The Effect of Leadership on the Job Satisfaction of Online Adjunct Faculty at a For-profit University

Submitted by

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GRAND CANYON UNIVERSITY

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I verify that my dissertation represents original research, is not falsified or plagiarized, and that I have accurately reported, cited, and referenced all sources within this manuscript in strict compliance with APA and Grand Canyon University (GCU) guidelines. I also verify my dissertation complies with the approval(s) granted for this research investigation by GCU Institutional Review Board (IRB).

[Donald Eugene Barnett]

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Abstract

This quantitative correlational study was performed to examine the predictive relationship between leadership behaviors and the overall job satisfaction of adjunct faculty who teach online classes at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States. The theoretical foundations for this study included the Full-Range Leadership theory, Herzberg's Motivator-Hygiene theory and Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. The researcher collected primary data via online survey from a purposive non-random sample of 77 online adjunct faculty using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire 5x, which measured perceptions of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership, and Spector's Job Satisfaction Survey, which measured perceptions of overall job satisfaction. Simple regression analysis found transformational leadership was a significant positive predictor of job satisfaction, F (1, 75) = 30.26, $p < 0.01$, adjusted $R^2 = 0.29$, $\beta = 0.54$, $t = 5.50$, $p < 0.01$. The regression model accounted for approximately 29% of the variance in overall job satisfaction. Laissez-faire leadership was a significant negative predictor, F (1, 75) = 12.07, $p = 0.01$, $\beta = -0.37$, $t = -3.47$, $p = 0.01$. The regression model accounted for approximately 13% of the variance in overall job satisfaction. Transactional leadership was not a significant predictor of overall job satisfaction, F (1, 75) = 0.03, $p = 0.86$, adjusted $R^2 < 0.01$, $\beta = -0.02$, $t = -0.18$, $p = 0.86$. The findings of this study revealed that adjunct faculty who participated in this study were more satisfied when their direct superior used transformational leadership.

Keywords: Job satisfaction, full-range leadership, online adjunct faculty, for-profit university, transformational leadership, postsecondary education.

Dedication

I would like to dedicate this to my family. For my beautiful and wonderful wife, Heather, who was my biggest advocate. Without her encouragement and unwavering support during my academic journey, despite not receiving the attention she deserved, I would not have been successful. For my dad, Don Sr., and mom, Marilyn, who always believed in what I could accomplish. For my grandfather and grandmother, Howell and Juanita; they would have been proud to see this day. For Kent and Karen Freeman, who supported and encouraged me during this long process. Last, but far from least…for my daughter Jassmyn, who never fails to make me smile.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

Student enrollment in for-profit universities has tripled since 2000, with a for-profit sector enrollment exceeding 1.5 million students as of 2014 (National Center for Education Statistics, 2016). The increased enrollment, and the popularity of online education, has produced an increase in online classes (Allen & Seaman, 2016) and the number of adjunct faculty required to meet enrollment demands (Starcher & Mandernach, 2016). Despite the popularity of for-profit colleges, few researchers have explored the for-profit sector of higher education (Chung, 2012). Likewise, few research studies have investigated the work experiences, development, or job satisfaction of adjunct faculty (Datray, Saxon, & Martirosyan, 2014; Rich, 2015).

This study explored the perceived predictive relationship of higher education administrators' style of leadership on job satisfaction as it relates to online adjunct faculty in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States. Askling and Stensaker (2002) remarked on the importance of studying leadership practices in higher education. Moreover, Bateh and Heyliger (2014) suggested researchers investigate the effect of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors on faculty job satisfaction in the for-profit sector because for-profit institutions face different challenges than their counterparts in the public and private sectors.

The researcher explored the predictive relationship of administrative leadership, as perceived by online adjunct faculty, on the job satisfaction of faculty in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States. The researcher obtained permission to use two reliable, valid survey instruments (Appendices A and B) to measure perceptions of

leadership and job satisfaction from a purposive sample collected from a target population of online adjunct faculty. The instruments for this study were the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire 5x short rater form, MLQ (5X) (Appendix C), and Spector's Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) (Appendix D). The MLQ (5X) consists of two different instruments: a self-rating leader form and a rater form that allows an employee to provide their perceptions of their leader's leadership style. The researcher used the MLQ (5X) rater form, which measured employee perceptions of their first-line leader's transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors on a five-point Likert-type scale (Avolio & Bass, 2004), to gather data on the independent (predictor) variables. The JSS used a six-point Likert-type scale to measure nine out of 11 possible work factors that contribute to employee job satisfaction (Spector, 1997), and was used to collect data on the dependent (criterion) variable of overall job satisfaction. The researcher used data obtained from the sample to perform a quantitative correlational analysis to discover the predictive relationship between administrative leadership behaviors and the overall job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

Hijazi, Kasim, and Saud (2016) stated leadership style and job satisfaction are significant factors in achieving organizational goals. The results of this research might prove valuable to for-profit universities by helping to identify beneficial leadership behaviors that lead to job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty. For-profit institutions may use the findings to implement leadership development programs designed to improve leadership interactions with online adjunct faculty. This ultimately could increase the job satisfaction of adjunct faculty who teach online classes.

The remainder of Chapter 1 addresses the background of the study. The researcher defines the problem statement and purpose of the study. The chapter continues with the research questions and hypotheses. The researcher denotes the significance of the study and explains how this research will advance scientific knowledge. The chapter continues with a rationale for the methodology and the nature of the research design. The researcher provides a definition of terms, denotes any assumptions, limitations, and delimitations, and concludes with a summary and explanation of how the remainder of the study is organized.

Background of the Study

The rapid expansion of for-profit universities in the United States (Gilpin, Saunders, & Stoddard, 2015) is facilitated by the affordability of online education, the desire of more individuals to pursue a post-secondary education, and the availability of federal student loans (Cellini & Chaudhary, 2012). Enrollment in for-profit post-secondary institutions exceeded 1.5 million in 2014, which more than tripled the enrollment rates of 2000 (National Center for Education Statistics, 2016). Despite the exponential growth of the for-profit sector, researchers have performed scarce research on for-profit universities (Chung, 2012). Moreover, research concerning the effects of leadership behaviors on job satisfaction underrepresents all sectors of higher education compared to other types of organizations (Alonderiene & Majauskaite, 2016), and is lacking on adjunct faculty who teach online classes (Rich, 2015). Specifically, Bateh and Heyliger (2014) observed a need for research investigating how transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors of first-line leaders effect the job satisfaction of faculty who teach at for-profit universities.

The growth of the for-profit sector has popularized online education (Gilpin et al., 2015). Public universities, recognizing innovations produced by the for-profit sector, have begun to reach out to adult learners, create online programs, and reduce costs by hiring adjunct faculty instead of tenured professors (Wilson, 2010). The use of adjuncts steadily increases (Gilpin et al., 2015; Liftig, 2014) as the demand for online programs continues to rise (Allen & Seaman, 2016). Given that universities face a variety of financial concerns, the use of adjunct faculty is likely to continue to rise (Dailey-Hebert, Mandernach, Donnelli-Sallee, & Norris, 2014) because adjuncts are hired at a significant cost savings and typically do not receive health benefits (Halcrow & Olson, 2008; Morton, 2012). Despite the increased use of adjunct faculty, researchers have performed few studies to investigate the job satisfaction of adjunct faculty (Rich, 2015). The lack of research is relevant because, as Al-Smadi and Qbian (2015) observed, the job satisfaction of adjunct and full-time faculty is an important factor that contributes to a university's educational efficiency and effectiveness.

Current research on leadership and job satisfaction has yielded conflicting results. Researchers investigating administrative leadership's effect on the job satisfaction of faculty in higher education have primarily performed research in private and public non-profit universities (Chung, 2012). Bateh and Heyliger (2014) examined the effect of leadership on the job satisfaction of university faculty in Florida. Their quantitative, predictive correlational research discovered transformational and transactional leadership behaviors had a positive effect on faculty job satisfaction. Amin, Shah, and Tatlah (2013) found that although transformational leadership displayed a positive relationship with faculty job satisfaction, transactional leadership behaviors negatively affected job

satisfaction. Conversely, Masum, Azad, and Beh's (2015) research discovered transformational leadership had no relationship with faculty job satisfaction, while transactional behaviors provided a positive relationship.

The varying results may be because, as Al-Smadi and Qbian (2015) observed, the factors affecting faculty job satisfaction are dependent on the type of university studied. There is a lack of research concerning for-profit higher education (Chung, 2012), and a need for research on factors that affect the job satisfaction of adjunct faculty who teach online classes (Couch, 2014; Rich, 2015). There is also a need for research investigating the effects of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership on the job satisfaction of the faculty in for-profit universities (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014). The lack of research in these areas reinforces the relevance of this study.

Problem Statement

Prior to this study, it was not known to what extent the transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors of higher education administrators, as perceived by online adjunct faculty, predicted the overall job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty who reported to them at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States. Bateh and Heyliger (2014) stressed the need to explore the perceived effects of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors on the job satisfaction of the faculty in for-profit post-secondary institutions. Rich (2015) observed the need for research on the factors that affect the job satisfaction of adjunct faculty, and particularly online adjuncts who might have different experiences than their traditional classroom counterparts. Likewise, Couch (2014) observed that online adjunct faculty may have different desires and needs than adjuncts teaching in a traditional environment, and

suggested research on factors that affect online adjunct's job satisfaction. This study explored transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership's ability to predict the job satisfaction of adjunct faculty who teach online classes at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States. The results of this study address the gap of leadership research in the for-profit sector of higher education and on factors that encourage job satisfaction in adjunct faculty who teach online classes.

Administrators in the for-profit sector face unique challenges, which are not associated with public stewardship or government regulations (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014). Administrators may be responsible for hiring faculty, faculty development, and guiding academic programs (Rand & Light, 2014). Despite these responsibilities, many administrators are former faculty who have little leadership experience or training. In 2013, only 3.3% of department chairpersons stated they received any form of ongoing leadership development (Gmelch, 2015). The importance of administrative positions in higher education compounded with the lack of leadership development emphasizes the need for research based development programs.

Academic leaders must be able to support and motivate their online adjunct faculty (Benton & Li, 2015). The use of online adjuncts in higher education is steadily increasing (Dailey-Hebert et al., 2014). Despite this, the academic community does not support adjuncts in the same manner as full-time faculty. Typically, adjuncts feel disconnected from full-time faculty (Dailey-Hebert et al., 2014), have difficulty finding their place in the university (Banasik & Dean, 2015), and are compensated at a lower rate than their full-time counterparts (Halcrow & Olson, 2008). Likewise, online adjuncts may feel disconnected from their department and organization (Benton & Li, 2015).

Given the increased use of online programs (Allen & Seaman, 2016) and adjunct faculty (Starcher & Mandernach, 2016), and a need for research on online adjunct faculty job satisfaction (Rich, 2015), expanding the knowledge on leadership's effect on the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty provides opportunities for leadership development and increasing the job satisfaction of adjunct faculty who teach online classes.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative, non-experimental correlational study was to examine to what extent online faculty members' perceptions of the transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors of higher education administrators predicted the overall job satisfaction of the online adjunct faculty who reported to them at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States. This study increased the body of knowledge in the for-profit sector of higher education and on online adjunct faculty. Investigating the predictive relationship between leadership and faculty job satisfaction also added to the body of knowledge on these topics. An investigation of the predictive relationship of a first-line leader's transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors on the job satisfaction of adjunct faculty who teach online classes at a for-profit university provides opportunities for leadership development, which may help to increase the job satisfaction of the adjunct faculty who teach online classes.

The researcher used a quantitative method and a non-experimental correlational design to investigate the variables. The independent, or predictor, variables used to assess the leadership style of higher education administrators were transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors. Data regarding the independent, or predictor variables, was collected from the faculty with the MLQ (5X).

The MLQ (5X) measured employee perceptions of their leader's transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors on a five-point Likert-type scale (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The researcher collected data regarding the dependent, or criterion, variable from the faculty with the JSS. The JSS used a six-point Likert-type scale to measure nine out of 11 possible work factors that contribute to employee job satisfaction (Spector, 1997). The researcher investigated the individual leadership behaviors (predictor variables) in terms of their predictive strength of the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty members, which is the dependent (criterion) variable.

The researcher used an online survey to collect data from a non-probabilistic, voluntary sample of the online adjunct faculty at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States. The survey questionnaire was composed of two validated and reliable instruments. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire 5x short, MLQ (5X), was developed by Avolio and Bass (2004) to measure perceptions of leadership behaviors, which are the independent, or predictor, variables in this study. This 45-question instrument has 36 questions that measure attributes of the Full Range Leadership theory including transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors. In addition, the MLQ (5X) has nine questions that measure leadership outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness, and leader satisfaction. The data corresponding to these nine questions were not used in this study. The MLQ (5X) measures five dimensions of transformational leadership, two dimensions of transactional leadership, and two dimensions of laissez-faire leadership behavior. The transformational dimensions measured are inspirational motivation, behavioral idealized influence, attributed idealized influence, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation. The transactional

dimensions are contingent reward and active management-by-exception. The laissez-faire measures are laissez-faire behaviors and passive management-by-exception (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The MLQ items are scored on five-point Likert-type scales.

Spector's (1997) Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) was used to measure the overall job satisfaction, (criterion variable) of the online adjunct faculty. The JSS measures nine out of 11 work factors using a six-point Likert-type scale (Van Saane, Sluiter, Verbeek, & Frings-Dresen, 2003). The work factors include: fringe benefits, communication, supervision, nature of the work, promotion, coworkers, pay, operating procedures, and contingent rewards. The MLQ (5X) and JSS collect technically ordinal data that the researcher approximated to continuous to be able to used for the analysis parametric statistical procedures. The researcher hoped the organization that hosted this study would use the findings to improve leadership development programs for the purpose of increasing the job satisfaction of adjunct faculty who teach online classes.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The success of an organization depends on the job satisfaction of its employees (Syed & Yan, 2012). The job satisfaction of faculty contributes to institutional dynamics and is a primary variable used by management to evaluate university employee effectiveness (Pan, Shen, Liu, Yang, & Wang, 2015). Elevated job satisfaction enhances peer relationships, promotes occupational commitment, and fosters university commitment (Amos, Acquah, Antwi, & Adzifome, 2015). A factor that strongly affects job satisfaction is supervisory leadership style (Bayram & Dinç, 2015).

Prior research indicated transformational leadership behaviors promote increased faculty job satisfaction in public (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014) and private universities

(Masum et al., 2015). Researchers have found transactional leadership behaviors can positively (Menon, 2014) or negatively (Amin et al., 2013; Saleem, 2015) affect the job satisfaction of faculty. Laissez-faire behaviors, still used by some management officials (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014), were found to have a negative association with faculty satisfaction (Masum et al., 2015). The effects of leadership on faculty job satisfaction could vary between organizations because faculty job satisfaction might be dependent on the type of university studied (Al-Smadi & Qbian, 2015).

This quantitative, non-experimental correlational study used the following research questions and hypotheses to investigate the predictive relationship of higher education administrators' leadership style, as perceived by online adjunct faculty who directly reported to them, with the faculty's self-reported job satisfaction at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States:

RQ1: To what extent does the administrators' transformational leadership style, as perceived by the online adjunct faculty who report to them and measured by the MLQ (5X), predict the overall job satisfaction of the same online adjunct faculty, as measured by the JSS, in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States?

$H1_0$: There is no statistically significant predictive relationship between the administrators' transformational leadership style and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

H1a: There is a statistically significant predictive relationship between the administrators' transformational leadership style and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

RQ2: To what extent does the administrators' transactional leadership style, as perceived by the online adjunct faculty who report to them and measured by the MLQ (5X), predict the overall job satisfaction of the same online adjunct faculty, as measured by the JSS, in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States?

$H2_0$: There is no statistically significant predictive relationship between the administrators' transactional leadership style and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

H2a: There is a statistically significant predictive relationship between the administrators' transactional leadership style and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

RQ3: To what extent does the administrators' laissez-faire leadership style, as perceived by the online adjunct faculty who report to them and measured by the MLQ (5X), predict the overall job satisfaction of the same online adjunct faculty, as measured by the JSS, in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States?

$H3_0$: There is no statistically significant predictive relationship between the administrators' laissez-faire leadership style and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

H3a: There is a statistically significant predictive relationship between the administrators' laissez-faire leadership style and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

The researcher performed simple linear regression analysis to discover to what extent transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles of higher education administrators predicted the overall job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States. The findings answered the research questions and addressed the problem statement. Moreover, the results of this research helped to fill a gap in present research literature, which is a lack of knowledge concerning the predictive relationship between transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors and the job satisfaction of adjunct faculty who taught online classes at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States. This knowledge proves valuable as a foundation for the professional development of higher education administrators in for-profit universities, which could increase the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty.

Advancing Scientific Knowledge

Chung (2012) observed that research performed in higher education had focused primarily on the private and non-profit sectors, while ignoring the for-profit sector, which continues to display a strong potential for growth (Levy, 2015). Prior research has shown the positive effects of transformational leadership on faculty job satisfaction in private (Masum et al., 2015) and public universities (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014). Recent research suggests transactional leadership may positively (Menon, 2014) or negatively (Amin et al., 2013; Saleem, 2015) predict faculty job satisfaction in public and private universities. Laissez-faire leadership has displayed a negative relationship with faculty job satisfaction (Masum et al., 2015), but is still used by some members of management (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014). Currently, there is a need to discover the transformational, transactional,

and laissez-faire leadership behaviors that affect the job satisfaction of faculty at for-profit universities (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014).

Researchers have performed an abundance of research concerning the relationship between leadership and employee job satisfaction, but comparatively few studies investigated institutes of higher learning (Alonderiene & Majauskaite, 2016). Bateh and Heyliger (2014), who investigated transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire administrative leadership's effect on the job satisfaction of faculty at a Florida public university, suggested the need for similar research in the for-profit sector because administrators in for-profit schools face different challenges than those in the public or private sectors. The lack of research in the for-profit sector of higher education (Chung, 2012) and the need for research on factors that affect the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty (Rich, 2015) emphasizes the need to understand which transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors predict the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty at for-profit universities.

