependent Variable: Satisfaction

Leadership Effectiveness- Hierarchical Multiple Regression

The hierarchical multiple regression determines if the addition of public ethics improves the prediction of leadership effectiveness over and above transformational leadership and individualized consideration. The third and inclusive model incorporating transformational leadership, individualized consideration, and public ethics to predict leadership effectiveness has an adjusted R^2 of .730. The addition of public ethics to the prediction of leadership effectiveness led to a statistically significant but low increase in R^2 of .005 as evidenced in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Leadership Effectiveness Hierarchical Multiple Regression Model Summary

Model	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				Sig. F Change	Durbin Watson
					ΔR^2	F Change	Df1	Df2		
1	.078 ^a	.006	.006	1.01469	.006	1980.875	3	967886	.000	. ^d
2	.851 ^b	.725	.725	.53410	.719	1262738.745	2	967884	.000	
3	.854 ^c	.730	.730	.52923	.005	17884.764	1	967883	.000	

- a. Predictors: (Constant), Minority Status, Supervisory Status, Gender
b. Predictors: (Constant), Minority Status, Supervisory Status, Gender, Transformational Leadership, Individualized Consideration
c. Predictors: (Constant), Minority Status, Supervisory Status, Gender, Transformational Leadership, Individualized Consideration, Public Ethics
d. Not computed because fractional case weights have been found for the variable specified on the WEIGHT command.
e. Dependent Variable: Leadership Effectiveness

The results displayed in Table 4.3-4.6 partially support the final hypothesis. The combined model better explains the variance in satisfaction and leadership effectiveness whereas public ethics have a stronger relationship to both satisfaction and leadership effectiveness.

Hypothesis 3: The ethical public transformational leader (public ethics + transformational leader) produces greater positive variances in (a) employee satisfaction and (b) leadership effectiveness than the transformational leader alone.

Table 4.5: Summary of Medians, Correlations, and Multiple Regression Analysis

Variable	Median	Employee Satisfaction		Leadership Effectiveness	
		Correlation	B (R ²)	Correlation	B (R ²)
Individual Models					
Transformational Leadership (TFL)	3.29	.817	.837 (66.8%)	.749	.774 (56.4%)
Individualized Consideration (IC)	4.00	.635	--	.793	.806 (63.1%)
Public Ethics (PE)	3.69	.798	.982 (64%)	.796	.995 (63.7%)
Supervisory Status	.82 (M)	-.086		-.067	
Gender	.43 (M)	.008		-.002	
Minority Status	.37 (M)	.014		-.036	
Complex Models					
TFL & IC			.893 (68.6%)		.948 (72.1%)
TFL & PE			.952 (70.4%)		.978 (65.1%)
TFL, IC, & PE			.952 (70.6%)		.988 (73%)

Note. Summary represents results for each variable individually in a model. Correlations are significant at the $p < .01$ level (2-tailed). M = Mean. B = Unstandardized regression coefficient. Each coefficient lists the adjusted R². Coefficients are significant at the $p < .001$ level. Supervisory status (1=non-supervisor), minority status (1=minority), and gender (1=female). Are results use weighted data. Highest number is in boldface. --This model does not meet the linear regression assumption for homoscedasticity.

Table 4.6: Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses Summary

Variables	Employee Satisfaction		Leadership Effectiveness	
	B	ΔR^2	B	ΔR^2
Step 1				
Supervisory Status	.041	.008	.078	.006
Minority Status	.032	-	-.036	-
Gender	.030	-	.024	-
Step 2				
Transformational Leadership	-	.685	-	.719
Individualized Consideration	-	-	-	-
Step 3				
Public Ethics	.952*	.013	.988*	.005
Total Adjusted R ²		.706		.730

Note. Each step lists the total R² change. B = Unstandardized regression coefficient. $\Delta R^2 = R^2$ Change.

*Due multicollinearity, the accumulated coefficient for transformational leadership, individualized consideration, and public ethics is listed.

All results are statistically significant $p < .001$.

SUMMARY

As evident, the results lend support for each of the hypotheses. Transformational leadership and public ethics each contribute to positive perceptions of employee satisfaction and leadership effectiveness. In conjunction with transformational leadership and individualized consideration, public ethics does add a small variance to the predictive ability of the model for both employee satisfaction and leadership effectiveness, although the magnitude is small. However, by itself, public ethics contributes to a higher level of satisfaction and leadership effectiveness than either transformational leadership component.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter presented an analysis of the data. Chapter five includes a summary of the study, discussion of its findings and their implications for practice, recommendations for further research, and conclusions. The purpose of the latter sections is to expand upon the findings and how they apply to prior research with aim of furthering efforts to enhance understanding and explore opportunities for improving public leadership. Finally, concluding thoughts capture the attempted scope of this research.

SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

This study further developed the transformational leadership theory and ideals for public leadership by including an ethical component and by testing whether this addition affects two important organizational outcomes, employee satisfaction and leadership effectiveness, in federal agencies. In addition, the purpose is to delineate an exceptional form of public leadership and provide evidence of the importance of public ethics as a component of effective leadership in the public sector. Transformational leadership, as composed of two components, was tested in terms of its predictive ability and contribution toward employee satisfaction and leadership effectiveness. Public ethics, a concept developed by this study, was similarly tested. The examination concluded with each of these independent variables in a singular model to determine whether public ethics uniquely enhances the transformational leadership style in affecting these outcomes.

The study has three hypotheses: (1) whether transformational leadership is positively associated with increases in (a) employee satisfaction and (b) leadership effectiveness; (2) whether public ethics is positively associated with increases in (a) employee satisfaction and

(b) leadership effectiveness; and (3) whether an ethical public transformational leader (public ethics + transformational leader) produces significantly greater positive variances in (a) employee satisfaction and (b) leadership effectiveness than the transformational leader alone.

The results support each of the hypotheses and portray both transformational leadership and public ethics as playing an active role in employee satisfaction and leadership effectiveness. Specifically, when leaders are perceived to behave ethically and transformationally, the results indicate that employees are more likely to report higher levels of satisfaction and perceive their leaders as effective. However, the results suggest there is a difference in the explanatory power and magnitude of these relationships. Chiefly, public ethics have a stronger positive relationship to both employee satisfaction and leadership effectiveness in comparison to transformational leadership, whereas transformational leadership better explains the variance in employee satisfaction. In particular, public ethics ($B = .982$) has a .145 stronger relationship to employee satisfaction than transformational leadership ($B = .837$). Also, public ethics ($B = .995$) contributes to higher levels of leadership effectiveness than transformational leadership ($B = .774$) or individualized consideration ($B = .806$). This central importance of ethics within public leadership resonates with other scholars who seek to create a stronger foundation and framework for ethics. Additionally, this study confirms that ethics are critical in “how we understand the nature and responsibilities of public sector leaders at all levels” (Denhardt & Campbell, 2006, p. 557).

Although public ethics have a stronger relationship with each outcome, transformational leadership alone better predicts and explains the variance in employee

satisfaction at 66.8% compared to public ethics at 64%. Comparatively, transformational leadership and individualized consideration together explain 68.6% of the variance. Public ethics is the best predictor for leadership effectiveness at 63.7%, whereas individualized consideration is a close 63.1% and transformational leadership a lower 56.4%.

Transformational leadership and individualized consideration together explain a significantly higher variance in leadership effectiveness at 72.1%. This is due to individualized consideration's strong contribution towards leadership effectiveness in both the variance and the strength of the relationship.

In the combined hierarchical model, the high correlations between variables are evident with regard to the coefficients and the magnitude of public ethics' unique contribution to an ethical transformational leadership model. Consequently, public ethics add very little positive variance, at a low 1.3% increase, for employee satisfaction above what transformational leadership (including individualized consideration) contributes. With regard to leadership effectiveness, it is even lower at .05%. However, the combined employee satisfaction variance increases 2% from 68.6% with transformational leadership and individualized consideration to an accumulated 70.6% with the addition of public ethics. Therefore, the combined dynamic does make a valuable difference. The results are less pronounced but similar for leadership effectiveness in which the additional difference is .9%. These unique variances, although modest, provide insight into how public ethics augment transformational leadership to achieve a meaningful difference, especially given the scale of federal agency operations. Creating a model that accounts for one to two percent more in predictive ability to affect a workforce of over 2.6 million will have an

important impact. This increase creates a more predictable leadership style, which is more likely to lead to higher levels of employee satisfaction and leadership effectiveness.

Comparatively, the model that provides a high level of variance and a strong relationship, thus a more balanced approach, is a combination of transformational leadership, individualized consideration, and public ethics. While the slope or strength of the relationship declines slightly for both employee satisfaction (.03) and leadership effectiveness (.007), the overall ability to predict and explain each outcome increases between 6% and 9%, thus making a respectable difference. These results provide support for a cohesive model that is more robust and predictable for leadership in the public sector.

From a practical perspective, these results, in conjunction with the current climate of federal agencies, demonstrate that there are weak areas which robust and ethical leadership might improve. Specifically, federal employees report that supervisors are effective leaders but satisfaction with these leaders is low with over half responding they are not satisfied. However, these leaders are considerate as indicated by a strong individualized consideration rating and mostly ethical. Nevertheless, there is room for improvement with the estimated half of employees not satisfied, one-third inconclusive about their leader's public ethics, and the perception of only one-third of these supervisors being transformational.

Subsequently, these results suggest that public managers, who are focused on individualized consideration, might need to focus on developing the aspects of public ethics and transformational leadership. This need is further enhanced by the negative correlation found between those not in supervisory positions feeling less satisfied and viewing their leaders as less effective. Additionally, previous federal studies also found this negative relationship, therefore demonstrating a perpetual history of lower satisfaction amongst this

population (Asencio, 2016). There is also a negative correlation found for women and minorities with regard to leadership effectiveness. As indicated, the conclusions support the indispensability of ethics in conjunction with transformational leadership for improving public administration. Public managers cannot rely solely on transformational leadership for important organizational outcomes. This also resonates with Kellis and Ran (2013) who found that public leaders are most effective when they combine leadership styles such as authentic values based leadership and transformational leadership.

In summary, the findings suggest that both transformational leadership and public ethics positively relate to employee satisfaction and leadership effectiveness. Furthermore, public ethics lead to a more positive effect for leadership effectiveness and employee satisfaction than either transformational leadership or individualized consideration, though transformational leadership explains a higher variance in satisfaction. In addition, the analysis portrays public leaders as low in transformational leadership and public ethics while high in individualized consideration behaviors. Thus, the study suggests that public leaders need to emphasize the development of transformational and ethical leaders to build a more satisfied workforce and exceptional public leader. Therefore, we need to recognize that a multi-faceted approach to leadership is required to build greater satisfaction which in turn creates a more motivated and productive workforce (Bass, 1996; Bass & Riggio, 2006).

DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

As discussed previously, transformational leadership and public ethics are both significant contributors to employee satisfaction and leadership effectiveness. This study and the literature review support these findings and each of the hypotheses. The present

examination is primarily in agreement with the literature, such that the overall findings support and extend prior research.

HYPOTHESIS ONE

The results of the first hypothesis are not unexpected, as they are consistent with previous findings in the literature suggesting that both transformational leadership and individualized consideration behaviors build greater employee satisfaction and better leadership effectiveness (Asencio & Mujkic, 2016; Kellis & Ran, 2013; Oberfield, 2014; Pandey et al., 2016; Park & Rainey, 2007; Trottier et al., 2008). Trottier et al. (2008) credit transformational leadership (not including individualized consideration) with a variance in follower satisfaction at 72.5%, which is similar to this study's 66.8%. Less similar is their attribution to leadership effectiveness at 70.9%, whereas this study found a much lower 56.4%. They used the same survey though their data is from twelve years earlier. The varying results may be due to the measurement period, changing public administrator behaviors, employees themselves, or the slight variations in the measurement of transformational leadership.

HYPOTHESIS TWO

Previous findings also support the second hypothesis suggesting that the public ethics components build greater employee satisfaction and better leadership effectiveness (Asencio, 2016; Brown et al., 2005; Choi & Rainey, 2014; Hassan et al., 2014; Kalshoven et al., 2011; Koh & Boo, 2001; Pitts, 2009; Vitell & Davis, 1990; C. Yang, 2014). Asencio (2016) found 57% of the variance in job satisfaction is related to trust, aligning with this study's finding that public ethics, which includes trust, is attributed to 64%. In addition, Pitts (2009) found approximately 6% of federal employee satisfaction is related to diversity

management, which is another of the four public ethics components. The present study's results are similar to these prior examinations.

HYPOTHESIS THREE

Additionally, research also supports the last hypothesis, though the results are mixed, suggesting that transformational leadership and public ethics behaviors are conceptually distinct and have a unique influence in building greater employee satisfaction and leadership effectiveness (Bacha & Walker, 2013; Brown et al., 2005; Liden et al., 2008; Schuh et al., 2013; Toor & Ofori, 2009). The strong, yet distinct, relationship between the conceptions of transformational leadership and public ethics, particularly fairness, trust, community building, and organizational interest used in this study, is similar to findings by Bacha and Walker (2013), Liden et al. (2008), and Toor and Ofori (2009). There is also consistency with Brown et al.'s (2005) finding that ethical leadership is distinct from idealized influence, which is the transformational leadership component with an ethical underpinning. Further arguments for this distinction contend that transformational leadership may not share each of the goals of an ethical public leader, though their actions and behaviors may be inherently ethical (Bass & Steidlmeier, 2004).