The emergence of for-profit universities has produced changes in higher education, with the increased use of adjunct faculty growing into prominence (Gilpin et al., 2015). Despite the increased use of adjunct faculty, researchers have performed limited research on adjunct development or efficacy (Datray et al., 2014), or investigated the work experiences, development, or job satisfaction of adjunct faculty (Datray et al., 2014; Rich, 2015). Rich (2015) observed a lack of research investigating the job satisfaction of adjunct instructors and suggested online adjuncts may have different work experiences than their campus-based counterparts. Similarly, Couch (2014) suggested online adjunct faculty might have different desires and needs than adjuncts teaching in a

traditional environment and advocated investigating factors that affect online adjuncts' job satisfaction. The combined lack of research in the for-profit sector of higher education and on adjunct faculty who teach online classes reinforces the need of this study to advance scientific knowledge on these topics.

This research expands on the work of Burns (1978), who introduced transformational and transactional leadership, and Bass and Avolio (1994), who refined Burns' work into the Full Range Leadership theory (FRLT), which includes transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors. Herzberg's Motivation/Hygiene theory (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959) and Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (Maslow, 1943) serve as the theoretical foundations for job satisfaction. These theories similarly address the intrinsic and extrinsic factors associated with job satisfaction (Herzberg, 1987).

This study added to the body of scientific knowledge by investigating a gap in extant research literature concerning the relationship between transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire administrative leadership behaviors and the job satisfaction of adjunct faculty who teach online classes at a for-profit university. Current research primarily focuses on the private and non-profit sectors of higher education (Chung, 2012). Moreover, research on the effects of the FRLT on faculty job satisfaction in higher education is lacking in the for-profit sector (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014) and on online adjunct faculty (Rich, 2015).

The lack of research is significant because administrators in the for-profit sector encounter challenges not specific to public trust (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014). Likewise, adjunct faculty who teach online classes may have different perceptions of their work

than their traditional counterparts (Rich, 2015). This research explored the leadership theories of Burns (1978) and Bass and Avolio (1994) in the unique environment of a for-profit university. This research also increased the body of knowledge on job satisfaction, based on the theories of Maslow (1943) and Herzberg (1987), by exploring a population that is to date under researched.

This study addressed the paucity of research literature investigating the relationship between administrative leadership and faculty job satisfaction in the for-profit sector. Additionally, this study contributed to the limited body of research investigating the job satisfaction of adjunct faculty, and specifically online adjunct faculty. Combined, this research added to scientific knowledge by investigating the predictive relationship of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire administrative leadership behaviors on the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

Significance of the Study

Effective leadership is critical to the success of any business (Landis, Hill, & Harvey, 2014). Burns (1978), in his examination of political biographies, coined the terms transactional and transformational leadership. Bass (1985) refined the concepts, for organizational applicability. Bass and Avolio (1994) further refined the work of Burns (1978) and Bass (1985) into the Full Range Leadership theory, which denotes nine leadership behaviors associated with transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership.

Transformational leadership is one of the most influential and researched leadership theories of the past 30 years. Transformational leaders strive to meet the

higher order needs of their followers (Banks, McCauley, Gardner, & Guler, 2016) to inspire and motivate them to achieve their highest potential (Burns, 1978). Similarly, leaders in higher education serve to motivate the faculty to realize outcomes that benefit the students and the school (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014), which is important because a university's faculty have a profound effect on student retention, learning, and engagement (Ochoa, 2011). Despite the importance of academic leadership, researchers have accomplished minimal studies in the for-profit sector (Chung, 2012) or investigated the job satisfaction of adjunct faculty (Rich, 2015).

Administrators in higher education have many responsibilities, least of which are devising and implementing faculty development programs, guiding academic programs, hiring faculty, and setting strategic priorities (Rand & Light, 2014). Upon examination, many of the attributes of transformational leadership align with the desired leadership styles of academic administrators, who must be able to foster and nurture relationships with their faculty. Academic leaders must be visionaries who motivate and support their online adjunct faculty (Benton & Li, 2015), because the lack of administrative support for their faculty has a negative effect on student outcomes and the quality of teaching in post-secondary institutions (Maxey & Kezar, 2015).

The importance of the leadership abilities of higher education administrators emphasized the need to understand the relationship between transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire administrative leadership behaviors and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty in the for-profit sector (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014). Determining the leadership behaviors that encourage the job satisfaction of adjunct faculty who teach online classes provides information that is needed to design training

and leadership development programs specifically for leaders of online adjunct faculty. This training, in turn, may improve the job satisfaction of adjunct faculty who teach online classes at a for-profit university.

The findings of this study are significant in identifying leadership behaviors that foster the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty. The research findings provide information needed to design effective leadership development programs and provide support to online adjuncts, who could feel disconnected from their organization. Current research suggests adjunct faculty feel detached from their departments and organization (Benton & Li, 2015). Low levels of job satisfaction encourages increased explicit and implicit costs to an organization (Bockerman & Ilmakunnas, 2012), which include increased hiring costs, administrative expenses, advertising, and the indirect cost of training new faculty (Caruth & Caruth, 2013). An increase in job satisfaction may increase faculty productivity, decrease faculty turnover, and provide a better educational experience to the student population.

Rationale for Methodology

The researcher chose a quantitative methodology to explore the relationship between the administrators' leadership style (predictor variables), as perceived by the online adjunct faculty who report to them, and the overall job satisfaction of the same online adjunct faculty (criterion variable). A quantitative method is used to examine associations, cause-and-effect, or predictive relationship, between two or more numerically expressed variables by the use of inferential statistics (Cozby & Bates, 2015; Ellis & Levy, 2009). The researcher chose a quantitative method for several reasons.

Qualitative research is used to explore opinions, motivations, and the way people experience phenomena. Quantitative research seeks to investigate a problem by using numerical data, which can be converted into useable statistics (Cozby & Bates, 2015). For this study, the researcher intended to investigate if a predictive relationship existed between variables, which a qualitative design could not provide. Quantitative studies use a large population and sample size, which makes the results statistically generalizable to the total population. Conversely, a qualitative method collects data from a small sample that may, or may not, be generalizable to the total population (Cozby & Bates, 2015). The purpose of this study was to collect data from a large population to ascertain if a predictive relationship existed between variables that can be generalized to the total population, which made quantitative research the suitable methodology.

The researcher used two valid, reliable survey instruments that generated ordinal data. The first, the MLQ (5X) (Avolio & Bass, 2004), generated quantitative data using a 5-point Likert-type scale, approximated to interval measures. The researcher used the MLQ (5X) to evaluate the leadership attributes (independent or predictor variables) of the higher education administrators in terms of strength as predictors of the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty (dependent or criterion variable). The researcher used the JSS (Spector, 1997) to assess perceptions of overall job satisfaction (dependent or criterion variable). The JSS instrument generated quantitative data, using a six-point Likert-type scale, approximated to an interval measure.

Researchers view surveys as the preferred instrument of quantitative research because they can be easily adapted to many situations. Researchers can administer surveys at a distance and replicate the study using the same survey. Surveys are also

suited for regression analysis, which makes them popular in quantitative research (Bryman, 1984). The MLQ (5X) (Appendix C) and JSS (Appendix D) were combined to comprise the survey instrument.

The researcher obtained permission from the research site (Appendix E) and the IRB of Grand Canyon University (Appendix F), and administered the MLQ (5X) and JSS instruments by use of online survey using the SurveyMonkey® website. The researcher dispensed the survey to a purposive sample of online adjunct faculty who reported to a higher education administrator at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States. The researcher performed data analysis using the IBM Statistical package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The researcher cleaned the data and tested all assumptions for simple linear regression. The researcher performed a descriptive analysis, and produced tables that describe the perceptions of the sample regarding leadership behaviors and the individual dimensions of job satisfaction. For the next step, the researcher performed three simple linear regressions, a form of ordinary least squares regression (OLS) analysis, to investigate the predictive relationship of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors, as measured by the MLQ (5X) with the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty, as measured by the JSS.

Quantitative research develops conclusions based on gathering and analyzing numerical data and examines relationships between variables (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003; Parylo, 2012). A predictive correlational design uses inferential statistics to determine predictive relationships between two variables that are expressed quantitatively (Cozby & Bates, 2015). Researchers use predictive correlational research to ascertain if a predictive relationship exists between multiple variables derived from the same

population (Cozby & Bates, 2015). Previous studies have used a quantitative method and a predictive correlational design to examine relationships between leadership behaviors and employee job satisfaction in previous research (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Omar & Hussin, 2013). Conversely, qualitative designs seek to discover patterns and themes and to investigate opinions, motivations, and reasons. In this case, the researcher sought to investigate the predictive relationship between variables, which made a quantitative methodology appropriate.

Nature of the Research Design for the Study

This quantitative study used a correlational design, which is a non-experimental design appropriate for assessing the strength of independent variables as predictors of the dependent variable (Ellis & Levy, 2009). The predictor variables for this study were the transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire styles of leadership, as perceived by the online adjunct faculty who reported to them and measured by the MLQ (5X), and the criterion variable was the overall job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty, as measured by the JSS. The researcher used simple linear regression as the principal statistical technique to answer the research questions and hypotheses.

A correlational design is a valid method of examining the relationships between two continuous variables in a specific environment (Cozby & Bates, 2015). In comparison, an experimental design involves the researcher giving different treatments to the independent variable in two or more groups to determine any difference in the effect on the dependent variable in each group. A casual-comparative analysis is similar to a correlational design, except a casual-comparative method seeks to determine if a cause and effect relationship exists between the independent and dependent variables (Ellis &

Levy, 2009). Different types of research questions and approaches require specific designs (Cozby & Bates, 2015).

This study examined if a predictive relationship existed between continuous variables. To determine relationships, the researcher used a correlational design to collect numerical, quantitative, data to determine what, if any, relationships existed between the variables of interest. Correlational designs are suitable for examining potential relationships between variables that may affect a sample in a population (Schenker & Rumrill, 2004), which in this study was the online adjunct faculty at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States. Use of a correlational design allowed the researcher to investigate any predictive relationship between faculty overall job satisfaction and their first-line leader's transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors (predictors) measured by the MLQ (5X).

A target population is a group of organizations or individuals who share common identifiable characteristics that can be studied (Cozby & Bates, 2015). The total population of this study was comprised of approximately 800 online faculty who taught at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States. The target population consisted of adjunct faculty members who have taught at least one online class within the previous six months at the research site. To ensure the target population consisted of the desired participants, the researcher clearly stated in the invitation email (Appendix G) and in the informed consent document that only adjunct faculty who taught at least one online class within the previous six months were eligible to participate in the study. Per information received from the research site, most faculty at the research site were adjuncts who taught online classes, and only active adjunct faculty were invited to participate in the research.

The sample included voluntary participants recruited from the target population, which resulted in a non-random sample that may not be representative of the target population. The organization that gave permission to collect data from their online adjunct faculty was a private, for-profit, university located in the Midwest United States that offered online courses. The Carnegie Foundation (2015) classified the university as large, and denoted it offered graduate and undergraduate degrees nationwide for online students.

The instruments used for this study were the MLQ (5X) and the JSS. The MLQ (5X), developed by Avolio and Bass, (2004), measured perceived transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership attributes on a five-point Likert-type scale that produced data that the researcher approximated to interval measures. The MLQ (5X) is the most popular instrument used by researchers in the examination of transformational and transactional leadership (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Menon, 2014). The nine attributes measured by the MLQ (5X) include the five transformational behaviors of inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, attributed idealized influence, behavioral idealized influence, and individual consideration. The MLQ (5X) also measured the transactional behaviors of contingent reward and active management-by-exception, and two dimensions of laissez-faire leadership, which are laissez-faire behaviors and passive management-by-exception. The MLQ (5X) also used nine questions to measure the outcomes of leader effectiveness, extra effort, and satisfaction with leader (Bass & Riggio, 2006), which were not used for this study. Muenjohn and Armstrong (2008) professed the MLQ (5X) may be the best instrument to capture the dimensions of transactional and transformational leadership. Additionally, the MLQ (5X) met all standards for reliability and validity (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

The second instrument, the JSS, used a six-point Likert-type scale to measure perceptions of nine different work factors, and is suitable to collect quantitative data on overall job satisfaction (Spector, 1997). The JSS is one of the few instruments that measures job satisfaction to meet the requirements for reliability and validity (Van Saane et al., 2003). Since each instrument used a Likert-type scale, the researcher approximated the collected data to interval measures, which allowed the use of inferential statistical analysis.

The researcher used an online survey to collect the data needed for this research study. The researcher obtained permission to use the JSS (Appendix A) and MLQ (5X) (Appendix B). The researcher then administered the instruments, the MLQ (5X) (Appendix C) and JSS (Appendix D) via the SurveyMonkey® website. Surveys are appropriate for use in regression analysis (Bryman, 1984) and provide a numeric descriptive account of a population's trends, opinions, and attitudes by analyzing a sample taken from an identifiable population. Surveys allow a researcher to collect quantitative data from a sample with a wide geographic distribution in a limited amount of time (Cozby & Bates, 2015), which is ideal for this study.

Once the researcher received IRB permission from the research site (Appendix E) and Grand Canyon University (GCU) (Appendix F), the researcher notified the point of contact at the research site to email the survey invitation (Appendix G) to the population. The minimum sample size per G*Power (Appendix H, Figure 1), and was determined to be 74. The invitation gave a general overview of the research, stated the criteria for participation, and provided a link to the survey, which was on the SurveyMonkey® website (Appendix I). The invitation further stated that two $50 Amazon eCards were

offered as an incentive for participation. Two participants, who were chosen at random, were given one $50 Amazon eCard each. To enter the drawing, a link was provided at the end of the survey that led to a different survey where the participant's email address was collected. After data collection, two participants were randomly chosen to receive one $50 Amazon eCard each. By creating another survey to collect email addresses, the respondents' answers could not be associated with their answers to the survey instruments. Once the incentives were awarded, the email addresses were deleted from the survey site.

The survey began with informed consent (Appendix J), which the participants acknowledged by checking the box stating they agree to participate in the research before they could progress to the survey itself. The survey was open for data collection for a 14-day period. When the researcher closed the survey, the data was downloaded into the SPSS for analysis.

Definition of Terms

The following list includes the operational definitions used for this research. The definitions may help the reader understand the terms and concepts used in this study.

Active Management-by-Exception. When a leader actively monitors employee work and takes corrective action before work becomes unsatisfactory or there is a compromise in the interests of the organization (Bass, 1997).

Adjunct faculty. Individuals who are attached to a university, but who not a part of the organization. They are generally part-time, non-permanent employees or independent contractors (Caruth & Caruth, 2013).

Contingent reward. Contingent reward indicates an exchange between leader and follower. One party, or individual, proposes a contract for the exchange of currency or items of value for services performed (Burns, 1978).

For-profit university. Institutes of higher education that are privately or individually owned, or owned by a publicly traded organization. Earnings from a for-profit university may benefit an individual or shareholder (Kutz, 2010).

Full-range leadership. A theory that categorizes leadership actions into three classifications: transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire. The basis of this theory is that leaders demonstrate each style of leadership to some degree (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Higher education administrator. For operational purposes, a higher education administrator is a dean, assistant dean, department chair, assistant department chair, or any other individual to which an online adjunct faculty member directly reports.

Idealized influence. Idealized influence is the transformational leadership dimension that denotes how followers perceive the leader in terms of consistency, ideals, confidence, charisma, trust, and power (Omar & Hussin, 2013). Avolio and Bass (2004) divided idealized influence into two categories. Attributed idealized influence is how employees perceive a leader. Behavioral idealized influence is how a leader acts.

Individualized consideration. Individualized consideration includes coaching, mentoring, encouragement, effective listening, frequent interactions, and providing emotional and social support to subordinates (Northouse, 2013).

Inspirational motivation. Inspirational motivation involves motivating and inspiring followers by exhibiting enthusiasm and optimism, effectively communicating

high expectations, demonstrating commitment to the goals of the organization, and involving followers in the leader's vision for the organization (Northouse, 2013).

Intellectual stimulation. Intellectual stimulation denotes when a leader encourages followers to be creative and innovative, and to strive for exceptional performance that exceeds expectations (Northouse, 2013).

Job satisfaction. The outcome of how an individual positively or negatively views related job factors and how well a job satisfies employee needs (Ul Islam & Ali, 2013).

Job satisfaction survey (JSS). A 36-item instrument that addresses nine standard work factors with a six-point Likert-type scale to collect employee perceptions about their job. The work factors measured include communication, nature of work, coworkers, operating conditions, contingent rewards, fringe benefits, supervision, promotion, and pay. The JSS can also measure overall job satisfaction by combining all factors (Spector, 1997).

Laissez-faire leadership. The absence of leadership. Leaders avoid making decisions and ignore responsibilities (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, MLQ (5X). A 36-item instrument that uses a five-point Likert-type scale to measure the nine dimensions of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership. The dimensions measured are idealized influence, inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, contingent reward, active management-by-exception, passive management-by-exception, and Laissez-faire leadership (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Online education. Courses offerings taught at a distance, usually by means of internet based classes. (Nash, 2015).

Passive Management-by-Exception. Leadership takes corrective action only after a follower's work becomes unsatisfactory or a problem occurs (Bass, 1997).

Transactional leadership. A leadership style based on rewards, punishments, arrangements, and contracts. Leaders offer their followers rewards for satisfactory performance and penalties for unsatisfactory performance as a basis for motivation (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999).

Transformational leadership. A leadership style used to motivate and inspire followers to realize maximum results by addressing the singular needs of the follower. Attributes of transformational leadership are individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation and idealized influence (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Assumptions, Limitations, Delimitations

The following is a list of assumptions, limitations, and delimitations relevant to this study.

Assumptions. Assumptions are what the researcher assumed to be true about all information gathered in this study, and are as follows:

1. It was assumed the participants were honest and answered questions to the best of their ability. The researcher tried to encourage honest participation by protecting the confidentiality of the participants, which included not collecting identifying information such as name, email, address, IP addresses, and the university at where the participants work. The researcher turned off IP identification and ensured the survey collects no personally identifiable information from IP addresses. The researcher used a point of contact at the research site to avoid the collection of faculty email addresses. Additionally, the researcher assumed that individuals who wish to participate honestly in this study are professionals who have an interest in research that concerns their occupation.

2. It was assumed the respondents were aware of their work environment and could answer job satisfaction related questions. Online adjunct faculty must have taught at least one class within the last six months.

3. It was assumed the online survey instrument used in this research study, SurveyMonkey®, protected the confidentiality and anonymity of the data. The survey did not collect personally identifiable information from the respondents. The researcher turned off IP identification and ensure the survey did not collect personally identifiable information from IP addresses. The researcher used a point of contact at the research site to invite participation to the survey, thereby avoiding the collection of faculty email addresses.

4. It was assumed the MLQ (5X) correctly measured the leadership style of the higher education administrators as perceived by the online adjunct faculty. The MLQ (5X) has an internal consistency above 0.80 and has been the focus of extensive analysis to verify construct validity (Avolio & Bass, 2004), which indicated the MLQ (5X) is a valid and reliable instrument. The researcher used the utmost care when entering the data into SPSS to avoid any mistakes. Researchers have used the MLQ (5X) extensively in the examination of leadership behavior (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

5. It was assumed the JSS correctly measured the job satisfaction of the online adjunct faculty who reported to a higher education administrator. The JSS measures more dimensions of job satisfaction (nine) than any other job satisfaction instrument that has been determined to be reliable and valid. (Van Saane et al., 2003). The researcher used the utmost care when entering the data into SPSS to avoid any mistakes. The JSS is one of the most used instruments to measure job satisfaction (Spector, 1997).

Limitations. Limitations are factors, such as bias, that the researcher can exhibit no control over, and are as follows:

1. The purposive sampling method of volunteer participants, which resulted in a non-random sample that may not be representative of the target population, may affect the representativeness (internal validity) of the results. To minimize this limitation, the researcher attempted to recruit a large sample from the total population who meet the criteria for the study by offering two $50 Amazon eCards. The cards were given to two participants chosen at random at the end of data collection.

2. Participants may have been reluctant to answer questions truthfully about their superior out of fear of repercussions. To alleviate this concern, the informed consent document assured participants that the researcher would collect no email addresses, IP addresses, or any other personally identifiable information. Email addresses collected for the incentive was collected via a different survey. A link was provided at the end of the primary survey which

directed participants to a different survey, where participants entered their email addresses for the drawing of two $50 Amazon eCards. This method of email collection ensured the respondent's emails could not be associated with their responses to the survey instruments.

3. Since respondents took the survey during a specific moment in time, respondents may have responded based on their feelings that day, and not their overall feelings about their job. Respondents were encouraged during the survey to think about their overall feelings about their job when answering questions.

4. The MLQ (5X) and JSS may not have addressed all leadership behaviors or aspects of job satisfaction. The results and recommendations of this research may be incomplete. Regardless of this possibility, the MLQ (5X) is the most used instrument to measure aspects of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership and measures most types of leadership behaviors (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The JSS measures the most dimensions of any job satisfaction instrument that passes the tests for reliability and validity (Van Saane et al., 2003).

5. The participants may have misinterpreted or misunderstood items on the instrument. The MLQ (5X) and JSS are both validated instruments, which should have minimalized concern.

6. The JSS and MLQ (5X) used Likert-type scales to generate numerical data in response to perceptions. The use of numerical data was addressed by anchor definitions associated with the numbers. These definitions allowed the academic to approximate the ordinal data to interval data using parametric statistical analysis.

7. The overall alpha value for transactional leadership, 0.69, was slightly below the minimum acceptable alpha value of 0.70. Even though both constructs of transactional leadership surpassed the 0.70 threshold at 0.73 for contingent reward and 0.77 for active management by exception, the limitation remains.

8. The variables of transformational and transactional leadership violated normality in the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Even though a visual inspection of the histograms and scatter-plots appeared normal, the limitation remains.

Delimitations. Delimitations are aspects of the study the researcher has direct control over. The delimitations are as follows:

1. The researcher decided to perform a quantitative study. A qualitative design would have allowed the researcher to examine the feelings, hopes, and thoughts of individual adjunct faculty. The limitation of a qualitative design is

data is collected from a small sample that may, or may not, be generalizable to the total population. This quantitative study used a larger population and sample size, thereby making the results statistically generalizable to the total population.

2. The sample only included participants from one university, which limited the external validity of the research. The research is only applicable to the university studied.

3. The researcher used a specific purposive sample of adjunct faculty who taught at least one online class at the research site. The target population of online adjuncts who taught a class within the previous six months was chosen because this demographic was the focus of the study.

Summary and Organization of the Remainder of the Study

Enrollment in the for-profit sector of higher education surpassed 1.5 million in 2014 (National Center for Education Statistics, 2016). The increased popularity of for-profit universities combined with the popularity of online education has resulted in an increase in online class offerings (Allen & Seaman, 2016) and the subsequent demand for adjunct faculty (Starcher & Mandernach, 2016). Higher education administrators are responsible for hiring and developing their faculty, but only 3.3% of department chairpersons, as of 2013, have received any form of continued leadership development (Gmelch, 2015). The lack of development is significant because, as Bateh and Heyliger (2014) observed, administrative leadership has a significant effect on the job satisfaction of faculty.

This research investigated if the transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles of first-line higher education administrators predicted the overall job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States. Recent research indicated the need to investigate the effects of administrative leadership behaviors on the job satisfaction of faculty in the for-profit sector of higher education (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014). Furthermore, Rich (2015) suggested adjunct faculty

who teach online classes might have different perspectives than adjunct faculty who teach in a traditional setting, and noted a lack of research on the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty in general. The lack of research involving for-profit universities and online adjunct faculty is significant because, as stated by Omar and Hussin (2013), increased faculty job satisfaction allows for the hiring and retention of the best employees.

The purpose of this quantitative, non-experimental correlational study was to examine if the leadership style of higher education administrators predicted the overall job satisfaction of 77 online adjunct faculty at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States. The researcher collected data via online survey from a voluntary sample of online adjunct faculty at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States. The researcher used the MLQ (5X) to collect data on leadership behaviors and the JSS to collect data on the overall job satisfaction of adjunct faculty who teach online classes. The results of this study may help organizations improve leadership development programs, which may foster faculty job satisfaction.

This research investigated three research questions. The first examined if the perceived transformational leadership behaviors of higher education administrators predicted the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States. The second investigated if the perceived transactional leadership behaviors of higher education administrators predicted the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States. The third examined if the perceived laissez-faire leadership behavior of higher education administrators predicted the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty at a for-profit

university in the Midwest United States. Answering these questions added to the limited amount of research that investigated the relationship between leadership behaviors and job satisfaction in the for-profit sector of higher education. This study also added to the body of knowledge on the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty.

This study is significant because educational leaders must motivate their faculty to obtain results that benefit the organization and students (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014). This motivation is fundamental to a university's success, because the faculty have a significant effect on student learning, engagement, and retention (Ochoa, 2011). Understanding what leadership behaviors foster the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty might allow organizations to develop and implement effective administrative leadership training, develop practices that encourage job satisfaction, and place effective leaders in positions of power in online programs.

The correlational design of this quantitative study examined if the leadership behaviors of higher education administrators (predictor variables) predicted the overall job satisfaction of adjunct faculty who reported to them and taught online classes at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States (criterion variable). A predictive correlational design examines the relationship between two continuous variables in a specific environment (Cozby & Bates, 2015). This study used the MLQ (5X) to measure the leadership behaviors of higher education administrators, as perceived by the online adjunct faculty who report to them. The JSS measured the overall job satisfaction of the same adjunct faculty from a target population taken from the total population of 800 adjunct faculty who taught online classes for a for-profit university in the Midwestern United States.

The researcher waited until the IRB of Grand Canyon University (GCU) granted permission to begin collecting data (Appendix F). The researcher then notified the point of contact at the participating research site to send the survey invitation to the population. The invitation contained a link to the survey, which was on the SurveyMonkey® website. The survey began with informed consent, which each participant acknowledged by checking the box that indicated they agreed to participate in the research. Once the participants acknowledged the informed consent document, the survey began. After the survey, the researcher downloaded the data into a secure, external, password protected flash drive and secured it in a locked drawer. The researcher then used the SPSS software to generate descriptive statistics and perform simple regression analysis to answer the research questions and hypotheses.

This dissertation is comprised of five chapters. This first chapter provided the background, problem, and purpose of this research study. In addition, chapter one addressed the research questions and hypotheses associated with the research and stated how this study would add to the body of scientific knowledge. The significance of the study and rationale for the methodology of the study were investigated. The researcher provided an overview of the research design and defined key terms used throughout this document. Lastly, Chapter 1 addressed any assumptions, limitations, and delimitations of the study.

Chapter 2 presents the literature review. The researcher examined literature published in academic books, peer-reviewed journals, and other scholarly sources. An investigation of relevant literature addressed the theoretical foundations of this study along with the topics of leadership, the Full Range Leadership theory (Avolio & Bass,

2004), and job satisfaction. The researcher provided an investigation of the variables associated with this study and the results of prior research investigating leadership behaviors and job satisfaction. Chapter 2 concludes with an investigation of the MLQ (5X) (Avolio & Bass, 2004) and the JSS (Spector, 1997) instruments.

Chapter 3 addresses the research method and design of the study. The researcher provided his rationale for choosing a quantitative method and predictive correlational design. Chapter 3 continues with a discussion of the use of simple linear regression, and a rationale for the use of this form of analysis in the study. The MLQ (5X) and JSS instruments were examined and their validity and reliability were addressed. Chapter 3 concludes with a discussion of the limitations and delimitations of the study and the ethical considerations of the research.

Chapter 4 provides an analysis of the numerical data that were collected in this research study. The researcher presented the procedures used to analyze the data and the results of the statistical analyses. The researcher used descriptive statistics and simple linear regression to determine the online adjunct faculty's perceptions of their direct supervisor's leadership behaviors, explore the relationship between leadership and job satisfaction, and identify the variables that were significant predictors of job satisfaction. The results from this data analysis were used to answer the research questions and corresponding hypotheses.

Chapter 5 summarizes the findings of the data analysis and provides a summary of this study. The implications of the findings are discussed, and recommendations for future research and practice are presented. The researcher also compared previous

research and foundational theories, which are discussed in Chapter 2, with the results of this study.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction to the Chapter and Background to the Problem

The purpose of this quantitative, correlational research was to discover to what extent the transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors of first-line higher education administrators predicted the overall job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States. In this chapter, the researcher provides an overview of leadership, the Full Range Leadership theory, transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership theories, job satisfaction, Herzberg's motivator-hygiene theory, Maslow's hierarchy of needs, online higher education, and adjunct faculty. Additionally, this chapter explores current research on leadership behaviors and job satisfaction.

Askling and Stensaker (2002) stressed the importance of studying leadership behaviors in post-secondary institutions. Relatively few studies examining the influence of administrative leadership on job satisfaction explored institutions of higher education (Alonderiene & Majauskaite, 2016; Kalargyrou, Pescosolido, & Kalagriros, 2012). The for-profit sector of higher education is specifically underrepresented (Chung, 2012). The lack of research is notable because Al-Smadi and Qbian (2015) found statistically significant differences in faculty job satisfaction dependent on the type of university studied. Bateh and Heyliger (2014) observed that researchers should perform an investigation of the predictive relationship of leadership behaviors on faculty job satisfaction in private, for-profit universities because these institutions face different challenges than their public counterparts. Additionally, there is little research available that investigates the work experiences or development of adjunct faculty who teach

online classes (Datray et al., 2014; Rich, 2015). The lack of research in the for-profit sector required an investigation of research in other types of organizations to explore the effect of leadership on employee job satisfaction.

Surveyed Literature. The organization of the literature review begins with an examination of the theoretical foundations of leadership, and specifically on the transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership theories. The Full Range Leadership theory is examined because it is the model on which the research will be evaluated. The review examines the theories of Herzberg and Maslow and their relation to job satisfaction. This chapter also examines the topics of online higher education and adjunct faculty. An exploration of recent research on full-range leadership and job satisfaction will follow.

The researcher examined and acquired research articles through the library of Grand Canyon University. Peer reviewed articles were accessed through *ProQuest Midwest, EBSCO, Emerald, Academic Search, ERIC, Wiley, Sage Premier, ScienceDirect College Edition,* and *Google Scholar,* and dissertations via *ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Full Text: The Humanities and Social Sciences Collection*. The researcher used a variety of search words and phrases. These included leadership, full-range leadership, leadership theories, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, educational leadership, for-profit higher education, for-profit college, for-profit university, job satisfaction, employee satisfaction, dean, faculty, adjunct faculty, online education, online adjunct, non-tenure, higher education, higher education administrator, academic leadership, and university.

This chapter begins with a discussion of the background of the study. The chapter continues with a discussion of the survey literature and background of the study. The theoretical foundations of the Full Range Leadership theory (FRLT), which includes transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors, Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene theory, and Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs are discussed. The theoretical foundations section continues with an overview of leadership and prominent leadership theories. The literature review examines the FRLT and its components of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership. The chapter continues with a thorough investigation of job satisfaction, Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene theory, and Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. The chapter concludes with an examination of online education, adjunct faculty, a review of current research on leadership and job satisfaction, and a review of the methodology and instruments associated with the study.

Background of the Problem. The purpose of this quantitative, non-experimental correlational research was to discover the predictive relationship between the perceived transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors of higher education administrators and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty who reported to them at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States. For-profit universities are rapidly expanding in the United States (Gilpin et al., 2015) and have experienced exponential growth in the 2000s due to the affordability of online education, the abundance of federal student loans, and the desire of more individuals to pursue a post-secondary education (Cellini & Chaudhary, 2012). For-profit school enrollment has more than tripled since

2000, with almost 1.6 million students enrolled in 2014 (National Center for Education Statistics, 2016).

Despite the abundance of research investigating the effect of leadership on the job satisfaction of followers, comparatively few of these studies explored universities (Alonderiene & Majauskaite, 2016). Moreover, there is a lack of any research in the for-profit sector (Chung, 2012), and a specific need for research investigating the impact of full-range leadership behaviors on faculty job satisfaction in for-profit schools (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014). There is also a lack of research on the development, efficacy (Datray et al., 2014) and job satisfaction of adjunct faculty, and specifically online adjuncts (Rich, 2015). There is a lack of research in the for-profit sector of higher education and on adjunct faculty who teach online classes. Specifically, there is a need for the investigation of how Full-range leadership behaviors predict the job satisfaction of faculty in for-profit universities (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014) and what factors affect the job satisfaction of adjunct faculty who teach online classes (Rich, 2015). The lack of research is significant because the faculty of a university is a key resource and a significant contributor to the objectives of the organization (Machado-Taylor et al., 2016).

For-profit higher education is not a new phenomenon. Proprietary schools, or career colleges, served local labor markets more than 100 years ago by offering classes in applied subjects (Deming, Goldin, & Katz, 2013). The enrollment of for-profit universities and colleges was fewer than 100,000 students 40 years ago (Wilson, 2010). Currently, multiple for-profit schools boast more than 100,000 students (Kinser, 2015) and the total enrollment of students in the for-profit sector exceeds 1.5 million (National Center for Education Statistics, 2016). Regardless of the success of the for-profit sector,

detractors claim some schools offer a subpar education, enroll individuals who are not qualified for college, and leave students laden with debt (Deming et al., 2013). Despite the controversy concerning some schools in the for-profit sector, the growth potential for for-profit education is strong, especially in the areas of distance learning, adult education, and career education (Levy, 2015). The growth in the for-profit sector has encouraged a variety of changes in higher education.

Higher education has changed dramatically over the past few decades. Enrollment in for-profit higher education has grown at a rate of 9% per year over the past 30 years. In comparison, schools in the public and private sectors have only posted a 1.5% increase per year (Wilson, 2010). Online learning, long known as a dimension of the for-profit sector, has grown into prominence in public and private universities. For-profit universities typically have fewer tenured faculty than traditional institutions (Gilpin et al., 2015). Administrators in traditional universities are taking a lesson from their for-profit counterparts by reaching out to adult learners, creating online programs, and reducing costs by abandoning tenure and hiring adjunct instructors by the class (Wilson, 2010). The changing landscape in higher education, and the exponential growth in the for-profit sector and the use of adjunct faculty, emphasizes the importance of examining the role and needs of online adjunct faculty.

Adjunct faculty are non-permanent, non-tenured, part-time employees who colleges pay by the course or on a yearly appointment. Adjuncts usually do not receive retirement benefits, health insurance, regular raises, or adequate advancement opportunities. Adjunct faculty have a limited, if any, voice in the governance of the university, and colleges hire adjuncts at a substantial cost savings because administrators

compensate adjunct faculty at approximately one-third the rate of full-time faculty (Halcrow & Olson, 2008; Morton, 2012). Despite the increased use of adjunct faculty in institutions of higher education (Gilpin et al., 2015), there has been limited research on adjunct development, efficacy (Datray et al., 2014) or job satisfaction (Rich, 2015).

Leaders in post-secondary education should inspire their faculty to accomplish results that benefit the school and students (Diegel, 2013). Administrators traditionally are responsible for the hiring of staff or faculty, guiding academic program changes, fundraising, budget planning, enhancing student retention supporting faculty productivity, policy development, implementing instructor professional development, and setting strategic priorities (Jones, Harvey, & Lefoe, 2014; Rand & Light, 2014). Academic leaders are also often responsible for an academic staff and a support staff, which accomplishes the clerical or professional aspects of the organization (Samad, Reaburn, Davis, & Ahmed, 2015). They must be able to manage the relationships they inherit, and establish and nurture new relationships with the faculty and other stakeholders. Academic administrators must be motivational, visionary, and supportive of their online adjunct faculty, who directly support and interact with a growing amount of students (Benton & Li, 2015). Many experts consider academic administrators crucial to the effectiveness of institutions of higher education (Jones & Holdaway, 1996).

Academic leadership is a demanding and complex role that often leads to increased levels of stress, burnout, and high turnover rates (Murphy, 2003; Chong & Monroe, 2013). Modern higher education leaders must be able to operate within a volatile, complex, uncertain, and ambiguous environment (Hempsall, 2014). Higher education administrators cannot solely focus on academic excellence, which promotes the

public well-being. Instead, they must perform their work in a manner that acknowledges commercial influences and pressures, which include enrollment numbers and stakeholder concerns (Samad et al., 2015). Jones and Holdaway (1996) remarked on the difficulties they encountered while trying to accomplish the entrepreneurial, political, and administrative duties of their positions in higher education. Increased economic demands have forced many academic communities to employ hierarchical, command and control, leadership styles and policies focused on achieving a profit in the marketplace (Sharrock, 2012). Moreover, leaders in different levels of the university may employ different leadership practices than the university leadership, which makes it difficult to define a specific best practice for leadership behavior (Holt et al., 2013).