In comparison to the outcomes of interest in this study, Brown et al. (2005) found a significant relationship between ethical leadership and idealized influence and also between ethical leadership, employee satisfaction, and leadership effectiveness. However, there was no significant relationship between idealized influence and employee satisfaction and leadership effectiveness, which contradicts the present study's findings, although the present study did not separate idealized influence from transformational leadership in determining the predictability of outcomes. Additionally, Kellis and Ran (2013) attribute values-based leadership (similar to public ethics) to satisfaction in the position (similar to employee

satisfaction) at a higher level than transformational leadership, which concurs with this study's findings. Lastly, and theoretically, the study's findings support Orazi et al., (2013) and Pandey et al., (2016) who assert that public leaders should not only be transformational but also ethical while leveraging these ethics in organizational decisions to achieve better outcomes.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

The results offer several practical implications. The Office of Personnel Management's training program, Leadership for a Democratic Society, focuses on leading change and people, results, business acumen, and building coalitions. Transformational leadership is ingrained within this program ("Leadership," 2017, para. 1). The present research aims to influence these types of training models in federal and public leadership. Along these lines, the program's goals are to enhance and strengthen leadership with a purpose to influence effective government and the federal workforce. The present study's insights demonstrate that public ethics matter and should be included within this framework, most importantly because they have a greater effect on leadership effectiveness than transformational leadership itself. This will also address concerns that transformational leadership when applied to the public sector lacks ethics (Orazi et al., 2013).

Additionally, as demonstrated in the literature, leadership effectiveness and employee satisfaction are on the decline within the federal government. Similarly, those not in supervisory positions view the ethical environment in a more negative light (Raile, 2012). Furthermore, "many problems government faces are rooted in people problems" which can only be addressed by effective management tools (Cho & Lee, 2011, p. 957). Current practitioners can garner knowledge gained from this study to assist in their efforts to create a

more effective and satisfied team. Leaders can focus on managing from a transformational leadership perspective while recognizing how public ethics affect satisfaction and perceived effectiveness. Focusing on achievable objectives related to public ethics, such as building trust and community, acting fairly, valuing and building a diverse team, and basing decisions upon organizational and public interest can aid in reaching better outcomes. With this in mind, coaching techniques, such as managerial coaching or performance coaching, can integrate these behaviors into their goals. As a reinforcement, individual performance evaluations might include a rating system on how well public leaders demonstrate transformational leadership and public ethics behaviors and actions.

Lastly, the hiring process can include a behavior and personality assessment designed to recognize an ethical transformational leader. Additionally, those screening applicants can examine the candidates for these characteristics, thereby creating a proactive approach to effective leadership and employee satisfaction.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

A goal of this study was to investigate the affect public ethics have, in addition to transformational leadership, in important organizational outcomes. The results show the promising effects of public ethics. These findings, although significant, have some limitations. The primary limitation is the use of an existing survey. Another is explaining the complex and intertwining relationship between the independent variables. Next is reflecting how an ethical addition coincides with scholarship on inclusive leadership models. Additionally, the brevity of public administration literature on two of the public ethics is an area ripe for exploration. The contextual environment also deserves consideration. Lastly, and worthy of contemplation, is what other outcomes may be attributed to public ethics.

Instrumentation

The primary area ripe for future research is this study's limitation resulting from the use of an existing survey and constructing variables from its items. While the study sought to maintain consistency with existing research in the question selection for both transformational leadership and public ethics, the adaptation leaves room for exploration. Ideally, an instrument with the primary intention of measuring the conceptions is preferred. Future research should consider the creation and validation of a questionnaire to measure public ethics and, additionally, use the most widely validated measurement of transformational leadership, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ).

Complex Relationship

The undercurrents between transformational leadership and public ethics are complex. Consideration should be given to whether public ethics are a more effective substitute for either transformational leadership or individualized consideration since the results are promising. Public ethics denote a considerably stronger relationship to perceived leadership effectiveness than either transformational leadership or individualized consideration.

Additionally, the direction of the ethical and transformational leadership relationship is inconclusive. Research has examined whether ethics, such as trust, are antecedents or mediators between transformational leadership and organizational outcomes. As such, Asencio (2016) discovered trust mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and satisfaction. Public ethics, with its trust component, could also potentially be a mediator. Of additional interest is Asencio's low role for transactional leadership in relating to organizational outcomes, leading to a possibility for public ethics to hold a more

prominent role or to act as a substitute for this form of leadership recognized as complimentary to transformational leadership.

Additionally, transformational leadership (including individualized consideration) is found to contribute to trust, thus creating another multi-directional relationship to explore (Asencio & Mujkic, 2016). Specifically, individualized consideration is a higher contributor than transformational leadership to trust, thus a possible antecedent to public ethics. Similarly, Toor and Ofori (2009) found that transformational leadership predicts ethical leadership, thereby supporting this possibility.

In summary, the relationship between public ethics and transformational leadership deserves exploration due to its complexity and multi-directionality. Achieving a more in-depth understanding of this dynamic can further knowledge on the effectiveness of different leadership behaviors.

Inclusive Models

Latham (2014) suggests that these intricate dynamics propose a strong enough relationship to justify merging these two leadership models in order to create a new leadership style. Alternatively, Spitzmuller and Ilies (2010) advocate that other models and characteristics should be treated as root concepts or precursors to overcome leadership style short comings while maintaining comparability to other research. As an example, they suggest utilizing authentic leadership as a foundation for the transformational style, similar to the current study's concern for ethical components. Without a doubt, a merged model would be more holistic; however, comparisons across prior research and fields would be difficult. Attempting to address cultural and ethical relativism with a holistic ideal would further complicate these comparisons. Scholars should give further thought to these considerations.

Ethical Possibilities

While the ethics of trust and fairness and diversity were widely researched, the ethics of community building and public and organizational interest are less well explored in the public sector literature. Individual levels of analysis for these two components would assist in developing this route of inquiry.

Additionally, other ethics may be more effective or a better fit for public administration and organizational outcomes. An analysis focused specifically on ethics and measured individually would aid in exploring this option.

Contextual Environment

Consideration should also be given to the contextual environment as suggested by previous research (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Brown et al., 2005; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996). Analysis at the agency level is the most appropriate method in respecting the contextual and organizational differences as described in Bass's model of transformational leadership (Bass & Bruce J. Avolio, 1990; Tikhomirov, 2008). Further analysis at the agency level will provide deeper insights into the influence of public ethics upon employees and the organization within the team environment.

Organizational Outcomes

Finally, research exploring what other organizational outcomes ethical transformational leadership may explain is of interest. In comparison to the present research, Fernandez et al. (2010) employ the same survey of interest using data from 2006 and use eight of the same questions for transformational leadership, and five for public ethics, of which two are the same for diversity orientation. The study found their five leadership aspects affect agency performance within federal sub-agencies, though accounting for a low 4% in the variance. Because of the similarities between conceptions,

public ethics may also play a part in agency performance. Additionally, in support of this study's model, diversity and change-oriented leadership (related to transformational leadership) were highly correlated (0.77) yet found to be distinct enough to create two separate dimensions (Fernandez et al., 2010). Other important organizational issues, such as affective commitment, turnover intentions, and empowerment each reflect satisfaction and are already recognized as positively affected by transformational leadership (Asencio, 2016; Caillier, 2016; Park & Rainey, 2007). In summary, each of these areas are worth exploring with regard to public ethics' potential role and impact.

CONCLUDING REMARKS AND REFLECTIONS

This study has shown promise for creating an improved form of public leadership by enhancing the transformational leadership style with public ethics. The research provides a framework to differentiate between pseudo and transformational public leaders, which is a concern in literature and practice. The analysis depicts the importance of public ethics and provides further support for the idea that "ethics lie at the heart of leadership" (Denhardt & Campbell, 2006, p. 563). The results indicate that public ethics do make an additional and unique difference in the success of the transformational leadership style, thus deserving to be amongst the priorities of the federal government in leadership training programs and in practice.

This study was initiated to gain knowledge into the ways ethics play a part in effective public leadership. In essence, the findings conclude that multitudes of factors create a great leader, and no one style is predictive of all outcomes; therefore, a complex and robust leadership approach is necessary.

REFERENCES

- 2014 Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey Results. (n.d.). Retrieved May 3, 2015, from <http://beta.opm.gov/utilities/templates/general-content-page/>
- Asencio, H. (2016). Leadership, trust, and job satisfaction in the public sector: A study of US federal employees. *International Review of Public Administration*, 21(3), 250–267. <https://doi.org/10.1080/12294659.2016.1237342>
- Asencio, H., & Mujkic, E. (2016). Leadership behaviors and trust in leaders: Evidence from the U.S. Federal Government. *Public Administration Quarterly*, 40(1), 156–179.
- Avolio, B. J., & Gardner, W. L. (2005). Authentic leadership development: Getting to the root of positive forms of leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 16(3), 315–338. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2005.03.001>
- Bacha, E., & Walker, S. (2013). The relationship between transformational leadership and followers' perceptions of fairness. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 116(3), 667–680. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-012-1507-z>
- Bass, B. M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. Free Press; Collier Macmillan. Retrieved from <http://agris.fao.org/agris-search/search.do?recordID=US201300430719>
- Bass, B. M. (1996). Is there universality in the full range model of leadership? *International Journal of Public Administration*, 19(6), 731–761. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01900699608525119>
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1990). Developing transformational leadership: 1992 and beyond. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 14(5). <https://doi.org/10.1108/03090599010135122>

- Bass, B. M., Avolio, B. J., Jung, D. I., & Berson, Y. (2003). Predicting unit performance by assessing transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*(2), 207–218. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.88.2.207>
- Bass, B. M., & Riggio, R. E. (2006). *Transformational leadership* (2nd ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum Associates.
- Bass, B. M., & Steidlmeier, P. (2004). Ethics, character, and authentic transformational leadership behavior. In J. B. Ciulla, *Ethics, the heart of leadership* (2nd ed., pp. 175–196). Westport, Conn: Praeger.
- Bass, B., & Steidlmeier, P. (1999). Ethics, character, and authentic transformational leadership behavior. *Leadership Quarterly, 10*(2), 181.
- Berman, E., & Wang, X. (2011). *Essential statistics for public managers and policy analysts*. CQ Press.
- Bernard M. Bass - Mind Garden. (n.d.). Retrieved May 2, 2016, from <http://www.mindgarden.com/192-bernard-m-bass>
- Brady, F. N. (2003). “Publics” administration and the ethics of particularity. *Public Administration Review, 63*(5), 525–534. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1540-6210.00316>
- Braun, S., Peus, C., Weisweiler, S., & Frey, D. (2013). Transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and team performance: A multilevel mediation model of trust. *The Leadership Quarterly, 24*(1), 270–283. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2012.11.006>
- Bronstein, S., & Griffin, D. (2014, April 23). A fatal wait: Veterans languish and die on a VA hospital’s secret list. Retrieved June 3, 2016, from <http://www.cnn.com/2014/04/23/health/veterans-dying-health-care-delays/index.html>

- Brown, M. E., Treviño, L. K., & Harrison, D. A. (2005). Ethical leadership: A social learning perspective for construct development and testing. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 97(2), 117–134.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2005.03.002>
- Burns, J. M. (1978). *Leadership*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Cacioppe, R. (2000). Creating spirit at work: Re-visioning organization development and leadership - Part 1. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 21(1/2), 48–54.
- Caillier, J. G. (2013). Transformational leadership and whistle-blowing attitudes. *The American Review of Public Administration*.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0275074013515299>
- Caillier, J. G. (2014). Toward a better understanding of the relationship between transformational leadership, public service motivation, mission valence, and employee performance. *Public Personnel Management*.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0091026014528478>
- Caillier, J. G. (2016). Linking transformational leadership to self-efficacy, extra-role behaviors, and turnover intentions in public agencies: The mediating role of goal clarity. *Administration & Society*, 48(7). <https://doi.org/10.1177/0095399713519093>
- Cattell, R. B. (1966). The scree test for the number of factors. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 1, 245–276.
- Chapman, C., Getha-Taylor, H., Holmes, M. H., Jacobson, W. S., Morse, R. S., & Sowa, J. E. (2016). How public service leadership is studied: An examination of a quarter

- century of scholarship. *Public Administration*, 94(1), 111–128.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/padm.12199>
- Cho, Y. J., & Lee, J. W. (2011). Perceived trustworthiness of supervisors, employee satisfaction and cooperation. *Public Management Review*, 13(7), 941–965.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/14719037.2011.589610>
- Cho, Y. J., & Sai, N. (2012). Does organizational justice matter in the federal workplace? *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 33(3), 227–251.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0734371X12458126>
- Choi, S. (2012). Demographic diversity of managers and employee job satisfaction. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0734371X12453054>
- Choi, S., & Rainey, H. G. (2010). Managing diversity in U.S. federal agencies: Effects of diversity and diversity management on employee perceptions of organizational performance. *Public Administration Review*, 70(1), 109–121.
- Choi, S., & Rainey, H. G. (2014). Organizational fairness and diversity management in public organizations: Does fairness matter in managing diversity? *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 34(4), 307–331.
- Ciulla, J. B. (2004). *Ethics, the heart of leadership* (2nd ed.). Westport, Conn: Praeger.
- Cooper, T. L. (1987). Hierarchy, virtue, and the practice of public administration: A perspective for normative ethics. *Public Administration Review*, 47(4), 320–328.
<https://doi.org/10.2307/975312>
- De Hoogh, A. H. B., & Den Hartog, D. N. (2008). Ethical and despotic leadership, relationships with leader's social responsibility, top management team effectiveness

- and subordinates' optimism: A multi-method study. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 19(3), 297–311. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2008.03.002>
- Denhardt, J. V., & Campbell, K. B. (2006). The role of democratic values in transformational leadership. *Administration & Society*, 38(5), 556–572. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0095399706289714>
- Dexter-Lynch, R. T. (2004). Virtue ethics, public administration, and telos. *Global Virtue Ethics Review*, 5(4), 32–49.
- Epitropaki, O., & Martin, R. (2005). From ideal to real: A longitudinal study of the role of implicit leadership theories on leader-member exchanges and employee outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90(4), 659–676. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.90.4.659>
- Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey Results. (n.d.). Retrieved September 7, 2017, from <https://www.opm.gov/utilities/templates/general-content-page/>
- Feldheim, M. A., & Wang, X. (2002). Accountability through ethics enhancement strategies: empirical evidence from American cities. *International Review of Public Administration*, 7(1). Retrieved from <http://ida.lib.uidaho.edu:2048/login?url=http://search.proquest.com/docview/920840227?accountid=14551>
- Fernandez, S., Cho, Y. J., & Perry, J. L. (2010). Exploring the link between integrated leadership and public sector performance. *Public Integrative Leadership*, 21(2), 308–323. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2010.01.009>
- Frederickson, H. G. (1993). *Ethics and public administration*. Armonk, N.Y.: MESharpe.