Despite the wide array of responsibilities, many administrators and deans are former faculty who assume the position with little business or management training (Thrasher, 2017), prior executive experience, leadership training, or an implicit understanding of their role. For example, in 2013 only 3.3% of department chairs in public and private universities say they received any type of ongoing leadership development (Gmelch, 2015). This lack of administrative leadership development is important given that Chi, Lan, and Dorjgotov (2012) observed organizations could foster organizational effectiveness by examining the leadership abilities of their employees. Moreover, recent research has shown continued leadership development provides statistically significant increases in transformational leadership behaviors (MacKie, 2015). Similarly, Asaari, Dwivedi, Lawton, and Desa (2016) suggested public university administrators would benefit from leadership training in charisma, transformation, and change. This study has the potential to help for-profit universities design effective

leadership training that may increase the job satisfaction of adjunct faculty who teach online classes.

For-profit universities account for a substantial percentage of student enrollments. Additionally, the use of adjunct faculty has grown exponentially (Gilpin et al., 2015). Despite this growth, Rich (2015) observed a lack of research on the job satisfaction of adjunct faculty in post-secondary schools. This lack of research is important because academic administrators are responsible for the professional development of their faculty (Rand & Light, 2014), and understanding how online adjunct faculty perceive different leadership types might help universities formulate effective leadership training. Moreover, understanding the differences and similarities between tenured and adjunct faculty is important for academic administrators, who must manage and support both groups (Ott & Cisneros, 2015). There is also a need for research investigating the effects of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire administrative leadership behaviors on faculty job satisfaction in for-profit universities (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014). This lack of research is notable because, as Al-Smadi and Qbian (2015) observed, the satisfaction of a university's faculty is dependent on the type of institution in which they work. Additionally, the lack of leadership training provided to many administrators in higher education (Gmelch, 2015) emphasizes the need to understand how online adjunct faculty in for-profit universities perceive administrative leadership behaviors, and how these perceptions predict faculty job satisfaction.

Theoretical Foundations

The researcher conducted an investigation of the predictive relationship between the perceived leadership behaviors of higher education administrators and the job

satisfaction of online adjunct facility at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States, comprehensively examined literature on the topics of interest, and formed the themes and sub themes of this literature review. The major themes include the full-range leadership model, which is comprised of the transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors, and employee job satisfaction. Numerous subthemes comprehensively examine research related to the job satisfaction of employees. This section examines the theoretical foundations of this study. The research questions of the study guide the review of transformational and transactional leadership, as established by Burns (1978), and refined by Bass and Avolio (1994) to create the Full Range Leadership theory, and the satisfaction theories of Maslow (1943) and Herzberg (1987).

Answering the research questions of this study expanded on the work of Burns (1978) and Bass, and Avolio (1994). Current research primarily focuses on the private and non-profit sectors of higher education (Chung, 2012). Moreover, research on the effects of the FRLT in higher education have mostly ignored the for-profit sector and online adjunct faculty. The lack of research is significant because administrators in the for-profit sector encounter challenges not specific to public trust (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014). Likewise, adjunct faculty who teach online classes may have different perceptions of their work than their traditional counterparts (Rich, 2015). This research explored the effect of full range leadership in the unique environment of a for-profit university, with a population that is to date under-researched.

In an exploration of the research questions and the predictor variable of administrative leadership behaviors, the literature review addresses the topic of leadership. Burns (1978) proposed the seminal literature on transformational leadership.

The transformational construct prioritized the needs of others before the needs of the leader. Transformational leaders promote similar interests to create and foster relationships with their subordinates. The formulation of leader-member relationships align with purpose and values into a robust motivational environment. Transformational theory stresses the need for leaders to support and develop their followers into transformational leaders. By doing this, transformational leaders frequently develop others into leaders who adopt the same goals and values (Burns, 1978).

Although Burns (1978) defined the terms transformational and transactional leadership, Bass (1985) refined the work of Burns (1978) to make it applicable in organizations. Bass (1985) understood that leaders used different styles of leadership to motivate the workforce and obtain organizational goals, and proposed a six-factor model of full-range leadership. Further refinement by Bass and Avolio (1994) reinvigorated the work of Burns and Bass and resulted in the Full Range Leadership theory. Continued research on the subject further refined full range leadership to include the nine dimensions of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership (Avolio et al., 1999). These dimensions, which are currently used, are attributed idealized influence, behavioral idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, contingent reward, active management by exception, passive management by exception, and laissez-fair behaviors (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Avolio and Bass (2004) maintained these dimensions account for most of the behaviors exhibited by leaders.

Each dimension of full-range leadership accounts for a different type of behavior. The first five are transformational dimensions. Idealized influence engenders loyalty,

respect, and trust in followers. Behavioral idealized influence entails a leader who exhibits high moral standards and integrity, which inspire loyalty and trust in followers (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Intellectual stimulation stimulates followers cerebrally and may inspire creativity and innovation (Bass, 1985). Intellectually stimulating leaders inspire followers to attempt new ways to solve problems without ever criticizing when there is a disagreement (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Leaders demonstrate individualized consideration by addressing the needs of their followers, and giving them personal attention (Bass, 1985). Inspirational motivation encourages followers by appealing to emotions, the use of symbols or images, and developing and communicating appropriate expectations (Bass & Avolio, 1994). These five dimensions compose transformational leadership.

The remaining dimensions are transactional and laissez-faire behaviors. The transactional aspect of contingent reward is a recompense offered for successfully accomplishing an agreed upon duty, or punishment for failure or inadequate performance. The transactional aspect of management-by-exception is composed of two categories. Active management-by-exception involves the leader actively monitoring employee work and taking corrective action when needed. Passive management-by-exception differs in that the leader takes action after work becomes unsatisfactory (Bass, 1997). Lastly, laissez-faire is the lack of any type of leadership (Avolio & Bass, 2004). When measured by the MLQ (5X), these dimensions address most leadership behaviors.

Previous research confirms the full-range leadership attributes of transformational and transactional leadership behaviors positively relate to increased employee job satisfaction (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Marn, 2012; Masum et al., 2015; Menon, 2014). A transformational leader encourages followers to accept the mission and vision of the

organization by using idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Bass & Riggio, 2006), and has proven to positively affect employee job satisfaction in the public sector of higher education (Amin et al., 2013). The transactional dimension of contingent rewards serves to motivate instructors in the public and private sectors of higher education (Masum et al., 2015; Mustapha, 2013), while laissez-fair leadership, though largely ineffective, may be beneficial to organizations in certain environments (Skogstad et al., 2014). Although prior research exists on leadership and job satisfaction in the public and private sectors of post-graduate education, Bateh & Heyliger (2014) remarked on the need for similar studies in the for-profit sector of higher education. Similarly, Chung (2012) remarked on the lack of research in for-profit universities. The use of the Full Range Leadership theory (FRLT) in prior research on the correlation between leadership and faculty job satisfaction affirms the alignment of this theory with the research questions of this study.

In a further examination of the research questions and the criterion variable of the job satisfaction of adjunct faculty who teach online classes at a for-profit university, the literature review examined the foundational theories for job satisfaction. Locke (1976) observed content theories attempt to define the specific needs an individual must have fulfilled to be satisfied with their job. Two such theories, Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene theory (Herzberg et al., 1959) and Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs theory (Maslow, 1943) served as the theoretical foundations for job satisfaction. Herzberg observed that certain factors promote satisfaction and non-satisfaction. Motivators, or the intrinsic factors that promote job satisfaction if present, include achievement, growth, recognition, the work itself, and responsibility. Hygiene factors, or the extrinsic factors that cause

dissatisfaction if absent, are status, security, salary, supervision, personal life, organizational policy, working conditions, and relationship with peers (Herzberg et al., 1959). The absence of satisfiers does not necessarily promote job dissatisfaction. Likewise, the presence of hygiene factors does not necessarily promote satisfaction; instead, the presence of hygiene factors may decrease dissatisfaction. Satisfaction and dissatisfaction are two interconnected, but different concepts. Management must address hygiene and motivation factors to promote satisfaction, but motivation factors are more important to promote satisfaction in employees (Herzberg, 1987). Motivation factors are similar to the higher order needs that Maslow (1943) established in the Hierarchy of Needs theory (Herzberg et al., 1959).

Maslow (1943) stated an individual must fulfill certain needs to experience satisfaction. Maslow prioritized the needs from lower order, or extrinsic needs, to higher order intrinsic needs. Maslow (1943) observed that once an individual fulfilled a lower order need, they would then need to satisfy the next higher order need to experience satisfaction. In other words, once an individual satisfied the basic needs of food, drink, air, warmth, shelter, sleep and sex, the individual would then require the next higher order needs of stability, law, order, freedom from fear, protection from the elements, and security to be satisfied. Once these needs were satisfied, the next higher order needs would need to be fulfilled to experience satisfaction. Maslow (1943) and Herzberg (1987) both observed that intrinsic and extrinsic needs are important aspects of satisfaction.

There is some research in the public and private sectors of higher education, but researchers have performed few studies in for-profit universities (Chung, 2012). Bateh and Heyliger (2014) confirmed the need for research on the relationship between a

leader's full-range leadership behaviors and faculty job satisfaction in for-profit higher education. Faculty job satisfaction in institutions of higher education is essential for the university to achieve educational effectiveness and efficiency (Al-Smadi & Qbian, 2015). Despite this, there is a significant lack of research on the job satisfaction of adjunct faculty. Specifically, there is a lack of research concerning the job satisfaction of adjunct faculty who teach online classes (Rich, 2015), which reinforces the need to understand leadership behaviors that predict the job satisfaction of adjunct faculty who teach online classes at a for-profit university. Answering the research questions associated with this study added to the body of knowledge on the Full Range Leadership theory and the factors that promote satisfaction in a subset of employees that is under-researched.

The Full Range Leadership theory is one of the best-formulated theories of leadership (Moynihan, Pandey, & Wright, 2012). The transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors that compose this theory encompass most of the behaviors exhibited by leaders (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The satisfaction theories of Maslow (1943) and Herzberg (1987) address the intrinsic and extrinsic factors that affect an individual's satisfaction. The exploration of these theories emphasized the significance of answering the research questions of this study to discover what, if any, perceived administrative leadership behaviors of first-line leaders predict the overall job satisfaction of adjunct faculty who teach online classes at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States. The theoretical foundations portion continues with a review of leadership and leadership theory, and demonstrates how leadership theory has evolved, and how the theories overlap.

Leadership. Of all the social influence practices in behavioral science, leadership is one of the most meticulously researched (Parris & Peachey, 2013). Landis et al. (2014) professed leadership is vital to the success of any organization, while Bass (1990) stressed the importance of great leaders in the advance of enlightened societies. Girma (2016) observed that by using effective leadership, managers could promote maximum efficiency by instilling a sense of unity and mutual objective in the workforce. Research has discovered leadership style is a significant predictor of employee job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention (Aydin, Sarier, & Uysal, 2013; Ertureten, Cemalcilar, & Aycan, 2013; Krueger et al., 2017; Lee, Miller, Kippenbrock, Rosen, & Emory, 2017; Tetteh & Brenyah, 2016; Tse, Huang, & Lam, 2013). Current research also suggests supervisor leadership and support positively mediates the linkage between person-organization fit, job stress, and job satisfaction (Chen, Sparrow, & Cooper, 2016; Ewen et al., 2013). Despite the importance of leadership, and the fact that leadership research has dramatically increased over the past decade (Dinh et al., 2014), researchers have had difficulty coming to a consensus on a definition (Bass, 2000). The reason for the difficulty could be that the concept of leadership has evolved because of changes in globalization, demographics, work practices, and technology (Alonderiene & Majauskaite, 2016). Despite the difficulty in finding a universal definition, researchers and academics have found numerous ways to describe leadership.

Belias and Koustelios (2014) asserted leadership is, in general terms, an everyday interaction between a superior and subordinate. Northouse (2013) stated leadership is a method used by an individual that stimulates a group or individual to attain mutual goals. Northouse (2013) observed legitimate power is no longer a viable method of persuading

followers to obey orders. Instead, leaders take an interest in their followers or awaken interest in their subordinates. Leadership is a strategy that leads, inspires, enriches, and motivates subordinates (Fry, 2003), and influences the behaviors, beliefs, emotions, and attitudes of followers (George et al., 2002). Burns (1978) defined leadership as a reciprocal process of realizing goals held by leaders and followers. Bass (2000) argued the pointlessness of searching for a single, all encompassing, definition of leadership because the definition is dependent on the specific interests of the individual. Instead of searching for a comprehensive definition, this review presents an overview of some of the most prominent theories associated with leadership to demonstrate how leadership theory has evolved, and how the Full Range Leadership theory compares to, and overlaps with, previous and contemporary thought.

Great Man theory. Perhaps the oldest theory of leadership is the Great Man theory. The Great Man theory assumes there is an inherent capacity for leadership, and celebrated leaders are born with the aptitude to lead (Maloş, 2012). Fashionable in the 19th century, Galton's *Hereditary Genius*, published in 1849, established the belief that leadership is a quality and ability of exceptional people (McCleskey, 2014). Over the centuries, most cultures and civilizations looked to heroes to justify their failures and explain their triumphs (Khan, Nawaz, & Khan, 2016). Academics and historians used the Great Man theory to explain exceptional leaders such as Abraham Lincoln, Alexander the Great, and Julius Caesar, which furthered the perception that all remarkable leaders, especially military leaders, were men, and these men were born with the characteristics required to be a leader (Maloş, 2012). An individual had to come from a specific lineage to lead and no amount of instruction or desire could change an individual's role

(Germain, 2012). Today, some individuals may say certain leaders have the appropriate personality or qualities for leadership (Maloş, 2012), which implies a certain natural-born leadership ability. The Great Man theory, with its emphasis on the characteristics and traits that an individual was born with, gradually gave way to Trait theory.

Trait theory. Trait theory was prominent in the first half of the 20th century, with the search for effective leadership traits and the testing of trait theory being foremost in leadership research (Colbert, Judge, Choi, & Wang, 2012). Trait theory does not profess, or attempt to determine if, an individual is born with or develops traits required to lead. Instead, trait theory examines the traits great leaders exhibit (Khan et al., 2016). Stogdill (1948) attempted to synthesize the literature on leadership traits and performed a frequency count of 128 trait studies that produced an extensive list of characteristics that may relate to exceptional leadership. Another study allowed Stogdill to conclude there were 26 frequently detected traits. He grouped these into the categories of leadership skills, leader relationship with groups, and the leader's personal characteristics (Kerr, Schriesheim, Murphey, & Stogdill, 1974). Regardless of these studies, Stogdill became skeptical about the validity of trait theory (Colbert et al., 2012). Empirical studies were inconclusive and researchers were unable to produce an irrefutable list of traits (Northouse, 2013). Due to this lack of evidence, leadership research began focusing on leader behaviors (Khan, 2015), although researchers continue to examine the role of personality traits in effective leaders (Germain, 2012).

Situational leadership. Hersey and Blanchard (1996) defined situational leadership as the relationship between leadership style and a subordinate's maturity level. Situational Leadership Theory (SLT) arose from a task- versus relation-oriented style of

leadership. Task-orientated leadership is concerned with the leader's actions in response how well a follower can perform job tasks. Similar to transactional leaders (Bass, 1985), task-oriented leaders give clear instructions, define specific follower roles, make organizational patterns, and create formal channels of communication. This style of leadership contrasts with relation-oriented leaders, who show interest in their followers, ease emotional turmoil, and pursue amicable relationships (Hersey & Blanchard, 1996). SLT is both relations- and task-orientated, as it is concerned with behaviors and tasks (McCleskey, 2014), and is often referred to as a contingency theory (Luo & Liu, 2014).

Researchers have visualized situational leadership as a four quadrant square. The quadrants align with the followers' readiness and the leader's behavior. The first quadrant is the directing style of leadership that is high task and low relationship. In this case, the leader provides explicit direction and closely monitors the subordinate's work. The second quadrant uses a coaching style of leadership, and is high task and high relationship. In this stage of readiness, the leader assumes a coaching role and seeks suggestions and ideas from their followers. The third quadrant is a participating style of leadership that has a low task and high relationship aspect. In this quadrant, the leader provides more support for their follower than direction. Lastly, the fourth quadrant uses an empowering style of leadership, which has a low task and relationship aspect. The leader provides little supervision or support, and only becomes involved in problem solving or decision-making situations (Hersey & Blanchard, 1996). Some academics refer to these quadrants as telling, selling, participating, and delegating (Cirstea & Constantinescu, 2012).

Just as Hersey and Blanchard (1996) divided the leadership style and relationships by quadrant, so are the stages of follower readiness. Quadrant one denotes an enthusiastic beginner, two the disillusioned learner, three the capable but cautious contributor, and quadrant four is the self-reliant achiever (Lynch, 2015). The goal of SLT is to match the leadership style with the readiness of the follower in order to encourage the follower to progress to the point where they become confident and self-directed. For this to occur, the leader must correctly align their style of leadership with employee readiness (Northouse, 2013), and switch leadership styles when appropriate (Cirstea & Constantinescu, 2012). Research has shown situational leadership has a positive relationship with many positive organizational outcomes such as organizational citizenship behavior (Luo & Liu, 2014), helping employees return to work after a prolonged absence (Schreuder et al., 2013), and employee productivity (Pasaribu, 2015). Situational leadership is still widely practiced in modern organizations (McCleskey, 2014; Pasaribu, 2015).

Leader-member exchange. Leader-member exchange (LMX) was developed from a role theory and social exchange theory approximately 40 years ago (Jha & Jha, 2013). LMX, unlike most other leadership theories, does not address the specific traits or characteristics of an effective leader (Power, 2013). Instead, LMX denotes the overall quality of the leader-follower relationship that forms over time (Dulebohn, Bommer, Linden, Brouer, & Ferris, 2012), and is generally referred to as an employee-supervisor dyad (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). LMX relationships can be high- or low-quality.

Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) stated trust, obligation, mutual liking, respect and reciprocal influence between followers and leaders characterize high-quality LMX relationships. Leaders in high-quality LMX relationships show support to their

subordinates in a manner that exceeds what is generally expected. Followers, in a high-quality relationship, are more responsible and autonomous in their work efforts (Zacher, Pearce, Rooney, & McKenna, 2014). This is dissimilar to low-quality LMX relationships. In low-quality LMX relationships, supervisors provide only the support and information needed for the subordinate to perform their job, and subordinates only perform their specific job tasks (Zacher et al., 2014). Research has shown high-quality LMX relationships show a positive correlation with increased follower engagement (Burch & Guarana, 2014), decreased turnover intention (Ahmed, Ismail, Amir, & Ramzan, 2013), and increased employee job satisfaction (Michael, 2012). In other research, Zacher et al. (2014) used LMX as their theoretical foundation to study the relationship quality of leaders and followers. The results of their study showed transformational leadership was effective in increasing the quality of relationships in the leader-follower dyad.