- Frederickson, H. G., & Hart, D. K. (1985). The public service and the patriotism of benevolence. *Public Administration Review*, 45(5), 547–553.
<https://doi.org/10.2307/3109929>
- Greenberg, J. (2007). Positive organizational justice: From fair to fairer--and beyond. In J. E. Dutton & B. R. Ragins (Eds.), *Exploring positive relationships at work : Building a theoretical and research foundation* (pp. 159–178). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Greenhouse, S. (2012, May 27). Terence Flynn quits labor board over leak. *The New York Times*. Retrieved from <http://www.nytimes.com/2012/05/28/business/gop-labor-board-member-terence-flynn-quits-over-leak.html>
- Greenleaf, R. K. (1977). *Servant leadership: A journey into the nature of legitimate power and greatness*. New York: Paulist Press.
- Hanbury, G. L. (2004). A “Pracademic’s” perspective of ethics and honor: Imperatives for public service in the 21st century! *Public Organization Review*, 4(3), 187–204.
- Hannah, S. T., Jennings, P. L., Bluhm, D., Peng, A. C., & Schaubroeck, J. M. (2014). Duty orientation: Theoretical development and preliminary construct testing. *Behavioral Ethics*, 123(2), 220–238. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2013.10.007>
- Hassan, S., Mahsud, R., Yukl, G., & Prussia, G. E. (2013). Ethical and empowering leadership and leader effectiveness. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 28(2), 133–146. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02683941311300252>
- Hassan, S., Wright, B. E., & Yukl, G. (2014). Does ethical leadership matter in government? Effects on organizational commitment, absenteeism, and willingness to report ethical

- problems. *Public Administration Review*, 74(3), 333–343.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/puar.12216>
- Hemsworth, D., PhD, Muterera, J., PhD, & Baregheh, A., PhD. (2013). Examining Bass's transformational leadership in public sector executives: A psychometric properties Review. *Journal of Applied Business Research*, 29(3), 853–862.
- Henderson, J. E., & Hoy, W. K. (1983). Leader authenticity: The development and test of an operational measure. *Educational and Psychological Research*, 3(2), 63–75.
- Hill, N. S., Seo, M.-G., Kang, J. H., & Taylor, M. S. (2011). Building employee commitment to change across organizational levels: The influence of hierarchical distance and direct managers' transformational leadership. *Organization Science*, 23(3), 758–777. <https://doi.org/10.1287/orsc.1110.0662>
- House, R. J. (1977). A 1976 theory of charismatic leadership. In J. G. Hunt & L. L. Larson (Eds.), *Leadership : the cutting edge : a symposium held at Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, October 27-28, 1976* (pp. 189–207). Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press.
- Johnson, C. E. (2012). *Meeting the ethical challenges of leadership*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Kaiser, H. F. (1974). An index of factorial simplicity. *Psychometrika*, 39, 32–36.
- Kalshoven, K., Den Hartog, D. N., & De Hoogh, A. H. B. (2011). Ethical leadership at work questionnaire (ELW): Development and validation of a multidimensional measure. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 22(1), 51–69.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2010.12.007>

- Katz, E. (2014, August 29). The federal agencies most often accused of discrimination. Retrieved June 6, 2016, from <http://www.govexec.com/management/2014/08/federal-agencies-most-often-accused-discrimination/92819/>
- Kellis, D. S., & Ran, B. (2013). Modern leadership principles for public administration: time to move forward. *Journal of Public Affairs (14723891)*, 13(1), 130–141. <https://doi.org/10.1002/pa.1453>
- Kellis, D. S., & Ran, B. (2015). Effective leadership in managing NPM-based change in the public sector. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 28(4), 614–626.
- Khar, B., Praveen, M., & Aggarwal, M. (2011). A quasi experimental study on leadership effectiveness and ethics. *Review of Management*, 1(2), 107–115.
- Ko, J., & Hur, S. (2014). The impacts of employee benefits, procedural justice, and managerial trustworthiness on work attitudes: Integrated understanding based on social exchange theory. *Public Administration Review*, 74(2), 176–187. <https://doi.org/10.1111/puar.12160>
- Koh, H. C., & Boo, E. H. Y. (2001). The link between organizational ethics and job satisfaction: A study of managers in Singapore. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 29(4), 309–324.
- Laerd Statistics. (2015). Multiple regression using SPSS Statistics. Statistical tutorials and software guides. Retrieved January 7, 2018, from <https://statistics.laerd.com/>
- Latham, J. R. (2014). Leadership for quality and innovation: Challenges, theories, and a framework for future research. *The Quality Management Journal*, 21(1), 11–15.

- Lavigna, R. (2014). Now is the time to improve federal employee engagement. *Public Manager*, 43(2), 7–10.
- Lawton, A., & Páez, I. (2015). Developing a framework for ethical leadership. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 130(3), 639–649. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-014-2244-2>
- Leadership. (2017, 2018). Retrieved September 13, 2017, from <https://leadership.opm.gov/programs.aspx?c=5>
- Lester, W. (2007). Transformational leadership and NIMS. *Public Manager*, 36(3), 11–16.
- Lewicki, R. J., Sheppard, B. H., Poland, T., & Minton, J. W. (1997). Dishonesty as deviance: A typology of workplace dishonesty and contributing factors. In M. H. Bazerman (Ed.), *Research on negotiation in organizations*. (Vol. 6, pp. 53–86). Greenwich, Connecticut: JAI Press.
- Liden, R. C., Wayne, S. J., Zhao, H., & Henderson, D. (2008). Servant leadership: Development of a multidimensional measure and multi-level assessment. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 19(2), 161–177. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2008.01.006>
- Lynch, C. E., & Lynch, T. D. (2009). Democratic morality. In R. Cox (Ed.), *Ethics and Integrity in Public Administration* (pp. 5–25). London, England: M.E. Sharpe.
- Martin, K. D., & Cullen, J. B. (2006). Continuities and extensions of ethical climate theory: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 69(2), 175–194.
- Menzel, D. C. (2015, Fall). Leadership in public administration: Creative and/or ethical? *Public Integrity*, pp. 315–318.
- Moore, J. (2012). A challenge for social studies educators: Increasing civility in schools and society by modeling civic virtues. *Social Studies*, 103(4), 140–148. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00377996.2011.596860>

- Moynihan, D. P., Pandey, S. K., & Wright, B. E. (2012). Setting the table: How transformational leadership fosters performance information use. *Journal of Public Administration Research & Theory*, 22(1), 143–164.
- Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire - Mind Garden. (2015, October 27). Retrieved October 27, 2015, from <http://www.mindgarden.com/16-multifactor-leadership-questionnaire>
- Northouse, P. G. (2015). *Leadership: Theory and practice*. SAGE Publications.
- Oberfield, Z. W. (2014). Public management in time: A longitudinal examination of the full range of leadership theory. *Journal of Public Administration Research & Theory*, 24(2), 407–429.
- O'Brien, R. (2007). A caution regarding rules of thumb for variance inflation factors. *International Journal of Methodology*, 41(5), 673–690.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s11135-006-9018-6>
- Olsen, O. K., Eid, J., & Johnsen, B. H. (2006). Moral behavior and transformational leadership in Norwegian Naval cadets. *Military Psychology*, 18(Suppl), S37–S56.
https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327876mp1803s_4
- Orazi, D. C., Turrini, A., & Valotti, G. (2013). Public sector leadership: new perspectives for research and practice. *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, 79(3), 486–504. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0020852313489945>
- Pandey, S. K., Davis, R. S., Pandey, S., & Peng, S. (2016). Transformational leadership and the use of normative public values: Can employees be inspired to serve larger public purposes? *Public Administration*, 94(1), 204–222.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/padm.12214>

- Park, H., & Blenkinsopp, J. (2013). The impact of ethics programmes and ethical culture on misconduct in public service organizations. *The International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 26(7), 520–533.
- Park, S. M., & Rainey, H. G. (2007). Antecedents, mediators, and consequences of affective, normative, and continuance commitment. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 27(3). <https://doi.org/10.1177/0734371X06296866>
- Park, S. M., & Rainey, H. G. (2008). Leadership and public service motivation in U.S. federal agencies. *International Public Management Journal*, 11(1), 109–142.
- Parris, D. L., & Peachey, J. W. (2013). A systematic literature review of servant leadership theory in organizational contexts. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 113(3), 377–393. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-012-1322-6>
- Perez, E. (2015, October 23). DOJ closes IRS investigation with no charges. Retrieved June 3, 2016, from <http://www.cnn.com/2015/10/23/politics/lois-lerner-no-charges-doj-tea-party/index.html>
- Perry, J. L. (2011). Federalist No. 72: What happened to the public service ideal? *Public Administration Review*, 71, s143–s147. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-6210.2011.02474.x>
- Pitts, D. (2009). Diversity management, job satisfaction, and performance: Evidence from U.S. federal agencies. *Public Administration Review*, 69(2), 328–338.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., & Bommer, W. H. (1996). Transformational leader behaviors and substitutes for leadership as determinants of employee satisfaction, commitment, trust, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Management*, 22(2), 259.

- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Moorman, R. H., & Fetter, R. (1990). Transformational leader behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *1*(2), 107–142. [https://doi.org/10.1016/1048-9843\(90\)90009-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/1048-9843(90)90009-7)
- Pratte, R. (1988). Civic education in a democracy. *Theory Into Practice*, *27*(4), 303.
- Price, T. L. (2003). The ethics of authentic transformational leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *14*(1), 67–81. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843\(02\)00187-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843(02)00187-X)
- Quader, M. S. (2011). Perception of leadership styles and trust across cultures and gender: A comparative study on Barack Obama and Hillary Clinton. *South Asian Journal of Management*, *18*(2), 30–59.
- Rafferty, A. E., & Griffin, M. A. (2004). Dimensions of transformational leadership: Conceptual and empirical extensions. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *15*(3), 329–354. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2004.02.009>
- Raile, E. D., (2012). Building ethical capital: Perceptions of ethical climate in the public sector. *Public Administration Review*, *73*(2), 253–262.
- Rego, A., Cunha, M. P. E., & Oliveira, M. (2008). Eupsychia revisited: the role of spiritual leaders. *Journal of Humanistic Psychology*, *48*(2), 165–195. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022167807312202>
- Rein, L., & Davidson, J. (2012, April 2). GSA chief resigns amid reports of excessive spending. Retrieved June 3, 2016, from https://www.washingtonpost.com/politics/gsa-chief-resigns-amid-reports-of-excessive-spending/2012/04/02/gIQABLNNrS_story.html

- Robison, J. (2008, May). Where are the leaders in government? Retrieved April 1, 2016, from <http://www.gallup.com/businessjournal/106684/Where-Leaders-Government.aspx>
- Saad, L. (2015, January 2). Cluster of concerns tie for top U.S. problem in 2014. Retrieved April 1, 2016, from <http://www.gallup.com/poll/180398/cluster-concerns-vie-top-problem-2014.aspx>
- Sandel, M. J. (1998). *Democracy's discontent: America in search of a public philosophy*. Harvard University Press.
- Schuh, S. C., Zhang, X., & Tian, P. (2013). For the good or the bad? Interactive effects of transformational leadership with moral and authoritarian leadership behaviors. *Journal of Business Ethics, 116*(3), 629–640. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-012-1486-0>
- Sendjaya, S. (2005). Morality and leadership: Examining the ethics of transformational leadership. *Journal of Academic Ethics, 3*(1), 75–86. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10805-005-0868-7>
- Senior Executive Service. (n.d.). Retrieved June 30, 2016, from <https://www.opm.gov/policy-data-oversight/senior-executive-service/candidate-development-programs/>
- Simola, S. K., Barling, J., & Turner, N. (2010). Transformational leadership and leader moral orientation: Contrasting an ethic of justice and an ethic of care. *The Leadership Quarterly, 21*(1), 179–188. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2009.10.013>
- Spears, L. C. (2004). Practicing servant-leadership. *Leader to Leader, 2004*(34), 7–11. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ltl.94>

- Spitzmuller, M., & Ilies, R. (2010). Do they [all] see my true self? Leader's relational authenticity and followers' assessments of transformational leadership. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 19*(3), 304–332.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/13594320902754040>
- Statistical Solutions. (2018). Regression. Retrieved March 18, 2018, from
<http://www.statisticssolutions.com/directory-of-statistical-analyses-regression-analysis/regression/>
- Sun, P. Y. T., & Anderson, M. H. (2012). Civic capacity: Building on transformational leadership to explain successful integrative public leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly, 23*(3), 309–323. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2011.05.018>
- Svara, J. H. (2014). Who are the keepers of the code? Articulating and upholding ethical standards in the field of public administration. *Public Administration Review, 74*(5), 561–569. <https://doi.org/10.1111/puar.12230>
- The Big Picture: Government-wide. (n.d.). Retrieved November 8, 2015, from
<http://bestplacestowork.org/BPTW/rankings/governmentwide>
- Thomas Jefferson and the education of a citizen.* (1999). Washington : Retrieved from
<http://hdl.handle.net/2027/pur1.32754068839764>
- Tikhomirov, A. (2008). Comments on the article by Tracey Trottier, Montgomery Van Wart, and XiaoHu Wang, “Examining the nature and significance of leadership in government organizations,” PAR 68(2). *Public Administration Review, 68*(6), 1169–1172. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-6210.2008.00968_3.x
- Tobias, R. M. (2000). Job satisfaction has market value. *Government Executive, 32*(6), 100–101.