Servant leadership. Robert Greenleaf (1977) professed servant leadership "begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead" (p. 13). Servant leaders focus on empowering their followers, enhancing their followers' personal growth, and displaying a caring behavior based on ethical values (Doraiswamy, 2012). They display an internalized voluntary selflessness, and express their decisions behaviorally and voluntarily (Hackett & Wang, 2012). Servant leaders voluntarily act as a mentor, and commit to the professional growth of their subordinates (Van Wart, 2013). Parris and Peachey (2013) stated servant leadership might provide the ethical and leadership framework that is required to address many of the challenges of the new century. Despite its popularity, academics have had

difficulty identifying the primary characteristics of servant leadership (Focht & Ponton, 2015).

Greenleaf (1977) provided a broad definition of servant leadership. Since then, academics have sought to identify the main attributes of servant leadership. In a Delphi study, Focht and Ponton (2015) surveyed scholars in the field and identified 12 primary characteristics of servant leadership: caring, trust, listening, humility, valuing people, learning, unconditional love, collaboration, serving others before themselves, empowering, service, and integrity. The primary values and behaviors associated with servant leadership focus on helping others, and the idea that service comes before leadership (Greenleaf, 1977). Current studies found servant leadership displayed a positive effect on organizational performance (Choudhary, Akhtar, & Zaheer, 2013), commitment to a supervisor (Sokoll, 2014), employee job satisfaction (Alonderiene & Majauskaite, 2016; McNeff & Irving, 2017), employee self-efficacy, group identification (Chen, Zhu, & Zhou, 2015), and enhanced team performance (Song, Park, & Kang, 2015). Academics have compared servant leadership with transformational leadership because they share several characteristics (Choudhary et al., 2013), with results indicating the leadership styles overlap, but use different methods to influence subordinates (Van Dierendonck, Stam, Boersma, De Windt, & Alkema, 2014). Smith, Montango, and Kuzmenko (2004) indicated transformational leadership might be more effective in a changing environment, while servant leadership might be more effective in a stable environment.

Review of the Literature

This literature review begins with an overview of the FRLT, which incorporates transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors, and addresses how each relates to job satisfaction and other employee outcomes. This section also investigates the topic of job satisfaction, along with Herzberg's Two-Factor theory and Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. The review of literature continues with an examination of online education, adjunct faculty, and recent studies regarding leadership behaviors and job satisfaction. The chapter concludes with an investigation of the MLQ (5X), JSS, and methodology. The review examined the instruments and methodology and justified each as reliable methods to explore the effect of administrative leadership behaviors on the job satisfaction of adjunct faculty who taught online classes at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

Full Range Leadership theory. The Full Range Leadership theory (FRLT) is one of the most promising and best-formulated theories of leadership (Moynihan et al., 2012). The FRLT framework allows for an examination of the advantages and disadvantages of different leadership methods, such as the differences between hierarchal and shared leadership approaches, when examining leadership in higher education (Asmawi, Zakaria, & Wei, 2013). Bass (1985) stated leaders exhibit three kinds of leadership behaviors: transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire. Burns (1978) established the terms transactional and transformational leadership after his examination of the biographies of political leaders. Bass and Avolio (1994) refined the work of Burns and developed the FRLT in an attempt to identify leader behaviors that would work in the organizational context. Since the initial refinement by Bass and Avolio (1994), the FRLT

has undergone revisions in 1999 and 2004 to better recognize leadership attributes (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Unlike Burns (1978), Bass (1985) insisted leadership styles were not mutually exclusive, and leaders could use aspects of transformational and transactional leadership to be effective. Recent studies indicate a mixture of these styles is beneficial to faculty job satisfaction in public universities (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014).

Transformational leadership is a social process by which a leader motivates a follower by creating a climate of mutual trust (Chaimongkonrojna & Steane, 2015). Transformational leaders are risk takers who provide inspiration for innovation and change (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Conversely, transactional leadership relies on rewards and punishments to motivate subordinates (Westerlaken & Woods, 2013). Laissez-faire leadership refers to the lack of leadership, and indicates extremely inactive leadership behaviors (Rothfelder, Ottenbacher, & Harrington, 2012). Combined, the three dimensions of the FRLT address a variety of leadership behaviors.

The FRLT model consists of five transformational leadership dimensions, three transactional leadership components, and one laissez-faire, or passive-avoidant, leadership behavior. These include attributed idealized influence, behavioral idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, contingent reward, active management by exception, passive management by exception, and laissez-faire leadership (Avolio & Bass, 2004). A benefit of the FRLT is that unlike some leadership theories, it allows for the identification of possible positive and negative impacts on followers, and may be effective for examining the different styles of leadership, and its effect, in higher education (Samad et al., 2015). The most popular

instrument to investigate the FRLT is the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire 5x short (MLQ (5X)) (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Menon, 2014).

Transformational Leadership. Burns (1978) introduced the concept of transformational leaders from a political perspective. Bass (1985) made critical revisions to the work of Burns (1978) to make transformational leadership theory applicable to organizations. Since the refinements offered by Bass (1985) and Avolio and Bass (2004), the transformational leadership theory has undergone extensive meta-analytic and theoretical reviews (Banks et al., 2016; van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013), as well as thorough methodological and theoretical critique (van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013).

Transformational leadership denotes how leaders strive to meet the higher-order needs of their subordinates (Banks et al., 2016). Transformational leaders understand the needs of their employees, and go beyond satisfying their basic needs to arouse and satisfy their followers' higher order needs (Burns, 1978). Transformational leadership is effective in organizations experiencing change, and is positively associated with employee empowerment (Choi, Goh, Adam, & Tan, 2016), improving the effectiveness of the organization, increasing employee satisfaction (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985; Menon, 2014), enhancing employee performance (Atmojo, 2012), promoting work engagement (Gözükara & Şimşek, 2015), and encouraging a safe work environment (Hoffmeister et al., 2014).

Transformational leadership inspires and motivates followers to achieve their higher potential, creates an environment in which followers feel welcome and content with their leadership (Burns, 1978), and is based on trust, acknowledgement, encouragement, and commendation (Mujkić, Šehić, Rahimić, & Jusić, 2014).

Examination of leadership literature revealed transformational leadership encourages followers to develop their full potential and progress to become leaders themselves, as well as exhibit a higher degree of organizational commitment (Bass, 1985). A transformational leader strives to meet their own potential, eagerly satisfies the needs of their subordinates, and empowers their charges to facilitate the development of their fullest potential (Northouse, 2013). The transformational leader is successful when their charges begin to cease focusing on personal gain, and concentrate on the organization's mission and future goals (Veiseh, Mohammadi, Pirzadian, & Sharafi, 2014).

Training, development, and continuing education can influence leaders to use transformational leadership behaviors (Avolio et al., 1999; MacKie, 2015; Mason, Griffin, & Parker, 2014). Management should conduct training programs early in the careers of supervisors and managers to facilitate the ability to use transformational behaviors. The topics of training include idealized influence, individual consideration, intellectual stimulation, and inspirational leadership (Avolio et al., 1999). Training such as this supports the development of intellectual and emotional relationships between leader and follower.

Transformational leadership is effective in higher education (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014), and has been shown to increase job satisfaction (Alonderiene & Majauskaite, 2016; Hijazi et al., 2016; Sadeghi & Pihie, 2013; Sakiru et al., 2014; Saleem, 2015) and employee performance in faculty (Thamrin, 2012). Bass (1999) remarked on transformational leadership's effectiveness in post-secondary education, and observed significant differences from previous styles of leadership. Unlike other styles of leadership, the transformational leadership model addresses the followers needs,

empowers followers, and increases follower satisfaction, efficiency, and effort. Northouse (2013) stated transformational leaders adhere to higher moral and ethical standards while communicating a clear mission and vision. The development of the leader's charges, relationship building, leadership by example, the development of a shared culture foster an environment of trust, and respect for the leader by the workforce (Avolio et al., 1999).

Substantial leadership research shows transformational leaders promote higher overall follower job satisfaction (Aydin et al., 2013; Banks et al., 2016; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Ding, Li, Zhang, Sheng, & Wang, 2017; Hijazi et al., 2016; Hobman, Jackson, Jimmieson, & Martin, 2012; Muterera, Hemsworth, Baregheh, & Garcia-Rivera, 2015; Omar & Hussin, 2013; Shurbagi, 2014; Viswanathan & Lal, 2016), task performance (Braun, Peus, Weisweiler, & Frey, 2013), innovation (Mohamed, 2016), organizational commitment (Asaari et al., 2016; Aydin et al., 2013; Dai, Dai, Chen, & Wu, 2013), team output effectiveness (Choi, Kim, & Kang, 2017), and leadership effectiveness (Banks et al., 2016; Nguyen, Mia, Winata, & Chong, 2017). Dussault and Frenette (2015) posited transformational leaders could create an environment that makes workplace bullying less frequent. Caillier and Sa (2017) professed transformational leadership increases the extent employees felt they could disclose wrongdoing in the organization without facing retaliation. Hu et al. (2016) suggest transformational leaders fostered positive team behaviors. Similarly, current research has linked aspects of transformational leadership with increased innovativeness in younger workers (Uusi-Kakuri, Brandt, & Kultalahti, 2016). These positive results emphasize the benefits of transformational leadership.

Transformational leadership, as originally proposed, is composed of four different, but interrelated, components that are often signified as the four I's: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Northouse, 2013). Research has found each component of transformational leadership displays a positive relationship to idea promotion, work commitment, idea implementation, and idea generation in educational institutions (Abbas, Iqbal, Waheed, & Naveed Riaz, 2012). Research conducted by Hobman et al. (2012) suggests the four I's can be distinguished empirically, as well as theoretically.

Idealized influence. Idealized influence is associated with how subordinates perceive the leader in terms of power, trust, charisma, confidence, ideals, and consistency (Omar & Hussin, 2013). Idealized influence includes the consideration of the needs of others before the personal needs of the self, the demonstration of high moral and ethical standards, not seeking personal gain from power, and the setting of meaningful and challenging goals for their charges (Northouse, 2013). These leaders become a focus of respect, imitation, and illicit admiration amongst their followers (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Avolio and Bass (2004) divided idealized influence into two types: attributed idealized influence and behavioral idealized influenced. According to Avolio and Bass (2004), the change was required because individuals can view idealized influence as a behavior and as an impact on the leader/follower phenomenon. Attributed idealized influence refers to how employees perceive a leader. Leaders instill pride, self-respect, and self-interest in others by using idealized influence. Behavioral idealized influence refers to how a leader acts. Leaders display strong values and beliefs, a sense of purpose, and uses ethical decision-making (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Jung and Avolio (2000)

suggested idealized influence might be the result of a leader's values, morals, ethics, beliefs, and behavior. Bass and Avolio (1994) stated the leader's conviction to moral and ethical conduct makes followers want to emulate and identify with them. Perey (2015) found idealized influence was a significant predictor of job satisfaction of faculty in community colleges in Arizona. Similarly, Tetteh and Brenyah (2016) observed that although idealized influence had no significant effect on extrinsic job satisfaction, it had a significant positive relationship with the intrinsic job satisfaction of telecommunications workers in Ghana.

Inspirational motivation. Inspirational motivation, which is sometimes referred to as inspirational leadership, entails motivating and inspiring followers by exhibiting optimism and enthusiasm, using effective communication of high expectations, the demonstration of leadership commitment to the goals of the organization, and involving subordinates in the vision of the future of the organization (Northouse, 2013). Leaders convey an encouraging vision of the future by the use of inspirational communication. Communicating a motivating and inspirational vision of the organization's future is the paramount aspect of inspirational motivation (Avolio et al., 1999), and as a result motivates followers to be committed to, and share in, the vision of the organization (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Bass (1985) originally identified charisma as idealized influence, but researchers have proposed that the combination of inspirational motivation and idealized influence may represent the leader's charisma (Rothfelder et al., 2012).

Bass (1985) admitted several inspirational motivation components are relational in that frequent interactions with followers will either increase or diminish leader/follower relationships in the workplace. This idea of good or bad work

relationships is similar to the high- and low-quality relationships that Zacher et al. (2014) observed in LMX. Leaders foster positive relationships by creating an atmosphere of trust. When employees trust their leaders, they may stay with an organization longer, even during a crisis.

Research has confirmed a leader's use of inspirational motivation has a positive effect on individual outcomes. Khalifa and Avoubi (2015) found inspirational motivation had a significant positive relationship with organizational learning in Syrian public and private universities. Marn (2012) stated inspirational motivation encourages followers to achieve greater goals in higher education. A quantitative study by Khattak, Shah, and Said (2014) used 282 participants and the MLQ (5X) as the survey instrument in an examination of organizational change. They found followers trust leaders who use inspirational motivation, and that inspirational motivation encourages adaptability, facilitates change management, and leads followers to outperform expectations. The leader's use of inspirational motivation increases follower loyalty, performance (Ha & Nguyen, 2014), intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction (Tetteh & Brenyah, 2016), and career salience (Riaz, Ramzan, Hafiz, Muhammad, & Karim, 2012). The research of Sadeghi and Pihie (2013) found inspirational motivation was the prominent type of leadership behavior displayed in the post-secondary institutions investigated. Given the changing environment of higher education, the use of inspirational motivation might allow leaders to use sophisticated and innovative methods to motivate their followers.

Individualized consideration. Balyer (2012) stated individualized consideration is a leadership behavior that makes their subordinates feel special. Bass (1985) stressed a leader's developmental orientation and an individual attention to their followers as

fundamental aspects of individualized consideration. Transformational leaders act as a mentor and coach in order to develop their charges to their fullest potential (Northouse, 2013). Bass and Avolio (1994) emphasized the caring and nurturing aspect of individualized consideration, as well as the importance of supporting followers' personal development. Individualized consideration involves mentoring, coaching, effective listening, encouragement, having frequent interactions with followers, and offering social and emotional support (Northouse, 2013).

Individualized consideration positively relates to various employee and organizational outcomes. Parr, Hunter, and Ligon (2013) found the transformational aspect of individualized consideration, which is associated with reduced levels of anxiety, was positively associated with the organizational commitment of autistic employees. Leaders who display high ratings in individualized consideration are concerned with the individual needs of their charges and to the development of each employee's individual potential (Bass, 1985). Asencio (2016) used multiple regressions to discover individualized consideration accounted for a substantial amount of variance towards the job satisfaction of United States federal employees. Qualitative research performed by Snell, Yi, and Chak (2013) on workers in Hong Kong found a link between low levels of individualized consideration by leadership and decreased overall job satisfaction. Perey (2015) in his research in two-year colleges in Arizona, found individualized consideration was a significant predictor of increased job satisfaction. Similarly, Ha and Nguyen (2014) found individualized consideration to be the most important aspect of transformational leadership to encourage individual job performance.

Intellectual stimulation. Intellectual stimulation encourages followers to be creative and innovative, and to strive for exceptional performance that is beyond expectations (Northouse, 2013). A leader who uses intellectual stimulation never criticizes their follower's ideas when they differ from their own. Instead, the leader encourages followers to solve interesting problems by providing challenging assignments (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Bass, 1990). Anjali and Anand (2015) stated intellectual stimulation may be viewed as a problem solving outlook that encourages new ways of thinking and completing jobs. Intellectual stimulation encourages problem solving and critical thinking in followers, and enhances the cogitative development of the leader's charges. Intellectual stimulation encourages innovation and problem solving (Marn, 2012). Avolio et al. (1999) stated intellectual stimulation encourages critical and independent thinking among followers. The presence of intellectual stimulation increases employee contentment to the organization, contentment to their job (Anjali & Anand, 2015), intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction (Tetteh & Brenyah, 2016), willingness to share knowledge, and organizational innovation (Ji & Utami, 2013).

Criticism. Despite the abundance of literature that confirms the positive effects of transformational leadership, there are critics. Recent research has suggested followers may have an overreliance on their transformational leader (Zhu, Newman, Miao, & Hooke, 2013). Anderson and Sun (2015) posited that individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation might negatively mediate "the relationship between leader encouragement and follower networking" (p. 799). Research performed by van Knippenberg and Sitkin (2013) suggested the field of transformational leadership theory suffered from significant measurement and theoretical weaknesses. They argue that a

clear definition of transformational is not present. Furthermore, they suggest neither Bass nor Burns described how they selected the dimensions of transformational leadership and how these dimensions combine to form transformational leadership. Lastly, they declared the measurement instruments for transformational leadership fail to achieve a distinct differentiation from other forms of leadership. Despite these criticisms, for the past several decades researchers continue to associate transformational leadership with positive organizational outcomes (Afshari & Gibson, 2016).

Transactional Leadership. James MacGregor Burns (1978) initially developed the theory of transactional leadership, which he based on Max Weber's work. A transactional leader understands the needs of their followers and organization, and then communicates to their employees what they must accomplish to meet each of these needs. Transactional leadership seeks to motivate followers by using promises, praises, and rewards to fulfill follower self-interest and realize organizational goals (Burns, 1978). The basis of transactional leadership is an exchange, or agreement, with followers that denotes what an individual will receive for acceptable performance, as well as punishments for unsatisfactory performance (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Leaders strictly define all job duties, benefits, and codes of discipline, and the basis of transactional leadership is everything has a price (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Burns (1978) observed transactional leadership is often the first leader/follower interaction.

Avolio and Bass (2004) divided transactional leadership into three categories: contingent reward, active management-by-exception, and passive management-by-exception. Contingent reward ensues when one party, or individual, proposes a contract for the exchange of currency or items of value (Burns, 1978) and indicates an exchange

between leader and follower. Self-interest is the basis of contingent reward, and any contracts are typically short-term. An individual is motivated by the agreed upon price for their work, and active management-by-exception is often practiced by leaders within the transactional organization (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Leaders who practice contingent reward set clear goals and expectations for their followers and communicate a clear understanding of organizational expectations and rewards for completing satisfactory work. Rewards can take the form of praise, bonuses, commendations, or pay increases (Bass, 1997). Research has shown contingent reward positively effects organizational learning (Khalifa & Avoubi, 2015) and faculty job satisfaction in higher education (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Mustapha, 2013; Omar & Hussin, 2013).

Active management-by-exception involves active monitoring of employee work by management, and taking corrective action before work deteriorates or there is a compromise in the interests of the organization. Management actively monitors employee performance and takes action when there is a violation of rules or substandard performance is detected (Bass, 1997). Passive management-by-exception, as defined by Bass (1997), differs from the active form because leadership only takes corrective action after a follower's work becomes unsatisfactory or a problem occurs. Passive management-by exception generally consists of criticism, negative feedback, punishment, or correction issued by a superior, and is also known as negative reinforcement or corrective transactions (Northouse, 2013). Avolio and Bass (2004), in their refinement of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire 5x short (MLQ (5x)), removed passive management by exception from transactional leadership and added it as a laissez-faire behavior for the purpose of measuring leadership behaviors in organizations.

Transactional leadership has provided mixed results in organizations. Aydin et al. (2013) stated transactional leadership had a positive effect on the job satisfaction of teachers, but not as much as transformational leadership, while Sakiru et al. (2014) suggested elements of transactional leadership positively related to faculty job satisfaction in Nigerian higher education. Conversely, Saleem (2015) found transactional leadership displayed a negative relationship with the job satisfaction of university instructors in Pakistan. The use of transactional leadership showed positive correlations with employee motivation in the banking sector of Pakistan (Chaudhry & Javed, 2012). Similarly, the use of transactional leadership has shown positive correlations with faculty job satisfaction in United States institutions of higher education (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014). Conversely, transactional leadership exhibited a weak negative and statistically insignificant influence on intrinsic ($\beta = -0.12$, $p < 0.01$), extrinsic ($\beta = -0.09$, $p < 0.01$), and overall job satisfaction ($\beta = -0.12$, $p < 0.01$) of the faculty in public universities in Pakistan (Amin et al., 2013). Hijazi et al. (2016), in their study of universities in the United Arab Emirates discovered transactional leadership had a significant negative relationship with job satisfaction. Tetteh and Brenyah (2016) found the transactional aspects of contingent reward and passive management-by-exception positively related to extrinsic job satisfaction, but all aspects of transactional leadership displayed an insignificant relationship with intrinsic job satisfaction. The contradictory findings on the effect of transactional leadership on job satisfaction is apparent in recent research.

Afshari and Gibson (2016) observed that for the last several decades, researchers have primarily paid attention to transformational leadership's association with positive outcomes while viewing less inspiring forms of leadership, like transactional leadership,

as lacking in the ability to motivate the workforce. Recently, research has linked transactional leadership to positive outcomes including employee's proactive behavior, discretionary behavior, and organizational commitment (Breevaart et al., 2014; Chiaburu, Wang, & Zimmerman, 2014; Dai et al., 2013; Jackson, Meyer, & Wang, 2013). Dussault and Frenette (2015) found transactional leaders might create an environment that makes workplace bullying less frequent. Other research has discovered only minimal differences in the effect of transactional and transformational leadership behaviors on employee outcomes (Chiaburu et al., 2014). Although transactional leadership has proven to have advantages in some organizations, followers might obey their leader because of rewards for compliance, and not because they are committed to their job (Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016). Dai et al. (2013) discovered that although transformational and transactional leadership behaviors both positively related to employee organizational commitment, they affected it for different reasons. The researchers discovered that transformational leadership positively mediated organizational commitment through trust and distributive justice, while transactional behaviors induced organizational commitment through only distributive justice. Inconsistencies in the results of previous studies raise questions and indicate a need for further research.

Laissez-Faire leadership. Laissez-faire leadership, which is in principle non-leadership, contrasts with transactional and transformational leadership because it represents extreme inactive behavior on the part of leadership to the extent of a lack of all leadership. Laissez-faire, which is a French phrase that means "hands off", in a managerial context indicates the avoidance and absence of leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Laissez-faire leadership differs from passive management-by-exception because

even when a correction is required, the leader takes no action, offers no assistance, and does not provide feedback that could help followers attain their full potential (Northouse, 2013).

Managers who use laissez-faire leadership typically shun responsibility and authority, and completely avoid, or delay, taking action. Laissez-faire supervisors are inattentive, indifferent, inactive, uninfluential, and absent when their presence is required. They do not give feedback to their charges and do not attempt to develop their followers (Bass, 1990). Laissez-faire leaders allow actions to happen, and hold followers accountable when decisions are made (Chaudhry & Javed, 2012). Generally, laissez-faire leadership behaviors have proven ineffective in organizations.

Laissez-faire leadership, although infrequently observed in entire organizations (Bass, 1990), is still exhibited by some managers (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014). Laissez-faire leadership is generally ineffective in promoting job satisfaction and is often associated with negative, or negligible, effects (Amin et al., 2013; Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Dussault & Frenette, 2015; Masum et al., 2015). Laissez-faire leadership has displayed a significantly negative correlation with affective and normative organizational commitment (Garg & Ramjee, 2013). Dussault and Frenette (2015) found laissez-faire leadership might cause conflict within the organization that can result in workplace bullying. Chaudhry and Javed (2012) discovered laissez-faire leadership was ineffective in instilling motivation in followers because of management non-involvement. Similarly, in an investigation of 304 individuals in Vietnamese software organizations, researchers found laissez-faire leadership had the greatest influence on individual job performance; however, the influence was negative (Ha & Nguyen, 2014).

Despite the abundance of empirical studies indicating the negative effects of laissez-faire leadership, or at best its ineffectuality (Amin et al., 2013; Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Dussault & Frenette, 2015; Ha & Nguyen, 2014; Masum et al., 2015), Yang (2015) argues the definition and measurement of laissez-faire leadership leads to the negative outcomes and views. Yang (2015) contends that under certain circumstances, subordinates may appreciate the lack of leadership and ability to manage their own work. Empirical research suggests laissez-faire leadership may foster a climate in which innovation can occur (Ryan & Tipu, 2013; Zhang & Zhou, 2014). There is also empirical research that implies extreme leadership involvement has adverse effects in the workplace (Pierce & Aguinis, 2013). Ultimately, leadership effectiveness depends on follower perceptions, and subordinates may perceive laissez-faire leadership as a respect of boundaries instead of an absence of leadership (Yang, 2015).

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is a complex term to define because there is general disagreement on what job satisfaction is, and what aspects it includes (Moradi, Almutairi, Idrus, & Emami, 2013). Job satisfaction may be viewed as a complex combination of one's values, emotions, and evaluation of task performance associated with a job (Chamberlain, Hoben, Squires, & Estabrooks, 2016). Locke (1976) described job satisfaction as an heightened state of emotions that come from enjoying one's job. Job satisfaction, as described by Ul Islam and Ali (2013), is an outcome of how an employee views related job aspects such as organizational policies, job security, supervision, form of work, and work environment, and is a result of how well a job satisfies an employee's needs. Bholane and Suryawanshi (2015) viewed job satisfaction as a collection of emotions, favorable and unfavorable, from which employees view their

job. Spector (1985) posited job satisfaction is how much an individual likes, is satisfied, or dislikes, is dissatisfied, with their job. Bota (2013) described job satisfaction as the amount of pleasure an employee finds in the various facets of their job. Generally, job satisfaction is a combination of work environment, job characteristics, and personal attitudes and traits, but these elements are dynamic and may change depending on environmental factors such as a change in supervision, co-workers, or organizational structure (Moradi et al., 2013).

Several factors affect an individual's job satisfaction. The internal environment of an organization, which includes leadership types, organizational climate, and personnel relationships, influences the job satisfaction of employees (Seashore & Taber, 1975; Yang, 2016). Motivation is an important aspect of job satisfaction, and can be defined "as the individual's internal process that stimulates, guides and maintains the conduct of the individual in order to meet his needs and help him attain some specific objectives" (ul Islam & Ali, 2013, p. 88). Morale is an important part of motivation and affects an individual's job satisfaction, satisfaction with their manager, and satisfaction with the organization (ul Islam & Ali, 2013). Shurbagi (2014) found organizational commitment displayed a positive relationship with job satisfaction. Khan, Shahid, Nawab, and Wali (2013) suggested six fundamental elements promote job satisfaction. These elements include achievement, employee recognition, advancement possibilities, growth opportunities, extent of responsibility, and the nature of the work. Bota (2013) stated a suitable workplace and good leader relations foster higher job satisfaction. Perceived corporate social responsibility has also displayed a significant positive relationship with job satisfaction (Asrar-ul-Hag, Kuchinke, & Iqbal, 2017). Lin and Tseng (2013) found

psychological empowerment positively related to the job satisfaction of campus security executives in private Taiwanese universities. Along with these, there are additional intrinsic and extrinsic elements that contribute to employee perceptions of job satisfaction (Spector, 1985). Maslow and Herzberg address intrinsic and extrinsic factors in their seminal works on motivation and satisfaction.

Job satisfaction in higher education. The job satisfaction of the faculty is one of the foremost factors that contributes to institutional dynamics and is a primary aspect that indicates the effectiveness of a university's employees (Pan et al., 2015). Administrators should monitor faculty job satisfaction because of the great effect job satisfaction has on organizational outcomes (Al-Smadi & Qbian, 2015). Amzat and Idris (2012) found university leadership behavior is a mediator of the job satisfaction of faculty, and any managerial behavior has a significant impact on faculty job satisfaction. Ghanaian researchers discovered an instructor's commitment to their university and commitment to teaching predicted higher levels of job satisfaction (Amos et al., 2015). In Europe, the intrinsic factors of job level and career are predictors of high levels of job satisfaction in faculty, while issues related to the job itself produced high job satisfaction in the United States (Amzat & Idris, 2012). Moradi et al. (2013) found significant positive correlations between a learning organization culture and job satisfaction in university faculty in Malaysia. Bholane and Suryawanshi (2015), in their cross-sectional research of university faculty in India, discovered age, education level, and total years teaching significantly related to job satisfaction.

The significance of job satisfaction's relationship to organizational performance is apparent. Elevated levels of job satisfaction in employees encourage organizational

commitment, occupational commitment, university commitment, enriched relationship with peers (Amos et al., 2015), improved efficiency, diminished turnover, and a higher quality of service (Syed & Yan, 2012). Minimal employee job satisfaction levels promote high explicit and implicit costs to an organization (Bockerman & Ilmakunnas, 2012), which include increased direct costs in administrative expenses, hiring costs, advertising, and the indirect cost of faculty training (Caruth & Caruth, 2013). Saleem (2015) stressed that leadership has a strong effect on the positive or negative employee perceptions of their jobs. Chong and Monroe (2013) stated a major factor that leads to job turnover is the lack of job satisfaction, and factors that affect job satisfaction are long hours, role ambiguity, stress, and work/life balance. Despite the significance of job satisfaction to organizations, there remains much to learn on the topic.

Studies performed to discover the effect of leadership behaviors on job satisfaction underrepresent post-secondary education (Alonderiene & Majauskaite, 2016) and there is little research concerning the job satisfaction of adjunct faculty (Rich, 2015). Samad (2016) observed that there is not a clear understanding of how administrative leadership style and faculty job satisfaction interact in higher education. Currently, the majority of research in the field of job satisfaction has primarily investigated service organizations, profit based organizations, and non-profit businesses, although there is an increasing interest in faculty satisfaction in higher education (Mustapha, 2013). The job satisfaction of employees is of paramount concern because the future of an organization depends on satisfied employees (Syed & Yan, 2012), and one of the factors that contributes to employee job satisfaction is the leader's supervisory style (Bayram & Dinç, 2015; Omar & Hussin, 2013). There are several relevant theories that researchers

have applied to satisfaction, but research conducted on employee job satisfaction predominantly focuses on Maslow's (1943) and Herzberg et al. (1959) theories (ul Islam & Ali, 2013). Locke (1976) stated content theories, such as Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs theory and Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene theory, try to define the specific needs that the job must fulfill for an individual to have job satisfaction.

Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene theory. Fredrick Herzberg, a renowned researcher in motivational theory, investigated the job factors that encouraged satisfaction in the workplace, and the effects of job satisfaction on employee performance (Herzberg et al., 1959). Herzberg et al. (1959), in their research study of 203 middle management employees, determined jobs had specific factors related to job dissatisfaction or job satisfaction. Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory, also known as the two-factor or dual-factor theory, identified and examined the motivation and hygiene elements that increased or decreased employee satisfaction (Derby-Davis, 2014). Herzberg postulated that when employees had negative feelings about their jobs, they would actively search for new employment, schedule interviews, and ultimately resign from their position in favor of a new job. Conversely, individuals who had positive attitudes regarding their jobs would refuse attractive job offers from other organizations (Herzberg et al., 1959). Even though Herzberg's theory originated in 1959, it is still relevant to workers in modern work environments (Derby-Davis, 2014).

Herzberg et al. (1959) stated dissatisfaction and satisfaction are completely different issues, although they are related. Herzberg stated there are two types of factors that influence motivation and satisfaction: motivators and hygiene factors. Satisfiers, or motivation factors, are the intrinsic factors of the job that increase satisfaction, or

motivation, if delivered, but do not necessarily promote dissatisfaction if absent. Motivation factors consist of responsibility, achievement, recognition, growth, the work itself, and recognition (Herzberg et al., 1959). Intrinsic motivators promote long-term job satisfaction, while extrinsic hygiene factors reduce job satisfaction if absent (Nadim, Muhammad, Masood, & Riaz, 2012). Hygiene factors include job factors that include relationship with peers, salary, relationships with superiors, supervision, personal life, relationship with subordinates, status, security, organizational policy and administration, and working conditions (Herzberg et al., 1959). Herzberg's theory stated an employer could not improve an employee's job satisfaction by only addressing any of the hygiene factors. Instead, leadership must focus on raising the levels of the six motivational (intrinsic) factors (Herzberg et al., 1959).

According to the Motivation-Hygiene theory, an employee may not be satisfied with specific factors associated with their job, but that does not necessarily indicate they have job dissatisfaction. "The opposite of job satisfaction is not job dissatisfaction, but rather, no job satisfaction; and similarly, the opposite of job dissatisfaction is not job satisfaction, but no job dissatisfaction" (Herzberg, 1987, p. 9). In this statement, Herzberg reinforces the idea that even though satisfaction and dissatisfaction are related, they are also different. Waltman, Bergom, Hollenshead, Miller, and August (2012), in their research on non-tenure-track faculty in southern universities, found support for the stance that job dissatisfaction and job satisfaction are different variables.

Ahmad and Abdurahman (2015), in their research of academic staff at universities in Malaysia, used the Motivation-Hygiene theory as the theoretical foundation of their research. They discovered the four factors that most significantly affected the job

satisfaction of instructors were the nature of staff relationships, type of work, career development, and salary. Even though the faculty only exhibited a moderate degree of job satisfaction, they were satisfied with their job conditions and working environment (Ahmad & Abdurahman, 2015). Rich (2015), who used the Motivation-Hygiene theory as the theoretical foundation of his examination of factors that led to the job satisfaction of adjunct faculty in the Southeastern United States, discovered the intrinsic factors of recognition, faculty engagement, and creativity positively influenced workplace satisfaction. Herzberg (1987) suggested leadership must address hygiene and motivators in order to create a positive environment, but acknowledges that motivator effects last longer than hygiene effects. Herzberg et al. (1959) suggested there is a relationship between the Motivation-Hygiene theory and Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs theory in that motivators, or the positive attributes of a job, satisfy an individual's higher order growth needs.

Herzberg's theory is not without its critics. Malik and Naeem (2013) observed that despite researchers testing the Motivation-Hygiene theory across different methods, occupations, samples, and cultures, there has been no consensus on the validity of the theory. Wiley (1997) suggested that the two-factor theory disregarded individual differences and neglected to take into account that motivational factors may change over time. Ruthankoon and Ogunlana (2003), in their investigation of 125 construction foremen and engineers in Bangkok, found status, personal life, interpersonal relations, the work itself, and recognition proved to be determinants of satisfaction and dissatisfaction, which is contrary to Herzberg's theory. Herzberg (1987) countered arguments such as this by stating motivators and hygiene factors can both lead to positive feelings, but

individuals will not experience long-term satisfaction from only hygiene factors. In support of Herzberg, Hilmi, Ali, and Nihal (2016), in their research in eight high schools in Turkey, found motivator and hygiene factors contributed to satisfaction, but hygiene factors produced greater satisfaction, and satisfaction was most dependent on hygiene factors. Despite the lack of consensus, research conducted on job satisfaction primarily focuses on the theories of Herzberg and Maslow (ul Islam & Ali, 2013).

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. Maslow (1943) believed factors unrelated to unconscious desires or rewards motivate individuals. Maslow (1943) stated individuals are motivated to fulfill certain needs. When an individual satisfies one need, they then seek to satisfy the next order need. This continues until an individual fulfills the final need of self-actualization. Maslow (1943) stated:

> It is quite true that man lives by bread alone -- when there is no bread. But what happens to man's desires when there is plenty of bread and when his belly is chronically filled?
>
> At once other (and 'higher') needs emerge and these, rather than physiological hungers, dominate the organism. And when these in turn are satisfied, again new (and still 'higher') needs emerge and so on. This is what we mean by saying that the basic human needs are organized into a hierarchy of relative prepotency. (p. 375)

Maslow arranged these needs into a hierarchy, which are typically displayed as a five-tier pyramid, with the basic, lower level, needs on the bottom, and self-actualization, a higher level need, at the top of the pyramid.

Maslow (1943) posited the lowest level needs, which are at the bottom of the pyramid, are the physiological and biological needs of food, drink, air, warmth, sex, shelter, and sleep. The next highest are safety needs, which are comprised of security, law, order, stability, elimination of fear, and shelter from the environment. Love and the sense of belonging needs, the next higher order, are friendship, love, family, friends, romance, intimacy, friendship, and work group relations. Esteem needs, the fourth tier of the pyramid, are composed of mastery, achievement, status, independence, prestige, self-respect, respect from others, and dominance. The apex of the pyramid is comprised of the self-actualization needs of self-fulfillment, accomplishing an individual's personal potential, ultimate experiences, and personal development. The higher needs of Maslow's pyramid align with Herzberg's intrinsic motivators, while the lower level needs are the extrinsic hygiene factors (Herzberg et al., 1959).

Maslow (1943) stated that as an individual has a lower level need met, that need no longer satisfies an individual, who must then seek satisfaction from the next higher order of needs. For example, once an individual satisfies the basic needs of food, shelter, drink, and sleep, they require the safety needs of security, order, law, and stability in order to be satisfied. When an individual acquires these safety needs, the next higher order of needs are required to satisfy the individual. Sun, Gergen, Avila, & Green (2016) placed the levels into a workplace context. They stated that biological and physiological needs are water and heat in the workplace. Safety may consist of a sense of job security. An individual may satisfy the needs of love and belongingness by obtaining a good fit within an organization. Esteem translates into a sense of empowerment, and an individual realizes self-actualization by achieving their personal potential in the workplace.