- Toor, S.-R., & Ofori, G. (2009). Ethical leadership: Examining the relationships with full range leadership model, employee outcomes, and organizational culture. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 90(4), 533–547.
- Total Government Employment Since 1962. (n.d.). Retrieved September 23, 2015, from <http://www.opm.gov/policy-data-oversight/data-analysis-documentation/federal-employment-reports/historical-tables/total-government-employment-since-1962/>
- Trottier, T., Van Wart, M., & Wang, X. (2008). Examining the nature and significance of leadership in government organizations. *Public Administration Review*, 68(2), 319–333. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-6210.2007.00865.x>
- Turner, N., Barling, J., Epitropaki, O., Butcher, V., & Milner, C. (2002). Transformational leadership and moral reasoning. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(2), 304–311. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.87.2.304>
- Ulrich, C., O'Donnell, P., Taylor, C., Farrar, A., Danis, M., & Grady, C. (2007). Ethical climate, ethics stress, and the job satisfaction of nurses and social workers in the United States. *Social Science & Medicine*, 65(8), 1708–1719. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2007.05.050>
- Vitell, S. J., & Davis, D. L. (1990). Ethical beliefs of MIS professionals: The frequency and opportunity for unethical behavior. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 9(1), 63–70.
- Walumbwa, F. O., Avolio, B. J., Gardner, W. L., Wernsing, T. S., & Peterson, S. J. (2008). Authentic leadership: Development and validation of a theory-based measure. *Journal of Management*, 34(1), 89–126. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206307308913>

- Whitehead, G. (2009). Adolescent leadership development building a case for an authenticity framework. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 37(6), 847–872. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1741143209345441>
- Wright, B. E. (2015). The science of public administration: Problems, presumptions, progress, and possibilities. *Public Administration Review*, 75(6), 795–805. <https://doi.org/10.1111/puar.12468>
- Wright, B. E., & Davis, B. S. (2003). Job satisfaction in the public sector. *American Review of Public Administration*, 33(1), 70.
- Wright, B. E., Moynihan, D. P., & Pandey, S. K. (2012). Pulling the levers: Transformational leadership, public service motivation, and mission valence. *Public Administration Review*, 72(2), 206–215. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-6210.2011.02496.x>
- Wright, B. E., & Pandey, S. K. (2010). Transformational leadership in the public sector: Does structure matter? *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory: J-PART*, 20(1), 75–89.
- Yang, C. (2014). Does ethical leadership lead to happy workers? A study on the impact of ethical leadership, subjective well-being, and life happiness in the Chinese culture. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 123(3), 513–525. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-013-1852-6>
- Yang, K., & Kassekert, A. (2010). Linking management reform with employee job satisfaction: Evidence from federal agencies. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory: J-PART*, 20(2), 413–436.

Yukl, G., Mahsud, R., Hassan, S., & Prussia, G. E. (2013). An improved measure of ethical leadership. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 20(1), 38–48.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/1548051811429352>

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: FEDERAL EMPLOYEE VIEWPOINT SURVEY QUESTIONS

Representing Transformational Leadership, Public Ethics, Employee Satisfaction, and Leadership Effectiveness

Transformational Leadership (comprised of four components and 12 questions), adopted from Asencio & Mujkic (2016) and Asencio (2016)

Individualized Consideration $\alpha=.928$; inter-item correlations ranging from .665 to .768; **Eigenvalue 1.528 Proportion of the variance = 12.732% $\alpha=.928$**

6. My supervisor supports my need to balance work and other life issues. (Q42)
7. My supervisor/team leader provides me with opportunities to demonstrate my leadership skills. (Q43)
8. My supervisor/team leader provides me with constructive suggestions to improve my job performance. (Q46)
9. Supervisors/team leaders in my work unit support employee development. (Q47)
10. My supervisor/team leader listens to what I have to say. (Q48)

Transformational Leadership Eigenvalue 7.303 Proportion of the variance = 60.862% $\alpha=.924$

Idealized Influence $\alpha=.879$; inter-item correlation of .784

3. My organization's senior leaders maintain high standards of honesty and integrity. (Q54)
4. I have a high level of respect for my organization's senior leaders. (Q61)

Inspirational Motivation $\alpha=.830$; inter-item correlations ranging from .563 to .658

4. Employees have a feeling of personal empowerment with respect to work processes. (Q30)
5. In my organization, senior leaders generate high levels of motivation and commitment in the workforce. (Q53)
6. Managers communicate the goals and priorities of the organization. (Q56)

Intellectual Stimulation $\alpha=.793$; inter-item correlation of .658

3. I feel encouraged to come up with new and better ways of doing things. (Q3)
4. Creativity and innovation are rewarded. (Q32)

Transformation Leadership Scale

- A composite of all items (twelve questions) included in Individualized Consideration, Idealized Influence, Inspirational Motivation, and Intellectual Stimulation

Public Ethics $\alpha=.927$; inter-item correlations .311-.758; **Eigenvalue 7.020 Proportion of the variance = 54.00%**

Trust & Fairness (fairness then mirrors Choi 2012)

5. I have trust and confidence in my supervisor. (Q51)
6. I can disclose a suspected violation of any law, rule or regulation without fear of reprisal. (Q17)
7. Arbitrary action, personal favoritism and coercion for partisan political purposes are not tolerated. (Q37)
8. Prohibited Personnel Practices (for examples, illegally discriminating for or against any employee/applicant, obstructing a person's right to compete for employment, knowingly violating veterans' preference requirements) are not tolerated. (Q38)

Community Building

4. Employees in my work unit share job knowledge with each other. (Q26)
5. Managers promote communication among different work units (for example, about projects, goals, needed resources). (Q58)
6. Managers support collaboration across work units to accomplish work objectives. (Q59)

Sensitivity to Diversity (Choi, 2012)

4. Policies and programs promote diversity in the workplace (for example, recruiting minorities and women, training in awareness of diversity issues, mentoring). (Q34)
5. My supervisor is committed to a workforce representative of all segments of society. (Q45)
6. Supervisors work well with employees of different backgrounds. (Q55)

Public and Organizational Interest

4. The people I work with cooperate to get the job done. (Q20)
5. My agency is successful at accomplishing its mission. (Q39)
6. I believe the results of this survey will be used to make my agency a better place to work. (Q41)

Public Ethics Scale $\alpha=.927$

- A composite of all items (thirteen questions) included in Trust & Fairness, Community Building, Sensitivity to Diversity, and Organizational Interest

Employee Satisfaction – a composite of three items $\alpha=.902$; inter-item correlations .723 - .776

4. I recommend my organization as a good place to work. (Q40)
5. Considering everything, how satisfied are you with your job? (Q69)
6. Considering everything, how satisfied are you with your organization? (Q71)

Leadership Effectiveness – a composite of two items $\alpha=.697$; inter-item correlation .535

3. Overall, how good a job do you feel is being done by your immediate supervisor? (Q52)
4. Overall, how good of a job do you feel is being done by the manager directly above your immediate supervisor? (Q 60)

Note: The (Q #) represents the number of the actual question in the Federal Employee Viewpoint survey. All items are measured on a five-point scale ranging from 1= “strongly disagree” to 5 = “strongly agree”, except item 2 and 3 in employee satisfaction which is measured on a five-point scale ranging from 1 = “very dissatisfied” to 5 = “very satisfied”. Item 1 and 2 in leadership effectiveness is measured from 1 = “very poor” to 5 = “very good”.

Control Variables

The study measures the following control variables for characteristics of employees: supervisory status (1 = non-supervisor, 0 = supervisor), gender (1 = female, 0 = male), and ethnicity (1 = minority, 0 = non-minority), consistent with prior studies (Asencio, 2016).

APPENDIX B: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

UNWEIGHTED DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Statistics

		DSUPER 1=Non	DSEX 1=Female	DMINORITY 1=Minority	Satisfaction	LeaderEffective	TFLIMISIFinal	TFLICFinal	PublicEthicsFinal
N	Valid	364683	360446	349746	372058	354693	325630	367873	260629
	Missing	28069	32306	43006	20694	38059	67122	24879	132123
Mean		.79	.48	.34	3.5560	3.7581	3.2567	3.8269	3.6531
Median		1.00	.00	.00	4.0000	4.0000	3.4286	4.0000	3.7692
Mode - Most common value		1	0	0	4.00	4.00	4.00	5.00	4.00
Skewness		-1.440	.076	.659	-.655	-.783	-.364	-.902	-.660
Std. Error of Skewness		.004	.004	.004	.004	.004	.004	.004	.005
Minimum		0	0	0	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Maximum		1	1	1	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00

Employee Satisfaction

Satisfaction

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1.00	10657	2.7	2.9	2.9
	1.33	7435	1.9	2.0	4.9
	1.67	10027	2.6	2.7	7.6
	2.00	16633	4.2	4.5	12.0
	2.33	17768	4.5	4.8	16.8
	2.67	21634	5.5	5.8	22.6
	3.00	33614	8.6	9.0	31.7
	3.33	32629	8.3	8.8	40.4
	3.67	34018	8.7	9.1	49.6
	4.00	87765	22.3	23.6	73.2
	4.33	36126	9.2	9.7	82.9
	4.67	22137	5.6	5.9	88.8
	5.00	41615	10.6	11.2	100.0
Total		372058	94.7	100.0	
Missing	System	20694	5.3		
Total		392752	100.0		

Leadership Effectiveness

LeaderEffective

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1.00	9958	2.5	2.8	2.8
	1.50	8219	2.1	2.3	5.1
	2.00	15441	3.9	4.4	9.5
	2.50	21989	5.6	6.2	15.7
	3.00	44424	11.3	12.5	28.2
	3.50	48392	12.3	13.6	41.8
	4.00	79953	20.4	22.5	64.4
	4.50	58407	14.9	16.5	80.9
	5.00	67910	17.3	19.1	100.0
	Total		354693	90.3	100.0
Missing	System	38059	9.7		
Total		392752	100.0		

Transformational Leadership

TFLIMISIFinal

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1.00	6878	1.8	2.1	2.1
	1.14	4281	1.1	1.3	3.4
	1.29	4655	1.2	1.4	4.9
	1.43	5461	1.4	1.7	6.5
	1.57	5783	1.5	1.8	8.3
	1.71	6191	1.6	1.9	10.2
	1.86	6703	1.7	2.1	12.3
	2.00	7555	1.9	2.3	14.6
	2.14	8530	2.2	2.6	17.2
	2.29	9328	2.4	2.9	20.1
	2.43	10175	2.6	3.1	23.2
	2.57	11094	2.8	3.4	26.6
	2.71	12254	3.1	3.8	30.4
	2.86	13420	3.4	4.1	34.5
	3.00	15562	4.0	4.8	39.3
	3.14	16275	4.1	5.0	44.3
	3.29	16678	4.2	5.1	49.4
	3.43	17359	4.4	5.3	54.7
	3.57	17294	4.4	5.3	60.0
	3.71	18101	4.6	5.6	65.6
	3.86	18641	4.7	5.7	71.3
	4.00	23785	6.1	7.3	78.6
	4.14	15942	4.1	4.9	83.5
	4.29	11053	2.8	3.4	86.9
	4.43	9027	2.3	2.8	89.7
	4.57	7980	2.0	2.5	92.1
	4.71	7333	1.9	2.3	94.4
	4.86	6145	1.6	1.9	96.3
	5.00	12147	3.1	3.7	100.0
	Total	325630	82.9	100.0	
Missing	System	67122	17.1		
Total		392752	100.0		

Individualized Consideration

TFLICFinal

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1.00	6461	1.6	1.8	1.8
	1.20	4024	1.0	1.1	2.9
	1.40	3489	.9	.9	3.8
	1.60	3865	1.0	1.1	4.8
	1.80	4445	1.1	1.2	6.1
	2.00	5787	1.5	1.6	7.6
	2.20	6268	1.6	1.7	9.3
	2.40	7465	1.9	2.0	11.4
	2.60	8488	2.2	2.3	13.7
	2.80	10515	2.7	2.9	16.5
	3.00	15723	4.0	4.3	20.8
	3.20	16147	4.1	4.4	25.2
	3.40	17999	4.6	4.9	30.1
	3.60	22240	5.7	6.0	36.1
	3.80	27028	6.9	7.3	43.5
	4.00	55304	14.1	15.0	58.5
	4.20	25531	6.5	6.9	65.5
	4.40	20066	5.1	5.5	70.9
	4.60	19660	5.0	5.3	76.3
	4.80	20862	5.3	5.7	81.9
	5.00	66506	16.9	18.1	100.0
	Total	367873	93.7	100.0	
Missing	System	24879	6.3		
Total		392752	100.0		

Public Ethics

PublicEthicsFinal

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 1.00	603	.2	.2	.2
1.08	335	.1	.1	.4
1.15	468	.1	.2	.5
1.23	494	.1	.2	.7
1.31	631	.2	.2	1.0
1.38	635	.2	.2	1.2
1.46	813	.2	.3	1.5
1.54	820	.2	.3	1.8
1.62	982	.3	.4	2.2
1.69	1020	.3	.4	2.6
1.77	1150	.3	.4	3.1
1.85	1185	.3	.5	3.5
1.92	1435	.4	.6	4.1
2.00	1585	.4	.6	4.7
2.08	1712	.4	.7	5.3
2.15	1831	.5	.7	6.0
2.23	2008	.5	.8	6.8
2.31	2260	.6	.9	7.7
2.38	2524	.6	1.0	8.6
2.46	2686	.7	1.0	9.7
2.54	2933	.7	1.1	10.8
2.62	3307	.8	1.3	12.1
2.69	3562	.9	1.4	13.4
2.77	4031	1.0	1.5	15.0
2.85	4433	1.1	1.7	16.7
2.92	4742	1.2	1.8	18.5
3.00	5841	1.5	2.2	20.7
3.08	5969	1.5	2.3	23.0
3.15	6227	1.6	2.4	25.4
3.23	6823	1.7	2.6	28.0
3.31	7174	1.8	2.8	30.8
3.38	7733	2.0	3.0	33.7
3.46	8341	2.1	3.2	36.9
3.54	8635	2.2	3.3	40.3

3.62	9637	2.5	3.7	44.0
3.69	10114	2.6	3.9	47.8
3.77	10863	2.8	4.2	52.0
3.85	11362	2.9	4.4	56.4
3.92	12486	3.2	4.8	61.2
4.00	14709	3.7	5.6	66.8
4.08	10964	2.8	4.2	71.0
4.15	9438	2.4	3.6	74.6
4.23	8171	2.1	3.1	77.8
4.31	7267	1.9	2.8	80.6
4.38	6656	1.7	2.6	83.1
4.46	5913	1.5	2.3	85.4
4.54	5602	1.4	2.1	87.5
4.62	5036	1.3	1.9	89.5
4.69	5059	1.3	1.9	91.4
4.77	4705	1.2	1.8	93.2
4.85	4933	1.3	1.9	95.1
4.92	4527	1.2	1.7	96.8
5.00	8259	2.1	3.2	100.0
Total	260629	66.4	100.0	
Missing System	132123	33.6		
Total	392752	100.0		

Supervisory Status

DSUPER

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Supervisor	75797	19.3	20.8	20.8
Non-Supervisor	288886	73.6	79.2	100.0
Total	364683	92.9	100.0	
Missing System	28069	7.1		
Total	392752	100.0		

Gender

DSEX

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	187105	47.6	51.9	51.9
	Female	173341	44.1	48.1	100.0
	Total	360446	91.8	100.0	
Missing	System	32306	8.2		
Total		392752	100.0		

Minority Status

DMINORITY

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Non-Minority	229578	58.5	65.6	65.6
	Minority	120168	30.6	34.4	100.0
	Total	349746	89.1	100.0	
Missing	System	43006	10.9		
Total		392752	100.0		

WEIGHTED DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Statistics

		DSUPER	DSEX	DMINORITY	Satisfaction	LeaderEffective	TFLIMSIFinal	TFLICFinal	PublicEthicsFinal
N	Valid	1637966	1624594	1582262	1653651	1574948	1455282	1642608	1164490
	Missing	133335	146707	189038	117650	196352	316018	128692	606810
Mean		.82	.43	.37	3.5315	3.6972	3.2119	3.7559	3.5988
Median		1.00	.00	.00	3.6667	4.0000	3.2857	4.0000	3.6923
Mode		1	0	0	4.00	4.00	4.00	5.00	4.00
Skewness		-1.677	.274	.522	-.635	-.723	-.327	-.832	-.613
Std. Error of Skewness		.002	.002	.002	.002	.002	.002	.002	.002
Minimum		0	0	0	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Maximum		1	1	1	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00

Employee Satisfaction

Satisfaction

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent	
Valid	1.00	45889	2.6	2.8	2.8	
	1.33	33546	1.9	2.0	4.8	
	1.67	45522	2.6	2.8	7.6	
	2.00	75022	4.2	4.5	12.1	
	2.33	81713	4.6	4.9	17.0	
	2.67	98762	5.6	6.0	23.0	
	3.00	155385	8.8	9.4	32.4	
	3.33	149380	8.4	9.0	41.4	
	3.67	157240	8.9	9.5	50.9	
	4.00	390705	22.1	23.6	74.6	
	4.33	157832	8.9	9.5	84.1	
	4.67	93860	5.3	5.7	89.8	
	5.00	168795	9.5	10.2	100.0	
	Total		1653651	93.4	100.0	
	Missing	System	117650	6.6		
Total		1771301	100.0			

Leadership Effectiveness

LeaderEffective					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1.00	48107	2.7	3.1	3.1
	1.50	40065	2.3	2.5	5.6
	2.00	74786	4.2	4.7	10.3
	2.50	104754	5.9	6.7	17.0
	3.00	210534	11.9	13.4	30.4
	3.50	222234	12.5	14.1	44.5
	4.00	354993	20.0	22.5	67.0
	4.50	247224	14.0	15.7	82.7
	5.00	272252	15.4	17.3	100.0
	Total	1574948	88.9	100.0	
Missing	System	196352	11.1		
Total		1771301	100.0		

Transformational Leadership

TFLIM \$I\$Final					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1.00	30258	1.7	2.1	2.1
	1.14	20534	1.2	1.4	3.5
	1.29	22252	1.3	1.5	5.0
	1.43	25310	1.4	1.7	6.8
	1.57	27723	1.6	1.9	8.7
	1.71	29584	1.7	2.0	10.7
	1.86	30785	1.7	2.1	12.8
	2.00	34964	2.0	2.4	15.2
	2.14	40476	2.3	2.8	18.0
	2.29	43950	2.5	3.0	21.0
	2.43	47793	2.7	3.3	24.3
	2.57	52108	2.9	3.6	27.9
	2.71	57187	3.2	3.9	31.8
	2.86	61910	3.5	4.3	38.1
	3.00	72963	4.1	5.0	41.1
	3.14	74739	4.2	5.1	48.2
	3.29	74906	4.2	5.1	51.4
	3.43	78180	4.4	5.4	58.7
	3.57	78208	4.4	5.4	62.1
	3.71	80446	4.5	5.5	67.6
	3.86	81999	4.6	5.6	73.3
	4.00	105881	6.0	7.3	80.5
	4.14	67817	3.8	4.7	85.2
	4.29	45445	2.6	3.1	88.3
	4.43	35721	2.0	2.5	90.8
	4.57	32014	1.8	2.2	93.0
	4.71	29031	1.6	2.0	95.0
	4.86	24589	1.4	1.7	96.7
	5.00	48508	2.7	3.3	100.0
	Total	1455282	82.2	100.0	
Missing	System	316018	17.8		
Total		1771301	100.0		

Individualized Consideration

TFLICFinal

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid				
1.00	31895	1.8	1.9	1.9
1.20	21715	1.2	1.3	3.3
1.40	17389	1.0	1.1	4.3
1.60	17928	1.0	1.1	5.4
1.80	22393	1.3	1.4	6.8
2.00	28985	1.6	1.8	8.5
2.20	30749	1.7	1.9	10.4
2.40	35583	2.0	2.2	12.6
2.60	40798	2.3	2.5	15.1
2.80	49672	2.8	3.0	18.1
3.00	77885	4.4	4.7	22.8
3.20	76888	4.3	4.7	27.5
3.40	85352	4.8	5.2	32.7
3.60	102775	5.8	6.3	39.0
3.80	124394	7.0	7.6	46.5
4.00	257093	14.5	15.7	62.2
4.20	108864	6.1	6.6	68.8
4.40	82244	4.6	5.0	73.8
4.60	79112	4.5	4.8	78.6
4.80	82942	4.7	5.0	83.7
5.00	268271	15.1	16.3	100.0
Total	1642808	92.7	100.0	
Missing	System	128992	7.3	
Total	1771301	100.0		

Public Ethics

PublicEthicsFinal

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid				
1.00	2487	.1	.2	.2
1.08	1584	.1	.1	.3
1.15	2454	.1	.2	.6
1.23	2230	.1	.2	.8
1.31	3064	.2	.3	1.0
1.38	3083	.2	.3	1.3
1.46	3936	.2	.3	1.6
1.54	4032	.2	.3	2.0
1.62	4445	.3	.4	2.3
1.69	4972	.3	.4	2.8
1.77	5693	.3	.5	3.3
1.85	5842	.3	.5	3.8
1.92	7453	.4	.6	4.4
2.00	7967	.4	.7	5.1
2.08	8580	.5	.7	5.8
2.15	8801	.5	.8	6.6
2.23	9515	.5	.8	7.4
2.31	10972	.6	.9	8.3
2.38	12386	.7	1.1	9.4
2.46	12996	.7	1.1	10.5
2.54	14155	.8	1.2	11.7
2.62	16149	.9	1.4	13.1
2.69	17060	1.0	1.5	14.6
2.77	18977	1.1	1.6	16.2
2.85	21536	1.2	1.8	18.1
2.92	22904	1.3	2.0	20.0
3.00	28392	1.6	2.4	22.6
3.08	28697	1.6	2.5	24.9
3.15	29530	1.7	2.5	27.5
3.23	31898	1.8	2.7	30.2
3.31	34298	1.9	2.9	33.2
3.38	36255	2.0	3.1	36.3
3.46	38965	2.2	3.3	39.6
3.54	39442	2.2	3.4	43.0
3.62	44253	2.5	3.8	46.8

3.69	46402	2.6	4.0	50.8
3.77	48712	2.8	4.2	55.0
3.85	51220	2.9	4.4	59.4
3.92	56579	3.2	4.9	64.2
4.00	66501	3.8	5.7	69.9
4.08	47762	2.7	4.1	74.0
4.15	40402	2.3	3.5	77.5
4.23	33464	1.9	2.9	80.4
4.31	29738	1.7	2.6	82.9
4.38	26805	1.5	2.3	85.2
4.46	23690	1.3	2.0	87.3
4.54	22019	1.2	1.9	89.2
4.62	19636	1.1	1.7	90.8
4.69	19928	1.1	1.7	92.6
4.77	18334	1.0	1.6	94.1
4.85	19396	1.1	1.7	95.8
4.92	16917	1.0	1.5	97.3
5.00	31980	1.8	2.7	100.0
Total	1164490	85.7	100.0	
Missing System	606610	34.3		
Total	1771301	100.0		

Supervisory Status

DSUPER

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Supervisor	292844	16.5	17.9	17.9
	Non-Supervisor	1345121	75.9	82.1	100.0
	Total	1637966	92.5	100.0	
Missing System		133335	7.5		
Total		1771301	100.0		

Gender

DSEX

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	922526	52.1	56.8	56.8
	Female	702068	39.6	43.2	100.0
	Total	1624594	91.7	100.0	
Missing System		146707	8.3		
Total		1771301	100.0		

Minority Status

DMINORITY

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Non-Minority	990832	55.9	62.6	62.6
	Minority	591431	33.4	37.4	100.0
	Total	1582262	89.3	100.0	
Missing System		189038	10.7		
Total		1771301	100.0		

APPENDIX C: CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS

DEPENDENT VARIABLE SCALES

Employee Satisfaction

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.902	.902	3

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

	Q40	Q69	Q71
Q40	1.000	.723	.776
Q69	.723	1.000	.766
Q71	.776	.766	1.000

Leadership Effectiveness

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.697	.697	2

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

	Q52	Q60
Q52	1.000	.535
Q60	.535	1.000

INDEPENDENT VARIABLE SCALES

*Transformational Leadership***Rotated Component Matrix^a**

	Component	
	1	2
Q54	.854	
Q61	.852	
Q30	.716	
Q53	.882	
Q56	.726	
Q3	.609	
Q32	.703	
Q42		.821
Q43		.842
Q46		.840
Q47		.789
Q48		.853

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.924	.924	7

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

	Q54	Q61	Q30	Q53	Q56	Q3	Q32
Q54	1.000	.787	.590	.811	.651	.554	.606
Q61	.787	1.000	.587	.782	.625	.549	.587
Q30	.590	.587	1.000	.642	.572	.627	.701
Q53	.811	.782	.642	1.000	.667	.586	.650
Q56	.651	.625	.572	.667	1.000	.534	.581
Q3	.554	.549	.627	.586	.534	1.000	.664
Q32	.606	.587	.701	.650	.581	.664	1.000