Maslow later modified the five-tier model to recognize cognitive, aesthetic, and transcendence needs (Maslow, 1970). Maslow added the cognitive needs of knowledge and meaning, and the aesthetic needs of balance, form, appreciation, and exploration for beauty. Transcendence needs, which include aiding other individuals to achieve self-actualization, surpasses self-actualization needs at the top of the pyramid, as the highest order need, in the modified theory (Maslow, 1970). Despite the addition of additional tiers to Maslow's model, the original model is most recognizable.

Regardless of the appeal of Maslow's research, which proponents have used in many commercial and academic organizations, empirical research has not generally validated the theory (Thielke et al., 2012). Taormina and Gao (2013) sought to test Maslow's theory. The authors devised definition-based scales, based on Maslow's five-tier model, to measure satisfaction needs. After testing the scales for validity and reliability, the authors conducted research on a sample of 386 respondents from China. Multiple regressions revealed significant positive correlations among the scales, which displayed that the more an individual satisfied a lower order need, the more the next higher-level need was satisfied. Moreover, regression analysis showed that the satisfaction of a lower order need predicted the satisfaction of the need directly above it on Maslow's model, which conforms to Maslow's theory. Despite the lack of consensus, researchers have referenced Maslow's theory in over 150 peer-reviewed articles since 2010, and it continues to be a theoretical foundation of many job satisfaction studies (Sun et al., 2016).

Online education. Online education came into prominence due to the increased availability of the Internet, the rise of for-profit education, and a global economy that

requires increasing numbers of employees to obtain advanced degrees (Callaway, 2012). Additionally, budgets in many states forced traditional state institutions to mirror their for-profit counterparts to use online education as a method to cut costs (Bonvillian & Singer, 2013). Online education continues to expand, and there is little doubt it will, one day, account for the majority of course offerings in higher education (Nash, 2015). The attractiveness of online education could be because students like the increased flexibility online classes offer (Callaway, 2012), and are able to avoid the expense of commuting, conflicting schedules, and the demands placed on working students (Croxton, 2014; Kauffman, 2015; Olsen, 2015; Varela, Cater, & Michel, 2012).

According to a survey completed by the Babson Survey Research Group, the majority of chief academic leaders, 63% , profess online learning is a critical aspect to their long-term strategy (Allen & Seaman, 2016). Currently, 28% of post-secondary students in the United States take at least one online course. Online enrollment in 2014 totaled 5.8 million students, with 2.85 million students exclusively studying online and 2.97 million selecting some online courses in addition to traditional instruction. These numbers accounted for a 3.9% increase in online students from 2013 to 2014 (Allen & Seaman, 2016). Additionally, more than one-third of faculty members have developed or taught at least one online course. Despite the growth of online education, 70% of faculty members rated their organization's support for online instruction to be average or below (Herman, 2012).

Adjunct faculty. An adjunct is an individual attached to an institution of higher learning, but who is not truly a part of the organization. They are part-time, non-permanent, and non-tenured employees, or independent contractors, of a university or

college. Institutions of higher education usually pay adjunct faculty by the course, and sometimes on a yearly appointment. Adjuncts are a group of individuals who generally fall in to four groups: specialists employed by other organizations, individuals who work more than one part-time job, individuals at their end of their careers who want to stay active in their profession during retirement, and instructors seeking a full-time faculty position (Bradley, 2013). Eagan, Jaeger, and Grantham (2015) observed that over the past several decades the workforce in post-secondary schools has shifted from full-time tenured, or tenure-track, faculty to a workforce composed mainly of non-tenure-track, contingent, faculty. As of 2011, adjunct faculty comprised 50% of the total faculty of all United States degree-granting institutions of higher learning (Caruth & Caruth, 2013), and the use of adjuncts continues to rise (Gilpin et al., 2015).

The increase in online higher education offerings (Allen & Seaman, 2016) coincides with the increase of the number of courses facilitated by adjunct faculty (Starcher & Mandernach, 2016). Given the economic concerns associated with maintaining faculty, the use of online adjuncts is likely to continue growing (Dailey-Hebert et al., 2014; Eagan, et al., 2015). Adjunct faculty offer a flexibility that is required for online programs. Geographic location does not limit the amount of students who are interested in a particular class or program. Administrators can hire adjunct faculty to reflect actual classroom enrollments, and since location does not limit administrators when hiring adjunct facility, it is arguably desirable for administrators to have a pool of online adjunct faculty available to teach, as enrollment numbers demand (Starcher & Mandernach, 2016).

Adjuncts are important in higher education, and the employment of adjunct faculty at universities and colleges has steadily increased over the past decade (Gilpin et al., 2015; Liftig, 2014). Kezar (2012) stated that up to 75% of all new faculty hires are non-tenure track individuals. This increase coincides with the rise in student enrollment in online courses (Allen & Seaman, 2016). Offering the amount of classes needed to meet demand has stretched workloads beyond the capability of tenured, or tenure track, full-time faculty (Caruth & Caruth, 2013). Despite their importance, university administrations typically do not provide adequate support to adjunct faculty (Kezar, 2013a), although the working conditions and policies that affect non-tenure track faculty vary by discipline and institution (Kezar, 2012).

Typically, adjuncts seldom receive raises, and their prospects for advancement are inadequate. Retirement benefits and health insurance are typically not available for adjunct faculty, and they usually do not have a voice in the governance of the university. Higher education institutions hire adjuncts at a substantial cost savings because administrators compensate adjunct faculty at approximately one-third the rate of full-time faculty (Halcrow & Olson, 2008; Kezar, 2013b; Morton, 2012). Despite the increased use of adjunct faculty, the academic community does not support adjuncts the way they do full-time faculty, and adjuncts typically experience a disconnection from full-time faculty (Dailey-Hebert et al., 2014; Ott & Cisneros, 2015; Webb, Wong, & Hubbal, 2013), their institution, and department (Benton & Li, 2015). This is especially true for online adjunct faculty (Benton & Li, 2015), who generally rely on other adjuncts for support (Rich, 2015).

Because of these experiences, Benton and Li (2015) stated department chairs must formulate strategies to increase online adjunct job satisfaction, facilitate their professional growth, and increase their sense of being a part of the organization. Administrators must nurture and support adjunct faculty in order to maximize their effectiveness in the classroom (Banasik & Dean, 2015). Regardless of the financial benefits adjunct faculty provide, they often do not receive administrative support, have no guarantee of continued employment (Kezar, 2013a, 2013b), and often suffer from cultures and policies that do not take the needs of non-tenured faculty into account (Kezar, 2012, 2013a). Despite the use of adjunct faculty increasing in post-secondary education (Gilpin et al., 2015), researchers have performed few studies on adjunct development, efficacy (Datray et al., 2014) or job satisfaction (Rich, 2015).

In the limited studies available, researchers found different factors that led to adjunct faculty dissatisfaction. Hoyt (2012) discovered adjunct faculty were not satisfied with their working environments, autonomy, pay, contract, and institutional communication, which are factors that may result in faculty turnover. Waltman et al. (2012) observed adjuncts perceived they had few opportunities for advancement or development. Additionally, adjuncts perceived a lack of respect from their full-time counterparts and departmental leadership, resulting in a general perception that their colleagues devalued and ignored them. Eagan et al. (2015) discovered adjuncts in a four-year college were dissatisfied with relationships with their colleagues and administrators, which are higher-order needs. This resulted in the lower-order needs of working conditions becoming more important to the adjuncts surveyed.

In another investigation of the job satisfaction of adjunct faculty, Rich (2015) used a qualitative method in an attempt to discover what factors influence the job satisfaction of adjunct faculty. Rich (2015) used a sample of 27 adjunct faculty who taught at technical and community colleges in the southeastern United States. Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory was the theoretical foundation in this investigation of the intrinsic and extrinsic factors influencing job satisfaction. Rich (2015) used interviews as his data collection method and inductive analysis to discover three main factors that influenced job satisfaction.

The first motivational factor was the ability to make an impact on a student's emotional, professional, social, and academic growth. Secondly, a sense of academic freedom as adjuncts decided how to lead the instruction of their classes. Lastly, verbal praise received from college administrators and other faculty for performing their duties. Rich (2015) observed that all three of the major influences on job satisfaction were intrinsic motivators, according to Herzberg's theory. Rich (2015) acknowledged limitations in his work. He suggested investigating adjuncts who teach online, or at different types of post-secondary schools. Further, Rich (2015) found the adjuncts in the study did not rely on their superiors to change leadership styles to provide acknowledgement for their work, instead they attributed their job satisfaction to the support received from other adjuncts, the opportunity to provide a quality teaching experience to their students, resource sharing, and academic freedom (Rich, 2015). Couch (2014) found similar results in his quantitative study, but revealed extrinsic variables that significantly affected job satisfaction and loyalty.

Couch (2014) performed quantitative causal-comparative research to investigate the impact of three intrinsic and six extrinsic variables on the satisfaction and loyalty of 388 adjunct faculty who taught at seven Christian colleges in the Midwestern and Southeastern United States. Couch (2014) collected data with the Adjunct Faculty Survey instrument. A correlation analysis displayed a strong positive correlation between overall job satisfaction and adjunct loyalty ($r = 0.776$, $p < 0.001$). Couch (2014) performed two stepwise regression analyses to identify predictors of adjunct faculty loyalty and job satisfaction.

Regression analysis predicted job satisfaction comprised 61% of the variance. Couch (2014) identified six significant predictors of job satisfaction: compensation, recognition, work preference, student quality, teaching schedule, and the support of faculty. Loyalty comprised 54% of the variance. The regression analysis detected five predictors of loyalty: preference for work, quality of students, recognition, compensation, and teaching schedule. Couch (2014) concluded that the amount of variance in loyalty and job satisfaction accounted for by intrinsic and extrinsic variables indicated an overall satisfying work environment in the Christian post-secondary schools examined.

Couch (2014) recommended topics for future research include a qualitative or quantitative study to examine the influence of leadership behaviors, or styles, on adjunct job attitudes. Further, Couch (2014) observed that adjuncts teaching in an online environment might have different needs and desires than adjuncts teaching in a traditional environment. Rich (2015) and Couch (2014) noted the need for research investigating the job satisfaction of online adjuncts, which emphasizes the need for an investigation of the

perceived effects of administrative leadership on online adjunct faculty job satisfaction in for-profit universities.

Adjunct faculty are becoming a mainstay in U.S. universities and colleges. Understanding the factors that affect their work outcomes of adjuncts is an important topic. Despite the importance of adjuncts, they are an overlooked population collectively in academia (Ott & Cisneros, 2015). Researchers have largely ignored the factors that lead to the job satisfaction of adjunct faculty (Rich, 2015). Moreover, Couch (2014) and Rich (2015) recognized online adjuncts might have different needs or work experiences than their campus-based counterparts. In recognition of these differences, Couch (2014) advocated an investigation of the effect of leadership behaviors on online adjunct job satisfaction. As online education continues to expand, administrators must increase efforts to develop and assess their online faculty (Piña & Bohn, 2014).

Leadership and job satisfaction in education. Researchers have primarily used public and private non-profit universities in prior research on faculty job satisfaction in higher education. Given the sparse research in for-profit universities (Chung, 2012), and lack of research concerning online adjunct faculty job satisfaction (Rich, 2015), most of the leadership/job satisfaction research investigated in this review will examine other types of faculty and schools. Research has shown administrative leadership can positively affect the job satisfaction of adjunct faculty (Derby-Davis, 2014). Examination of these types of organizations may facilitate the understanding of how administrator leadership behaviors affect faculty job satisfaction in public and private institutions of higher education.

Amin et al. (2013) explored the relationship between the leadership behaviors of principals and the job satisfaction of faculty in a public university in Pakistan. They performed this study to examine the relationship, if any, between transformational, transactional, and laissez-fair leadership styles with the job satisfaction of faculty in public universities. The correlational research was analytic, and the researchers sampled 287 faculty members. Data analysis identified a substantial relationship between transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership and the faculty's' extrinsic, intrinsic, and overall job satisfaction. Leadership style more strongly related with extrinsic factors of job satisfaction than overall job satisfaction.

The researchers found intrinsic job satisfaction to be the least of the three forms of job satisfaction studied. Transformational leadership displayed a significant positive relationship with intrinsic ($\beta = 0.57$, $p < 0.01$), extrinsic ($\beta = 0.68$, $p < 0.01$), and overall job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.68$, $p < 0.01$). Laissez-faire leadership exhibited a weak positive and statistically insignificant relationship with intrinsic ($\beta = 0.09$, $p < 0.01$), extrinsic ($\beta = 0.08$, $p < 0.01$), and overall job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.10$). Transactional leadership produced a weak negative and statistically insignificant effect on intrinsic ($\beta = -0.12$, $p < 0.01$), extrinsic ($\beta = -0.09$, $p < 0.01$), and overall job satisfaction ($\beta = -0.12$, $p < 0.01$). Transformational leadership was the sole variable that predicted job satisfaction in this study, unlike that of Bateh and Heyliger (2014).

A research study performed by Bateh and Heyliger (2014) explored the effect of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership on the job satisfaction of full-time faculty members in a state university in Florida. The researchers used the MLQ (5X) to identify the administrative leader's perceived leadership behaviors and the JSS

measured the job satisfaction of the faculty. The researchers used a quantitative, correlational method. The population of the study included 567 full-time faculty members at one public university in Florida, of which 104 responded to the survey. The researchers used logistic regression analysis to discover transformational and transactional leadership positively related to faculty job satisfaction ($\beta = 4.11$, SE = 0.97, $p < .01$; $\beta = 2.55$, SE = 0.51, $p < 0.01$), while passive-avoidant leadership yielded decreased job satisfaction ($\beta = -2.310$, SE = 0.440, $p < 0.001$). Transformational leadership, in this study, had a stronger relationship with job satisfaction. The respondents' demographics did not have a predictive relationship with faculty job satisfaction. Transformational and transactional leadership behaviors produced positive effects, indicating a combination of leadership styles may promote optimal levels of faculty job satisfaction (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014).

Researchers have measured the individual dimensions of transformational leadership to determine their relationship with job satisfaction. Bayram and Dinç (2015) investigated the relationship between the dimensions of transformational leadership and the job satisfaction of employees at private universities in Bosnia and Herzegovina. A sample of 150 respondents answered an instrument consisting of the MLQ, an overall job satisfaction instrument, and a short demographic survey.

The researchers used a quantitative correlational design and regression analysis to examine the relationship between transformational leadership dimensions and job satisfaction (operating conditions and nature of work). The results showed attributed idealized influence ($\beta = 0.37$, $p < 0.01$), behavioral idealized influence ($\beta = 0.33$, $p < 0.01$), inspirational motivation ($\beta = 0.33$, $p < 0.01$), intellectual stimulation ($\beta = 0.28$, $p < 0.01$), and individualized consideration ($\beta = 0.33$, $p < 0.01$) displayed a significant and

positive relationship with the nature of work aspect of job satisfaction. The dimensions of attributed idealized influence ($\beta = 0.17$, $p < 0.01$), behavioral idealized influence ($\beta = 0.24$, $p < 0.01$), and inspirational motivation ($\beta = 0.24$, $p < 0.01$) displayed positive relationships with operating conditions job satisfaction, but intellectual stimulation ($\beta = 0.13$, $p > 0.01$) and individualized consideration ($\beta = 0.14$, $p < 0.01$) were not significant. The results of operation conditions could be the result of environment factors at the sampled universities. The strong significant relationship between the dimensions of transformational leadership on nature of work indicates satisfaction with the intrinsic motivator of the work itself.

Researchers performed the majority of studies on the impact of administrative leadership and faculty job satisfaction in secondary schools. Menon (2014) used the full range model of leadership as the theoretical foundation to investigate the connection between transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant leadership behaviors, teacher job satisfaction, and leader effectiveness in secondary schools in Cyprus. The researchers used the MLQ (5X) as the leadership measurement instrument to sample 438 secondary school teachers, and used a quantitative methodology to examine the relationship between leadership behavior and job satisfaction. The results of the study showed the transactional behavior of contingent reward, specifically paid vacations and salary, and transformational leadership were beneficial to teacher job satisfaction. This result is in agreement with the findings of Bateh and Heyliger (2014), who found similar results in public universities in Florida.

The results of these studies produced varying conclusions. Amin et al. (2013) discovered that while transformational elements displayed positive relationships with job

satisfaction, transactional and laissez-faire behaviors produced negative correlations. Bateh and Heyliger (2014), while agreeing with the negative effects of laissez-fair leadership, found transformational and transactional elements beneficial to the overall job satisfaction of faculty. The research of Bayram and Dinç (2015) confirmed the benefits of transformational dimensions on the job satisfaction of university faculty.

Leadership and job satisfaction. To be thorough, this review examines the relationship between leadership behaviors and the job satisfaction of employees in other types of organizations. Rothfelder et al. (2012) used correlation analysis, multiple regression analysis, and MANOVA to determine the effect of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors on the job satisfaction of employees' in the German hospitality industry. The researchers used the full-range leadership model as the theoretical foundation. The sample consisted of 116 hotel employees in German hotels. Data collection entailed the use of questionnaires and an online `survey. The authors measured leadership behavior with the MLQ (5X), which the authors regarded to be the benchmark measurement for transformational and transactional leadership testing, and job satisfaction by a researcher-created survey. Hierarchical regression showed transformational leadership had a positive and significant relationship with job satisfaction ($ß = 0.80$, $p < 0.001$). Transactional and non-leadership did not have a significant relationship. These results were similar to those of Atmojo (2012).

Atmojo (2012) investigated the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction in Indonesian organizations. He also investigated the relationships between transformational leadership and organizational commitment, job satisfaction on employee performance, transformational leadership and employee performance, and

organizational commitment and employee performance. The author sampled 146 middle managers in Indonesian organizations, and used qualitative and quantitative methods to address the research questions. The research findings indicated transformational leadership had a significant positive relationship with job satisfaction, and job satisfaction displayed a positive relationship with employee performance. These findings indicate increased job satisfaction provides benefits for the organization by enhancing employee performance.

Mujkić et al. (2014) found similar results in an exploration of the relationship between transformational, transactional, and charismatic leadership on employee job satisfaction in Bosnia and Herzegovina and Germany. The authors sampled 399 employees from 30 organizations in Bosnia and Herzegovina and Germany. The researchers employed a quantitative predictive correlational methodology using a modified version of the MLQ as the instrument and multiple regressions to investigate their research questions. The results of their study reinforced transformational leadership's positive relationship to job satisfaction. Further, the results indicated transformational leadership had a stronger positive relationship with job satisfaction than transactional or charismatic leadership, although transactional and charismatic leadership also displayed a positive relationship with job satisfaction. According to this research, the most common aspects of transformational leadership identified by respondents was intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration. This study displays the positive aspects of transformational leadership when compared to two different leadership styles.