Individualized Consideration

Rotated Component Matrix^a

	Component	
	1	2
Q54	.854	
Q61	.852	
Q30	.716	
Q53	.882	
Q56	.726	
Q3	.609	
Q32	.703	
Q42		.821
Q43		.842
Q46		.840
Q47		.789
Q48		.853

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.928	.928	5

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

	Q42	Q43	Q46	Q47	Q48
Q42	1.000	.696	.668	.665	.711
Q43	.696	1.000	.760	.751	.733
Q46	.668	.760	1.000	.768	.747
Q47	.665	.751	.768	1.000	.709
Q48	.711	.733	.747	.709	1.000

Public Ethics

Correlation Matrix

	Q51	Q37	Q38	Q17	Q26	Q58	Q59	Q34	Q45	Q55	Q20	Q39	Q41
Correlation Q51	1.000	.520	.504	.537	.429	.500	.499	.403	.758	.573	.426	.438	.372
Q37	.520	1.000	.732	.603	.435	.558	.561	.510	.528	.590	.423	.525	.458
Q38	.504	.732	1.000	.606	.436	.532	.541	.561	.549	.617	.406	.544	.416
Q17	.537	.603	.606	1.000	.416	.521	.523	.449	.525	.555	.418	.488	.430
Q26	.429	.435	.436	.416	1.000	.442	.453	.394	.443	.464	.590	.420	.311
Q58	.500	.558	.532	.521	.442	1.000	.877	.470	.508	.650	.430	.554	.495
Q59	.499	.561	.541	.523	.453	.877	1.000	.473	.513	.658	.445	.565	.484
Q34	.403	.510	.561	.449	.394	.470	.473	1.000	.506	.548	.341	.456	.384
Q45	.758	.528	.549	.525	.443	.508	.513	.506	1.000	.612	.417	.462	.375
Q55	.573	.590	.617	.555	.464	.650	.658	.548	.612	1.000	.436	.545	.434
Q20	.426	.423	.406	.418	.590	.430	.445	.341	.417	.436	1.000	.432	.329
Q39	.438	.525	.544	.488	.420	.554	.565	.456	.462	.545	.432	1.000	.459
Q41	.372	.458	.416	.430	.311	.495	.484	.384	.375	.434	.329	.459	1.000

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.927	.928	13

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square
	df
	Sig.

.925
9450792.377
78
.000

Anti-image Matrices

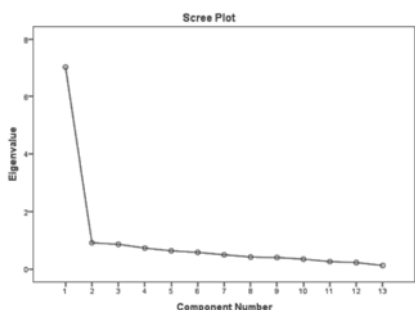
	Q51	Q37	Q38	Q17	Q26	Q58	Q59	Q34	Q45	Q55	Q20	Q39	Q41
Anti-image Covariance													
Q51	.379	-.027	.007	-.058	-.017	-.009	-.001	.046	-.209	-.032	-.032	-.001	-.013
Q37	-.027	.384	-.162	-.066	-.012	-.012	-.008	-.024	.001	-.016	-.018	-.020	-.050
Q38	.007	-.162	.365	-.073	-.015	.005	-.003	-.080	-.025	-.050	.005	-.053	.010
Q17	-.058	-.066	-.073	.500	-.014	-.009	-.007	-.009	-.012	-.026	-.032	-.026	-.051
Q26	-.017	-.012	-.015	-.014	.568	-.006	-.011	-.043	-.021	-.022	-.236	-.024	.011
Q58	-.009	-.012	.005	-.009	-.006	.214	-.155	-.007	.001	-.030	.000	-.016	-.038
Q59	-.001	-.008	-.003	-.007	-.011	-.155	.210	-.004	-.003	-.037	-.016	-.029	-.013
Q34	.046	-.024	-.060	-.009	-.043	-.007	-.004	.575	-.077	-.068	.009	-.037	-.048
Q45	-.209	.001	-.025	-.012	-.021	.001	-.003	-.077	.352	-.053	-.005	-.009	.003
Q55	-.032	-.016	-.050	-.026	-.022	-.030	-.037	-.068	-.053	.391	-.008	-.034	-.002
Q20	-.032	-.018	.005	-.032	-.236	.000	-.016	.009	-.005	-.008	.580	-.057	-.022
Q39	-.001	-.020	-.053	-.026	-.024	-.016	-.029	-.037	-.009	-.034	-.057	.541	-.088
Q41	-.013	-.050	.010	-.051	.011	-.038	-.013	-.048	.003	-.002	-.022	-.088	.665
Anti-image Correlation													
Q51	.891 ^a	-.072	.018	-.133	-.037	-.032	-.002	.099	-.572	-.063	-.068	-.002	-.027
Q37	-.072	.937 ^a	-.433	-.151	-.026	-.043	-.029	-.051	.003	-.041	-.038	-.043	-.099
Q38	.018	-.433	.926 ^a	-.172	-.032	.016	-.010	-.174	-.069	-.132	.010	-.118	.020
Q17	-.133	-.151	-.172	.972 ^a	-.025	-.029	-.022	-.017	-.029	-.058	-.059	-.051	-.088
Q26	-.037	-.026	-.032	-.025	.926 ^a	-.018	-.031	-.075	-.047	-.047	-.411	-.043	.018
Q58	-.032	-.043	.016	-.029	-.018	.868 ^a	-.733	-.019	.003	-.104	.001	-.048	-.099
Q59	-.002	-.029	-.010	-.022	-.031	-.733	.869 ^a	-.010	-.010	-.128	-.045	-.085	-.035
Q34	.099	-.051	-.174	-.017	-.075	-.019	-.010	.959 ^a	-.172	-.144	.016	-.066	-.077
Q45	-.572	.003	-.069	-.029	-.047	.003	-.010	-.172	.896 ^a	-.142	-.012	-.020	.006
Q55	-.063	-.041	-.132	-.058	-.047	-.104	-.128	-.144	-.142	.973 ^a	-.017	-.074	-.005
Q20	-.068	-.038	.010	-.059	-.411	.001	-.045	.016	-.012	-.017	.920 ^a	-.102	-.036
Q39	-.002	-.043	-.118	-.051	-.043	-.048	-.085	-.066	-.020	-.074	-.102	.976 ^a	-.147
Q41	-.027	-.099	.020	-.088	.018	-.099	-.035	-.077	.006	-.005	-.036	-.147	.972 ^a

a. Measures of Sampling Adequacy(MSA)

Component Matrix^a

	Component	
	1	
Q51	.733	
Q37	.786	
Q38	.787	
Q17	.744	
Q26	.643	
Q58	.799	
Q59	.805	
Q34	.679	
Q45	.758	
Q55	.814	
Q20	.627	
Q39	.723	
Q41	.615	

Extraction Method:
Principal Component
Analysis.
a. 1 components
extracted.



APPENDIX D: CORRELATIONS

Correlations

		DSUPER	DSEX	DMINORITY	Satisfaction	LeaderEffective	TFLICFinal	TFLIMISIIFinal	PublicEthicsFinal
DSUPER	Pearson Correlation	1	.081**	.042**	-.086**	-.067**	-.091**	-.116**	-.133**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	1637966	1612443	1570644	1617494	1530027	1574218	1414530	1127906
DSEX	Pearson Correlation	.081**	1	.099**	.008**	-.002**	-.026**	.008**	-.029**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.007	.000	.000	.000
	N	1612443	1624594	1570530	1604384	1518378	1561792	1404389	1120912
DMINORITY	Pearson Correlation	.042**	.099**	1	.014**	-.036**	-.041**	.021**	-.044**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	1570644	1570530	1582262	1562807	1480665	1521915	1370615	1096465
Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	-.086**	.008**	.014**	1	.689**	.635**	.817**	.798**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	1617494	1604384	1562807	1653651	1544907	1589892	1428683	1140265
LeaderEffective	Pearson Correlation	-.067**	-.002**	-.036**	.689**	1	.793**	.749**	.796**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.007	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000
	N	1530027	1518378	1480665	1544907	1574948	1520608	1390727	1112563
TFLICFinal	Pearson Correlation	-.091**	-.026**	-.041**	.635**	.793**	1	.668**	.795**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000
	N	1574218	1561792	1521915	1589892	1520608	1642608	1416375	1145936
TFLIMISIIFinal	Pearson Correlation	-.116**	.008**	.021**	.817**	.749**	.668**	1	.877**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000
	N	1414530	1404389	1370615	1428683	1390727	1416375	1455282	1087020
PublicEthicsFinal	Pearson Correlation	-.133**	-.029**	-.044**	.798**	.796**	.795**	.877**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	1127906	1120912	1096465	1140265	1112563	1145936	1087020	1164490

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

Dsuper= supervisory status (1=Non-Supervisor;0=Supervisor); Dsex=gender (1=Female;0=Male); Dminority=minority status (1=Minority;0=Non-Minority); Satisfaction=employee Satisfaction; LeaderEffective=leadership effectiveness; TFLICFinal=individualized consideration; TFLIMISIIFinal=transformational leadership; PublicEthicsFinal=public ethics

APPENDIX E: MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS

EMPLOYEE SATISFACTION & TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Correlations

		Satisfaction	TFLIMISIIFinal	DSUPER	DSEX	DMINORITY
Pearson Correlation	Satisfaction	1.000	.817	-.089	.010	.014
	TFLIMISIIFinal	.817	1.000	-.116	.010	.020
	DSUPER	-.089	-.116	1.000	.080	.043
	DSEX	.010	.010	.080	1.000	.096
	DMINORITY	.014	.020	.043	.096	1.000
	Sig. (1-tailed)	Satisfaction	.	.000	.000	.000
TFLIMISIIFinal		.000	.	.000	.000	.000
DSUPER		.000	.000	.	.000	.000
DSEX		.000	.000	.000	.	.000
DMINORITY		.000	.000	.000	.000	.
N		Satisfaction	1338648	1338648	1338648	1338648
	TFLIMISIIFinal	1338648	1338648	1338648	1338648	1338648
	DSUPER	1338648	1338648	1338648	1338648	1338648
	DSEX	1338648	1338648	1338648	1338648	1338648
	DMINORITY	1338648	1338648	1338648	1338648	1338648

Model Summary^c

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.817 ^a	.668	.668	.58903	. ^b

a. Predictors: (Constant), DMINORITY, TFLIMISIIFinal, DSEX, DSUPER

b. Not computed because fractional case weights have been found for the variable specified on the WEIGHT command.

c. Dependent Variable: Satisfaction

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics		
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF	
1	(Constant)	.852	.002		393.464	.000	.848	.856						
	TFLIMISIIFinal	.837	.001	.818	1631.518	.000	.836	.838	.817	.816	.812	.986	1.015	
	DSUPER	.016	.001	.006	12.138	.000	.013	.019	-.089	.010	.006	.979	1.022	
	DSEX	.003	.001	.002	3.230	.001	.001	.005	.010	.003	.002	.985	1.016	
	DMINORITY	-.007	.001	-.003	-6.460	.000	-.009	-.005	.014	-.006	-.003	.989	1.011	

a. Dependent Variable: Satisfaction

EMPLOYEE SATISFACTION, TFL, & PUBLIC ETHICS

Correlations

		Satisfaction	DSUPER	DMINORITY	DSEX	TFLIMISIFinal	PublicEthicsFinal
Pearson Correlation	Satisfaction	1.000	-.085	.012	.015	.822	.800
	DSUPER	-.085	1.000	.055	.087	-.111	-.134
	DMINORITY	.012	.055	1.000	.087	.019	-.043
	DSEX	.015	.087	.087	1.000	.012	-.027
	TFLIMISIFinal	.822	-.111	.019	.012	1.000	.877
	PublicEthicsFinal	.800	-.134	-.043	-.027	.877	1.000
	Sig. (1-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
N	Satisfaction	1005094	1005094	1005094	1005094	1005094	1005094
	DSUPER	1005094	1005094	1005094	1005094	1005094	1005094
	DMINORITY	1005094	1005094	1005094	1005094	1005094	1005094
	DSEX	1005094	1005094	1005094	1005094	1005094	1005094
	TFLIMISIFinal	1005094	1005094	1005094	1005094	1005094	1005094
	PublicEthicsFinal	1005094	1005094	1005094	1005094	1005094	1005094

Model Summary^a

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.839 ^a	.704	.704	.54430	. ^b

a. Predictors: (Constant), PublicEthicsFinal, DSEX, DMINORITY, DSUPER, TFLIMISIFinal

b. Not computed because fractional case weights have been found for the variable specified on the WEIGHT command.

c. Dependent Variable: Satisfaction

Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	.302	.003		101.745	.000	.296	.308					
DSUPER	.043	.001	.018	31.833	.000	.041	.046	-.085	.032	.017	.973	1.027
DMINORITY	.032	.001	.015	28.068	.000	.030	.034	.012	.028	.015	.976	1.024
DSEX	.032	.001	.016	28.430	.000	.029	.034	.015	.028	.015	.981	1.019
TFLIMISIFinal	.518	.001	.512	448.921	.000	.515	.520	.822	.409	.244	.227	4.406
PublicEthicsFinal	.434	.001	.355	310.415	.000	.431	.436	.800	.296	.169	.226	4.433

a. Dependent Variable: Satisfaction

EMPLOYEE SATISFACTION & PUBLIC ETHICS

Correlations

		Satisfaction	PublicEthicsFinal	DSUPER	DSEX	DMINORITY
Pearson Correlation	Satisfaction	1.000	.798	-.084	.016	.013
	PublicEthicsFinal	.798	1.000	-.133	-.027	-.044
	DSUPER	-.084	-.133	1.000	.087	.055
	DSEX	.016	-.027	.087	1.000	.089
	DMINORITY	.013	-.044	.055	.089	1.000
	Sig. (1-tailed)	Satisfaction	.	.000	.000	.000
PublicEthicsFinal		.000	.	.000	.000	.000
DSUPER		.000	.000	.	.000	.000
DSEX		.000	.000	.000	.	.000
DMINORITY		.000	.000	.000	.000	.
N		Satisfaction	1071469	1071469	1071469	1071469
	PublicEthicsFinal	1071469	1071469	1071469	1071469	1071469
	DSUPER	1071469	1071469	1071469	1071469	1071469
	DSEX	1071469	1071469	1071469	1071469	1071469
	DMINORITY	1071469	1071469	1071469	1071469	1071469
		1071469	1071469	1071469	1071469	1071469

Model Summary^c

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.800 ^a	.640	.640	.59823	. ^b

a. Predictors: (Constant), DMINORITY, PublicEthicsFinal, DSEX, DSUPER

b. Not computed because fractional case weights have been found for the variable specified on the WEIGHT command.

c. Dependent Variable: Satisfaction

Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	-.005	.003		-1.720	.085	-.011	.001					
PublicEthicsFinal	.982	.001	.803	1373.232	.000	.980	.983	.798	.799	.795	.981	1.020
DSUPER	.045	.001	.018	30.988	.000	.042	.048	-.084	.030	.018	.974	1.027
DSEX	.065	.001	.032	54.691	.000	.062	.067	.016	.053	.032	.985	1.015
DMINORITY	.091	.001	.044	75.734	.000	.089	.093	.013	.073	.044	.989	1.011

a. Dependent Variable: Satisfaction

EMPLOYEE SATISFACTION, TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP, & INDIVIDUALIZED CONSIDERATION

Correlations

		Satisfaction	TFLIMISIIFinal	TFLICFinal	DSUPER	DSEX	DMINORITY
Pearson Correlation	Satisfaction	1.000	.818	.644	-.088	.010	.014
	TFLIMISIIFinal	.818	1.000	.668	-.115	.010	.021
	TFLICFinal	.644	.668	1.000	-.093	-.022	-.039
	DSUPER	-.088	-.115	-.093	1.000	.080	.044
	DSEX	.010	.010	-.022	.080	1.000	.095
	DMINORITY	.014	.021	-.039	.044	.095	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	Satisfaction	.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	TFLIMISIIFinal	.000	.	.000	.000	.000	.000
	TFLICFinal	.000	.000	.	.000	.000	.000
	DSUPER	.000	.000	.000	.	.000	.000
	DSEX	.000	.000	.000	.000	.	.000
	DMINORITY	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.
N	Satisfaction	1304504	1304504	1304504	1304504	1304504	1304504
	TFLIMISIIFinal	1304504	1304504	1304504	1304504	1304504	1304504
	TFLICFinal	1304504	1304504	1304504	1304504	1304504	1304504
	DSUPER	1304504	1304504	1304504	1304504	1304504	1304504
	DSEX	1304504	1304504	1304504	1304504	1304504	1304504
	DMINORITY	1304504	1304504	1304504	1304504	1304504	1304504

Model Summary^c

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.828 ^a	.686	.686	.57213	. ^b

a. Predictors: (Constant), DMINORITY, TFLIMISIIFinal, DSEX, DSUPER, TFLICFinal

b. Not computed because fractional case weights have been found for the variable specified on the WEIGHT command.

c. Dependent Variable: Satisfaction

Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	.558	.002		232.225	.000	.553	.562					
TFLIMISIIFinal	.716	.001	.700	1056.444	.000	.715	.718	.818	.679	.518	.547	1.827
TFLICFinal	.177	.001	.177	267.318	.000	.176	.179	.644	.228	.131	.550	1.819
DSUPER	.021	.001	.008	16.493	.000	.019	.024	-.088	.014	.008	.978	1.022
DSEX	.012	.001	.006	11.326	.000	.010	.014	.010	.010	.006	.984	1.016
DMINORITY	.012	.001	.006	11.250	.000	.010	.014	.014	.010	.006	.985	1.016

a. Dependent Variable: Satisfaction

LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS & TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Correlations

		LeaderEffective	TFLIMISIIFinal	DSUPER	DSEX	DMINORITY
Pearson Correlation	LeaderEffective	1.000	.749	-.070	.000	-.035
	TFLIMISIIFinal	.749	1.000	-.116	.012	.020
	DSUPER	-.070	-.116	1.000	.080	.043
	DSEX	.000	.012	.080	1.000	.096
	DMINORITY	-.035	.020	.043	.096	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	LeaderEffective	.	.000	.000	.335	.000
	TFLIMISIIFinal	.000	.	.000	.000	.000
	DSUPER	.000	.000	.	.000	.000
	DSEX	.335	.000	.000	.	.000
	DMINORITY	.000	.000	.000	.000	.
N	LeaderEffective	1295584	1295584	1295584	1295584	1295584
	TFLIMISIIFinal	1295584	1295584	1295584	1295584	1295584
	DSUPER	1295584	1295584	1295584	1295584	1295584
	DSEX	1295584	1295584	1295584	1295584	1295584
	DMINORITY	1295584	1295584	1295584	1295584	1295584

Model Summary^c

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.751 ^a	.564	.564	.68293	. ^b

a. Predictors: (Constant), DMINORITY, TFLIMISIIFinal, DSEX, DSUPER

b. Not computed because fractional case weights have been found for the variable specified on the WEIGHT command.

c. Dependent Variable: LeaderEffective

Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics		
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF	
1 (Constant)	1.216	.003		478.989	.000	1.211	1.221						
TFLIMISIIFinal	.774	.001	.753	1288.071	.000	.773	.775	.749	.749	.747	.986	1.015	
DSUPER	.052	.002	.020	33.679	.000	.049	.055	-.070	.030	.020	.978	1.022	
DSEX	-.012	.001	-.006	-10.198	.000	-.015	-.010	.000	-.009	-.006	.985	1.016	
DMINORITY	-.109	.001	-.051	-87.311	.000	-.112	-.107	-.035	-.076	-.051	.989	1.011	

a. Dependent Variable: LeaderEffective

LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS & INDIVIDUALIZED CONSIDERATION

Correlations

		LeaderEffective	TFLICFinal	DSUPER	DSEX	DMINORITY
Pearson Correlation	LeaderEffective	1.000	.794	-.067	.000	-.036
	TFLICFinal	.794	1.000	-.092	-.021	-.040
	DSUPER	-.067	-.092	1.000	.080	.043
	DSEX	.000	-.021	.080	1.000	.097
	DMINORITY	-.036	-.040	.043	.097	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	LeaderEffective	.	.000	.000	.375	.000
	TFLICFinal	.000	.	.000	.000	.000
	DSUPER	.000	.000	.	.000	.000
	DSEX	.375	.000	.000	.	.000
	DMINORITY	.000	.000	.000	.000	.
N	LeaderEffective	1413623	1413623	1413623	1413623	1413623
	TFLICFinal	1413623	1413623	1413623	1413623	1413623
	DSUPER	1413623	1413623	1413623	1413623	1413623
	DSEX	1413623	1413623	1413623	1413623	1413623
	DMINORITY	1413623	1413623	1413623	1413623	1413623

Model Summary^c

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.794 ^a	.631	.631	.62583	. ^b

a. Predictors: (Constant), DMINORITY, TFLICFinal, DSEX, DSUPER

b. Not computed because fractional case weights have been found for the variable specified on the WEIGHT command.

c. Dependent Variable: LeaderEffective

Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	.646	.002		262.234	.000	.642	.651					
TFLICFinal	.806	.001	.795	1548.267	.000	.805	.807	.794	.793	.791	.990	1.010
DSUPER	.013	.001	.005	9.339	.000	.010	.015	-.067	.008	.005	.984	1.016
DSEX	.036	.001	.017	33.124	.000	.033	.038	.000	.028	.017	.985	1.015
DMINORITY	-.012	.001	-.006	-11.179	.000	-.014	-.010	-.036	-.009	-.006	.988	1.012

a. Dependent Variable: LeaderEffective

LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS & PUBLIC ETHICS

Correlations

		LeaderEffective	PublicEthicsFinal	DSUPER	DSEX	DMINORITY
Pearson Correlation	LeaderEffective	1.000	.797	-.068	.006	-.036
	PublicEthicsFinal	.797	1.000	-.134	-.024	-.043
	DSUPER	-.068	-.134	1.000	.086	.055
	DSEX	.006	-.024	.086	1.000	.089
	DMINORITY	-.036	-.043	.055	.089	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	LeaderEffective	.	.000	.000	.000	.000
	PublicEthicsFinal	.000	.	.000	.000	.000
	DSUPER	.000	.000	.	.000	.000
	DSEX	.000	.000	.000	.	.000
	DMINORITY	.000	.000	.000	.000	.
N	LeaderEffective	1039537	1039537	1039537	1039537	1039537
	PublicEthicsFinal	1039537	1039537	1039537	1039537	1039537
	DSUPER	1039537	1039537	1039537	1039537	1039537
	DSEX	1039537	1039537	1039537	1039537	1039537
	DMINORITY	1039537	1039537	1039537	1039537	1039537

Model Summary^c

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.798 ^a	.637	.637	.61246	. ^b

a. Predictors: (Constant), DMINORITY, PublicEthicsFinal, DSEX, DSUPER

b. Not computed because fractional case weights have been found for the variable specified on the WEIGHT command.

c. Dependent Variable: LeaderEffective

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics		
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF	
1	(Constant)	.087	.003		27.226	.000	.081	.093						
	PublicEthicsFinal	.995	.001	.802	1344.226	.000	.993	.996	.797	.797	.794	.981	1.020	
	DSUPER	.094	.002	.037	62.504	.000	.091	.097	-.068	.061	.037	.974	1.027	
	DSEX	.047	.001	.023	37.953	.000	.044	.049	.006	.037	.022	.985	1.015	
	DMINORITY	-.011	.001	-.005	-8.989	.000	-.014	-.009	-.036	-.009	-.005	.989	1.012	

a. Dependent Variable: LeaderEffective

LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS, TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP, & INDIVIDUALIZED CONSIDERATION

Correlations

		LeaderEffective	TFLIMISIIFinal	TFLICFinal	DSUPER	DSEX	DMINORITY
Pearson Correlation	LeaderEffective	1.000	.749	.797	-.070	.000	-.035
	TFLIMISIIFinal	.749	1.000	.670	-.116	.012	.021
	TFLICFinal	.797	.670	1.000	-.094	-.020	-.040
	DSUPER	-.070	-.116	-.094	1.000	.080	.043
	DSEX	.000	.012	-.020	.080	1.000	.095
	DMINORITY	-.035	.021	-.040	.043	.095	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	LeaderEffective	.	.000	.000	.000	.303	.000
	TFLIMISIIFinal	.000	.	.000	.000	.000	.000
	TFLICFinal	.000	.000	.	.000	.000	.000
	DSUPER	.000	.000	.000	.	.000	.000
	DSEX	.303	.000	.000	.000	.	.000
	DMINORITY	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.
N	LeaderEffective	1263885	1263885	1263885	1263885	1263885	1263885
	TFLIMISIIFinal	1263885	1263885	1263885	1263885	1263885	1263885
	TFLICFinal	1263885	1263885	1263885	1263885	1263885	1263885
	DSUPER	1263885	1263885	1263885	1263885	1263885	1263885
	DSEX	1263885	1263885	1263885	1263885	1263885	1263885
	DMINORITY	1263885	1263885	1263885	1263885	1263885	1263885

Model Summary^c

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.849 ^a	.721	.721	.54667	. ^b

a. Predictors: (Constant), DMINORITY, TFLIMISIIFinal, DSEX, DSUPER, TFLICFinal

b. Not computed because fractional case weights have been found for the variable specified on the WEIGHT command.

c. Dependent Variable: LeaderEffective

Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	.308	.002		132.328	.000	.303	.312					
TFLIMISIIFinal	.406	.001	.395	619.821	.000	.405	.408	.749	.483	.291	.545	1.835
TFLICFinal	.542	.001	.534	840.379	.000	.541	.543	.797	.599	.395	.547	1.827
DSUPER	.069	.001	.026	55.408	.000	.067	.071	-.070	.049	.026	.978	1.022
DSEX	.012	.001	.006	12.292	.000	.010	.014	.000	.011	.006	.984	1.016
DMINORITY	-.051	.001	-.024	-50.331	.000	-.053	-.049	-.035	-.045	-.024	.984	1.016

a. Dependent Variable: LeaderEffective

LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS, TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP, & PUBLIC ETHICS

Correlations

		LeaderEffective	DSUPER	DMINORITY	DSEX	TFLIMISIFinal	PublicEthicsFinal
Pearson Correlation	LeaderEffective	1.000	-.069	-.036	.006	.755	.798
	DSUPER	-.069	1.000	.054	.086	-.111	-.135
	DMINORITY	-.036	.054	1.000	.088	.019	-.043
	DSEX	.006	.086	.088	1.000	.013	-.025
	TFLIMISIFinal	.755	-.111	.019	.013	1.000	.878
	PublicEthicsFinal	.798	-.135	-.043	-.025	.878	1.000
	Sig. (1-tailed)	LeaderEffective	.	.000	.000	.000	.000
	DSUPER	.000	.	.000	.000	.000	.000
	DMINORITY	.000	.000	.	.000	.000	.000
	DSEX	.000	.000	.000	.	.000	.000
	TFLIMISIFinal	.000	.000	.000	.000	.	.000
	PublicEthicsFinal	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.
N	LeaderEffective	981637	981637	981637	981637	981637	981637
	DSUPER	981637	981637	981637	981637	981637	981637
	DMINORITY	981637	981637	981637	981637	981637	981637
	DSEX	981637	981637	981637	981637	981637	981637
	TFLIMISIFinal	981637	981637	981637	981637	981637	981637
	PublicEthicsFinal	981637	981637	981637	981637	981637	981637
		981637	981637	981637	981637	981637	981637

Model Summary^a

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.807 ^a	.651	.651	.60070	. ^b

a. Predictors: (Constant), PublicEthicsFinal, DSEX, DMINORITY, DSUPER, TFLIMISIFinal

b. Not computed because fractional case weights have been found for the variable specified on the WEIGHT command.

c. Dependent Variable: LeaderEffective

Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	.236	.003		71.318	.000	.230	.243					
DSUPER	.092	.002	.037	60.763	.000	.089	.095	-.069	.061	.036	.973	1.028
DMINORITY	-.038	.001	-.018	-30.013	.000	-.041	-.036	-.036	-.030	-.018	.976	1.024
DSEX	.033	.001	.016	26.554	.000	.031	.035	.006	.027	.016	.982	1.019
TFLIMISIFinal	.245	.001	.240	190.740	.000	.243	.248	.755	.189	.114	.225	4.446
PublicEthicsFinal	.733	.002	.592	469.542	.000	.730	.736	.798	.428	.280	.224	4.474

a. Dependent Variable: LeaderEffective

EMPLOYEE SATISFACTION, TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP, INDIVIDUALIZED CONSIDERATION, & PUBLIC ETHICS

Correlations

		Satisfaction	TFLIMISIIFinal	TFLICFinal	PublicEthicsFinal	DSUPER	DSEX	DMINORITY
Pearson Correlation	Satisfaction	1.000	.822	.653	.801	-.085	.015	.012
	TFLIMISIIFinal	.822	1.000	.677	.877	-.111	.012	.019
	TFLICFinal	.653	.677	1.000	.797	-.094	-.014	-.040
	PublicEthicsFinal	.801	.877	.797	1.000	-.135	-.027	-.043
	DSUPER	-.085	-.111	-.094	-.135	1.000	.087	.055
	DSEX	.015	.012	-.014	-.027	.087	1.000	.087
	DMINORITY	.012	.019	-.040	-.043	.055	.087	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	Satisfaction	.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	TFLIMISIIFinal	.000	.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	TFLICFinal	.000	.000	.	.000	.000	.000	.000
	PublicEthicsFinal	.000	.000	.000	.	.000	.000	.000
	DSUPER	.000	.000	.000	.000	.	.000	.000
	DSEX	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.	.000
	DMINORITY	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.
N	Satisfaction	991038	991038	991038	991038	991038	991038	991038
	TFLIMISIIFinal	991038	991038	991038	991038	991038	991038	991038
	TFLICFinal	991038	991038	991038	991038	991038	991038	991038
	PublicEthicsFinal	991038	991038	991038	991038	991038	991038	991038
	DSUPER	991038	991038	991038	991038	991038	991038	991038
	DSEX	991038	991038	991038	991038	991038	991038	991038
	DMINORITY	991038	991038	991038	991038	991038	991038	991038

Model Summary^c

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.840 ^a	.706	.706	.54192	. ^b

a. Predictors: (Constant), DMINORITY, TFLIMISIIFinal, DSEX, DSUPER, TFLICFinal, PublicEthicsFinal

b. Not computed because fractional case weights have been found for the variable specified on the WEIGHT command.

c. Dependent Variable: Satisfaction

Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	.286	.003		95.956	.000	.280	.292					
TFLIMISIIFinal	.526	.001	.520	453.481	.000	.524	.528	.822	.415	.247	.225	4.435
TFLICFinal	.072	.001	.072	80.112	.000	.070	.074	.653	.080	.044	.363	2.757
PublicEthicsFinal	.354	.002	.290	207.612	.000	.351	.358	.801	.204	.113	.152	6.581
DSUPER	.041	.001	.017	30.165	.000	.038	.044	-.085	.030	.016	.973	1.028
DSEX	.030	.001	.015	27.239	.000	.028	.033	.015	.027	.015	.981	1.019
DMINORITY	.032	.001	.016	28.273	.000	.030	.034	.012	.028	.015	.976	1.024

a. Dependent Variable: Satisfaction

LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS, TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP, INDIVIDUALIZED CONSIDERATION, & PUBLIC ETHICS

Correlations

		LeaderEffective	TFLIMISIIFinal	TFLICFinal	PublicEthicsFinal	DSUPER	DSEX	DMINORITY	
Pearson Correlation	LeaderEffective	1.000	.755	.800	.798	-.070	.006	-.036	
	TFLIMISIIFinal	.755	1.000	.678	.878	-.112	.013	.019	
	TFLICFinal	.800	.678	1.000	.797	-.096	-.013	-.041	
	PublicEthicsFinal	.798	.878	.797	1.000	-.135	-.025	-.043	
	DSUPER	-.070	-.112	-.096	-.135	1.000	.086	.054	
	DSEX	.006	.013	-.013	-.025	.086	1.000	.087	
	DMINORITY	-.036	.019	-.041	-.043	.054	.087	1.000	
	Sig. (1-tailed)	LeaderEffective	.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
		TFLIMISIIFinal	.000	.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
		TFLICFinal	.000	.000	.	.000	.000	.000	.000
PublicEthicsFinal		.000	.000	.000	.	.000	.000	.000	
DSUPER		.000	.000	.000	.000	.	.000	.000	
DSEX		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.	.000	
DMINORITY		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.	
N		LeaderEffective	967890	967890	967890	967890	967890	967890	967890
		TFLIMISIIFinal	967890	967890	967890	967890	967890	967890	967890
		TFLICFinal	967890	967890	967890	967890	967890	967890	967890
	PublicEthicsFinal	967890	967890	967890	967890	967890	967890	967890	
	DSUPER	967890	967890	967890	967890	967890	967890	967890	
	DSEX	967890	967890	967890	967890	967890	967890	967890	
	DMINORITY	967890	967890	967890	967890	967890	967890	967890	
	DMINORITY	967890	967890	967890	967890	967890	967890	967890	

Model Summary^c

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.854 ^a	.730	.730	.52923	. ^b

a. Predictors: (Constant), DMINORITY, TFLIMISIIFinal, DSEX, DSUPER, TFLICFinal, PublicEthicsFinal

b. Not computed because fractional case weights have been found for the variable specified on the WEIGHT command.

c. Dependent Variable: LeaderEffective

Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	.126	.003		42.753	.000	.120	.132					
TFLIMISIIFinal	.290	.001	.284	253.641	.000	.288	.293	.755	.250	.134	.223	4.475
TFLICFinal	.472	.001	.465	528.846	.000	.470	.473	.800	.473	.280	.362	2.764
PublicEthicsFinal	.226	.002	.182	133.734	.000	.222	.229	.798	.135	.071	.151	6.636
DSUPER	.078	.001	.031	57.887	.000	.075	.080	-.070	.059	.031	.973	1.028
DSEX	.024	.001	.012	22.119	.000	.022	.027	.006	.022	.012	.982	1.019
DMINORITY	-.036	.001	-.017	-31.679	.000	-.038	-.033	-.036	-.032	-.017	.976	1.024

a. Dependent Variable: LeaderEffective

APPENDIX F: HIERARCHICAL MULTIPLE REGRESSION

SATISFACTION

Model 1:

Model Summary^e

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.089 ^a	.008	.008	.99560	.008	2649.376	3	991033	.000	
2	.833 ^b	.693	.693	.55358	.685	1107241.903	2	991031	.000	
3	.840 ^c	.706	.706	.54192	.013	43102.658	1	991030	.000	.d

a. Predictors: (Constant), DMINORITY, DSUPER, DSEX

b. Predictors: (Constant), DMINORITY, DSUPER, DSEX, TFLICFinal, TFLIMISIIIFinal

c. Predictors: (Constant), DMINORITY, DSUPER, DSEX, TFLICFinal, TFLIMISIIIFinal, PublicEthicsFinal

d. Not computed because fractional case weights have been found for the variable specified on the WEIGHT command.

e. Dependent Variable: Satisfaction

Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	3.779	.002		1589.038	.000	3.774	3.783					
DSUPER	-.216	.002	-.088	-87.166	.000	-.221	-.211	-.085	-.087	-.087	.990	1.010
DSEX	.043	.002	.021	21.135	.000	.039	.047	.015	.021	.021	.986	1.014
DMINORITY	.032	.002	.015	15.283	.000	.028	.036	.012	.015	.015	.990	1.010
2 (Constant)	.579	.003		215.677	.000	.574	.584					
DSUPER	.022	.001	.009	16.190	.000	.020	.025	-.085	.016	.009	.977	1.024
DSEX	.017	.001	.008	14.560	.000	.014	.019	.015	.015	.008	.985	1.015
DMINORITY	.010	.001	.005	8.649	.000	.008	.012	.012	.009	.005	.985	1.015
TFLICFinal	.179	.001	.180	236.726	.000	.178	.181	.653	.231	.132	.538	1.859
TFLIMISIIIFinal	.709	.001	.701	923.117	.000	.708	.711	.822	.680	.514	.536	1.865
3 (Constant)	.286	.003		95.956	.000	.280	.292					
DSUPER	.041	.001	.017	30.165	.000	.038	.044	-.085	.030	.016	.973	1.028
DSEX	.030	.001	.015	27.239	.000	.028	.033	.015	.027	.015	.981	1.019
DMINORITY	.032	.001	.016	28.273	.000	.030	.034	.012	.028	.015	.976	1.024
TFLICFinal	.072	.001	.072	80.112	.000	.070	.074	.653	.080	.044	.363	2.757
TFLIMISIIIFinal	.526	.001	.520	453.481	.000	.524	.528	.822	.415	.247	.225	4.435
PublicEthicsFinal	.354	.002	.290	207.612	.000	.351	.358	.801	.204	.113	.152	6.581

a. Dependent Variable: Satisfaction

LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS

Model 1:

Model Summary^e

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	.078 ^a	.006	.006	1.01469	.006	1980.875	3	967886	.000	
2	.851 ^b	.725	.725	.53410	.719	1262738.745	2	967884	.000	
3	.854 ^c	.730	.730	.52923	.005	17884.764	1	967883	.000	.d

a. Predictors: (Constant), DMINORITY, DSUPER, DSEX

b. Predictors: (Constant), DMINORITY, DSUPER, DSEX, TFLICFinal, TFLIMISIIIFinal

c. Predictors: (Constant), DMINORITY, DSUPER, DSEX, TFLICFinal, TFLIMISIIIFinal, PublicEthicsFinal

d. Not computed because fractional case weights have been found for the variable specified on the WEIGHT command.

e. Dependent Variable: LeaderEffective

Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics		
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF	
1	(Constant)	3.923	.002	1605.604	.000	3.918	3.928						
	DSUPER	-.173	.003	-67.911	.000	-.178	-.168	-.070	-.069	-.069	.990	1.010	
	DSEX	.031	.002	14.873	.000	.027	.035	.006	.015	.015	.986	1.014	
	DMINORITY	-.070	.002	-32.689	.000	-.074	-.066	-.036	-.033	-.033	.990	1.010	
2	(Constant)	.312	.003	119.242	.000	.307	.317						
	DSUPER	.066	.001	48.677	.000	.063	.068	-.070	.049	.026	.977	1.024	
	DSEX	.016	.001	.008	14.224	.000	.014	.018	.006	.014	.008	.985	1.015
	DMINORITY	-.050	.001	-.024	-43.907	.000	-.052	-.047	-.036	-.045	-.023	.985	1.015
	TFLICFinal	.540	.001	.532	729.949	.000	.538	.541	.800	.596	.389	.536	1.865
	TFLIMISIFinal	.407	.001	.398	545.090	.000	.406	.409	.755	.485	.291	.535	1.871
3	(Constant)	.126	.003	42.753	.000	.120	.132						
	DSUPER	.078	.001	.031	57.887	.000	.075	.080	-.070	.059	.031	.973	1.028
	DSEX	.024	.001	.012	22.119	.000	.022	.027	.006	.022	.012	.982	1.019
	DMINORITY	-.036	.001	-.017	-31.679	.000	-.038	-.033	-.036	-.032	-.017	.976	1.024
	TFLICFinal	.472	.001	.465	528.846	.000	.470	.473	.800	.473	.260	.362	2.764
	TFLIMISIFinal	.290	.001	.284	253.641	.000	.288	.293	.755	.250	.134	.223	4.475
	PublicEthicsFinal	.226	.002	.182	133.734	.000	.222	.229	.798	.135	.071	.151	6.636

a. Dependent Variable: LeaderEffective