Tetteh and Brenyah (2016) used a quantitative, correlational cross-sectional survey design to investigate the effects of transformational and transactional leadership

behaviors on the job satisfaction of telecommunications workers in Ghana. The sample consisted of 400 respondents from varying levels in multiple organizations. The researchers used a close-ended survey to measure perceptions of leadership and job satisfaction on a five-point Likert scale. Multiple regression analysis revealed three dimensions of transformational leadership, intellectual stimulation ($\beta = 0.20$; $p < 0.05$), individualized consideration ($\beta = 0.12$; $p < 0.05$), and inspirational motivation ($\beta = 0.11$; $p < 0.05$), positively correlated with extrinsic job satisfaction. The transactional elements of contingent rewards ($\beta = 0.19$; $p < 0.05$) and passive management by exception ($\beta = 0.20$; $p < 0.05$) also exhibited a positive relationship with extrinsic job satisfaction. An examination of intrinsic factors that lead to job satisfaction revealed the transformational facets of inspirational motivation ($\beta = .35$, $p < .0.01$), intellectual stimulation ($\beta = .12$, $p < .0.05$), and idealized influence ($\beta = .44$, $p < .0.05$) displayed a positive relationship with intrinsic job satisfaction. The research concluded that none of the aspects of transactional leadership had a significant relationship with intrinsic job satisfaction.

The results of this research are similar to the conclusion of Rothfelder's et al. (2012) research in the German hospitality sector, which found transactional leadership had no effect on job satisfaction. The study of Tetteh and Brenyah (2016), however, concluded two transactional elements positively related to extrinsic job satisfaction, which Herzberg et al. (1959) found to be insufficient in promoting long term satisfaction. Conversely, Mujkić et al. (2014) discovered transactional leadership had an overall positive relationship with job satisfaction, although it was less significant than transformational leadership. Each of these studies agreed with the findings of Atmojo

(2012), who found transformational leadership displayed a significant positive relationship with job satisfaction.

Methodology. A quantitative design is appropriate when investigating the relationship between two or more quantitatively expressed variables (Cozby & Bates, 2015). Quantitative research bases conclusions on the collection and analysis of numerical data and is often used by researchers to explore relationships between two or more variables (Parylo, 2012). Researchers use predictive correlational research to ascertain if a predictive relationship exists between multiple variables derived from the same population (Cozby & Bates, 2015). A quantitative predictive correlational methodology has been used by researchers to examine relationships between leadership behaviors and employee job satisfaction in various types of organizations (Aydin et al., 2013; Banks et al., 2016; Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Hobman et al., 2012; Omar & Hussin, 2013; Shurbagi, 2014), and was an appropriate methodology for this study.

The researcher found previous studies that explored the effect of leadership behaviors on subordinates have been predominantly of quantitative design. Further, a majority of studies that sought to discover the relationship between leadership behaviors and employee job satisfaction used predictive correlational analysis. Bateh and Heyliger (2014) used the MLQ (5X) and JSS as instruments in a quantitative predictive correlational design that used simple linear regression to determine transformational leadership was the best indicator of faculty job satisfaction in colleges in Florida. Kim, Magnusen, Andrew, and Stoll (2012), in their research concerning leadership and job satisfaction in the sports context, used a quantitative predictive correlational design involving 325 athletic department employees. Alonderiene and Majauskaite (2016) used

a quantitative design involving regression and predictive correlation analysis in their investigation of the effect of leadership behaviors on the job satisfaction of the faculty in Lithuanian public and private universities.

Mujkić et al. (2014) employed a quantitative predictive correlational methodology, using a modified MLQ as the instrument, and multiple regressions to investigate job satisfaction in Germany and Bosnia and Herzegovina. Atmojo (2012), in one of the few mixed-methods studies discovered, used SEM analysis in conjunction with qualitative methods to explore the influence of leadership on employee satisfaction, employee performance, and organizational commitment. Despite the differences, a majority of studies identified used quantitative predictive correlational methods to investigate the relationship between leadership behaviors and job satisfaction.

Instruments. A quantitative predictive correlational design is an appropriate method to examine the relationship between two or more continuous variables within the same environment. Researchers use quantitative or numerical data collected with survey instruments in order to test for relationship strength, generate descriptive statistics, or investigate the magnitude of impact (Cozby & Bates, 2015). The two instruments used in this study are the MLQ (5X) and the JSS. Both surveys use Likert-type scales, which allows the researcher to approximate interval measures and use inferential statistical methods for analysis.

The Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaire 5x short, MLQ (5X) is the most popular instrument to study transformational and transactional leadership (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Menon, 2014), and the FRLT (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The MLQ (5X), a validated instrument used to gather information on transactional, transformational, and

laissez-faire leadership behavior (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Hemsworth, Muterera, & Baregheh, 2013), assesses the nine facets of the FRLT using 36 questions measured on a five-point Likert-type scale (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Researchers have subjected the MLQ (5X) scales to extensive factor analysis. The scales demonstrated superb internal consistency with alpha coefficients in excess of 0.80 (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Researchers have used the MLQ (5x) instrument to measure transformational (Banks et al., 2016; Menon, 2014) and transactional leadership behaviors, and assess the dimensional factors of the FRLT (Menon, 2014). Additionally, the MLQ (5X) is used extensively to examine relationships between leadership behaviors and job satisfaction (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Khalifa & Avoubi, 2015; Lin & Tseng, 2013; Menon, 2014; Mujkić et al., 2014; Sakiru et al., 2014; Saleem, 2015; Shurbagi, 2014).

Researchers have used the MLQ (5X) instrument to investigate leadership behaviors in many recent studies. Shurbagi (2014), in their investigation of the relationship between transformational leadership, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction in Libyan petroleum organizations, used the MLQ (5X) to measure transformational behaviors in leadership. The researcher used a predictive correlational method with a sample of 227 employees. Multiple regression analysis reviled transformational leadership had a positive association with job satisfaction and organizational commitment. In this study, Shurbagi (2014) focused on specific leadership theories and not on their individual dimensions.

Another study on the effects of leadership, conducted by Khalifa and Avoubi (2015), used the MLQ (5X) as the instrument to measure leadership behaviors in Syrian higher education. The researchers used a sample of 216 employees in private and public

Syrian universities in a quantitative correlational study. Their results found the transformational aspect of inspirational motivation and the transactional aspect of contingent rewards had significant positive relationships with higher levels of organizational learning. In this study, the researchers not only identified the type of leadership that was effective, but also the individual dimensions of transformational and transactional leadership that were beneficial to the dependent variable of organizational learning. The MLQ (5X) is a versatile instrument that measures transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership, as well as the individual dimensions of these leadership styles (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Despite the versatility of the MLQ (5X) (Avolio & Bass, 2004), there are critics of the instrument. Van Knippenberg and Sitkin (2013) argued that transformational leadership instruments fail to measure a distinct differentiation from other types of leadership. Despite this criticism, the MLQ (5X) it the most popular instrument to measure transformational and transactional leadership behaviors (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Menon, 2014).

Spector's Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) is a 36-question instrument that measures employee perceptions about their job and facets of the job, as well as overall job satisfaction. Spector (1997) developed the JSS to measure the individual facets of promotion, pay, supervision, contingent rewards, fringe benefits, coworker relationships, operating procedures, communication, and the nature of the work. Each of these facets may lead to employee satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

The JSS is a Likert-type instrument that measures aspects of job satisfaction on a six-point scale, which the researcher can approximate to an interval measure. This allows

the researcher to use a quantitative methodology and use inferential statistical procedures for data analysis (Cozby & Bates, 2015). The JSS is one of the few job satisfaction instruments that meets the requirements for reliability and validity, demonstrating an excellent internal consistency of 0.91 (Van Saane et al., 2003), and has been used in recent research investigating the relationship of job satisfaction with another variable (Khan & Ahmed, 2013; Perey, 2015; Saleem, 2015; Shurbagi, 2014).

Researchers have used the JSS extensively to measure perceptions of job satisfaction. Khan and Ahmed (2013) used the JSS to measure the job satisfaction of librarians in public universities in Pakistan. The researchers used a quantitative design and online survey to collect data from a sample of 49 respondents. The results of the study indicated the respondents were slightly satisfied with their pay, benefits, chances for promotion, and benefits, with mean values of 3.86, 3.61, 3.61, and 3.61 respectively. Conversely, the respondents were slightly unsatisfied with the nature of their work, cognitive rewards, and supervision, with mean values of 3.47, 3.27, and 3.06. In this study, the researchers examined the individual facets of job satisfaction

Perey (2015) used the MLQ (5X) and JSS to examine the relationship between transformational leadership behaviors and staff and faculty job satisfaction at two-year colleges in Arizona. The researcher used a quantitative correlational methodology and stepwise multiple regression analysis. The results of the study indicated transformational leadership had a strong positive relationship with job satisfaction ($r = 0.73$, $p < 0.01$). The final regression for transformational leadership behaviors as predictors of faculty satisfaction comprised 58% of the variance. Further, the research indicated individualized consideration and idealized influence were significant predictors of job satisfaction.

Unlike Khan and Ahmed (2013), who investigated each dimension of job satisfaction, Perey (2015) used the JSS to measure overall job satisfaction of the faculty in institutions of higher education, which demonstrates the versatility of the instrument.

Summary

This chapter provided a review of scholarly and peer-reviewed literature concerning for-profit higher education, online higher education, online adjunct faculty, higher-education administration, leadership, the FRLT, and job satisfaction. Relatively few studies have investigated the effects of administrative leadership on the job satisfaction of faculty in higher education (Alonderiene & Majauskaite, 2016; Kalargyrou et al., 2012), and the for-profit sector in particular (Chung, 2012). Bateh and Heyliger (2014) observed a need for the investigation of the impact of leadership behaviors on faculty job satisfaction in for-profit universities. Moreover, insufficient research has investigated the development or work experiences of adjunct faculty (Datray et al., 2014; Rich, 2015). Given the importance of administrative leadership and faculty job satisfaction, this review provided an overview of relevant themes.

This review is composed of articles acquired through *EBSCO, ProQuest Midwest, Emerald, ERIC, Wiley, Sage Premier, ScienceDirect College Edition, and Google Scholar*. An analysis of the literature revealed enrollment in for-profit institutions of higher education has been growing steadily, and now exceeds 1.5 million students (National Center for Education Statistics, 2016). The rise in the for-profit sector has brought innovation and change to the entire higher education system. The prominence of online programs, adjunct faculty, and programs that address the needs of adult learners can trace their start to the for-profit sector (Wilson, 2010). The appeal of distance

learning, adult education, and career education make the growth potential strong for for-profit post-secondary institutions (Levy, 2015). Despite this, there is a significant lack of research in the for-profit sector of higher education (Chung, 2012).

Similar to the growth of the for-profit sector of higher education (National Center for Education Statistics, 2016), the use of adjunct faculty has increased (Gilpin et al., 2015). Despite the increased use of adjuncts, little research is available that investigates their development, experiences, or job satisfaction (Datray et al., 2014; Rich, 2015). Additionally, administrative leadership in higher education is undereducated in leadership skills (Gmelch, 2015), which prompts the need for an investigation of what leadership behaviors are beneficial to the job experiences of online adjunct faculty.

Although there are many definitions of leadership, Northouse (2013) found leadership was a process that an individual uses to influence a group to attain common goals. The review provided an overview of prominent leadership theories that included the Great Man theory, Trait theory, situational leadership, leader-member exchange, and servant leadership. Some leadership styles overlap (Van Dierendonck et al., 2014), which prompted the need for the overview of other leadership theories.

The FRLT encompasses behaviors from the transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership theories, and is one of the best-formulated theories of leadership (Moynihan et al., 2012). The FRLT allows researchers to explore the effect of different leadership models on a population, and is effective in the study of higher education (Asmawi et al., 2013). Research found aspects of transformational leadership positively correlate with faculty job satisfaction in the public sector, but similar research was absent in the for-profit sector (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014). Transactional leadership has shown

mixed results in promoting job satisfaction (Aydin et al., 2013; Saleem, 2015), while laissez-faire shows a negative correlation (Ha & Nguyen, 2014). While the researcher found substantial information concerning the effect of administrative leadership style of on the job satisfaction of faculty in the public and public sectors, similar research in the for-profit sector was lacking.

The literature review provided an examination of job satisfaction through the theories of Herzberg and Maslow. These theories are the two most used to address job satisfaction (Ul Islam & Ali, 2013), and attempt to define the specific needs that must be fulfilled for an individual to experience job satisfaction (Locke, 1976). The effect of leadership on job satisfaction was the purpose of this study. Bateh and Heyliger (2014), for example, used simple linear regression to discover transformational leadership were positively associated with faculty job satisfaction (β = 4.11, SE = 0.97, p <.001; β = 2.55, SE = 0.51, p < 0.01), while laissez-faire leadership produced decreased job satisfaction (β = -2.31, SE = 0.44, p < 0.01). The researchers also remarked on the need for a similar study in the for-profit sector of higher education. The results of this quantitative study demonstrates the relevance of the design.

This study used a quantitative non-experimental predictive correlational design to examine the relationship between transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire administrative leadership behaviors (independent variables) and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty (dependent variable). A quantitative correlational design is appropriate when investigating the relationship between two quantitatively expressed variables (Cozby & Bates, 2015), and is often used to examine the relationship between two or more variables (Parylo, 2012). The instruments for this study were the MLQ (5X)

and the JSS. Both instruments are valid, reliable, and widely used to investigate the variable involved (Avolio & Bass, 2004; (Van Saane et al., 2003). The discussion of methodology and instruments leads directly into Chapter 3.

This review of literature exposed a gap in extant research literature concerning the predictive relationship between administrative leadership behaviors and the job satisfaction of adjunct faculty who teach online classes at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States. Current researchers have primarily focused on the private and non-profit sectors of higher education, while omitting the for-profit sector (Chung, 2012). The lack of research in for-profit higher education is significant because factors affecting faculty job satisfaction are dependent on the type of university studied (Al-Smadi & Qbian, 2015). Research investigating the effect of administrative leadership behavior on faculty job satisfaction will add to the body of knowledge on the subject (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014). Additionally, research on the effects of the FRLT in higher education have mostly ignored the for-profit sector and online adjunct faculty. This research explored the effect of full range leadership in the unique environment of a for-profit university, with a under researched population of adjunct faculty who taught online classes at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

Chapter 3 addresses the research methods used in the study. The chapter includes the statement of the problem, research questions, hypotheses, methodology, research design, population and sample selection, instrumentation, validity, reliability, data collection and management, data analysis procedures, ethical considerations, and limitations and delimitations. Chapter 3 uses peer-reviewed sources in all sections to support the methodology.

Chapter 3: Methodology

Introduction

Chapter 3 is an examination of the research methodology. This chapter provides the justification for the quantitative method and correlational design used to examine the research problem that states: it is not known to what extent the transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors of higher education administrators, as perceived by online adjunct faculty, predict the overall job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty who report to them at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States. This study did not address all factors associated with job satisfaction. It did, however, use the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), a survey instrument for job satisfaction, which collects nine out of the possible 11 standard work factors (Van Saane et al., 2003). This study also used the Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire, MLQ (5X), which identified leadership variables that might influence or predict faculty job satisfaction. The results provided by this study might assist for-profit institution of higher learning devise leadership training that promotes the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty.

The researcher collected data for this study by use of an online survey. Survey data produces quantitative descriptions that pertain to some aspect of the population (Cozby & Bates, 2015) and is an example of ordinal data. Researchers define ordinal data as data that contains a clear ordering of responses but no interval scale between them (Cozby & Bates, 2015). This research used two reliable, valid survey instruments: the MLQ (5X) to gather data concerning leadership style and the JSS to gather data about job satisfaction. Cozby and Bates (2015) observed that collecting data via survey instruments is commonly used to measure variables using a quantitative method.

The population of this study consisted of online adjunct faculty who reported to a higher education administrator in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States. The research used a purposive sample of volunteer participants because participation in the research was not mandatory, but participants must have been adjunct faculty who taught at least one class at the research site within the previous six months. The researcher maintained high ethical standards in protecting the anonymity and confidentiality of the participants. The researcher maintained confidentiality and security when administering the survey and collecting data. The survey instrument did not contain any areas that collect identifying information nor did it gather information on the administrator rated in the survey. This method eliminated the possibility of tracing any responses back to an individual participant or administrator.

This chapter addresses the methodology of the study. A statement of the problem frames the research. The remainder of the chapter includes subsections on the research questions, hypotheses, research methodology, research design, population and sample selection, instrumentation, validity, reliability, data collection and management, data analysis procedures, ethical considerations, and limitations and delimitations. A summary of the methodology concludes the chapter.

Statement of the Problem

It is not known to what extent the transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors of higher education administrators, as perceived by online adjunct faculty, predict the overall job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty who report to them at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States. Transformational and transactional leadership have been shown to positively predict the job satisfaction of faculty in public

and private universities (Alonderiene & Majauskaite, 2016; Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Perey, 2015; Sakiru et al., 2014; Saleem, 2015). Despite this, there is a need for research concerning the effects of administrative leadership on the job satisfaction of faculty in the for-profit sector of higher education (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014). Rich (2015) observed the job satisfaction of adjunct faculty was under-researched. These are important observations because the use of adjunct faculty has been steadily increasing in the United States (Gilpin et al., 2015; Liftig, 2014), and the for-profit sector of higher education, continues to grow (Kinser, 2015).

Administrators in higher education are responsible for a wide range of activities including the hiring of faculty, implementing faculty development programs, enhancing student retention, and implementing academic program changes. Despite these responsibilities, many deans and administrators are former faculty with little understanding of their role or leadership training (Rand & Light, 2014). Gmelch (2015) observed that as of 2013, only 3.3% of department chairs state they have received any type of ongoing leadership development. This study provided information that may allow administrators to understand leadership factors that influence the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty. This research also provided information that could facilitate the development of leadership training programs that might prove effective in promoting the job satisfaction of adjunct faculty who teach online classes.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

This study used a quantitative method and correlational design. The predictor variables used to assess the higher education administrators' leadership style were transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership. The research investigated the

three leadership styles to determine if they were significant predictors of overall job satisfaction, which was the dependent (criterion) variable. The predictor and criterion variables were measured using validated instruments that researchers frequently use in the study of leadership and job satisfaction.

The instruments for this study were the MLQ (5X) and the JSS. The MLQ (5X) is the most popular instrument used by researchers to measure the attributes of the Full Range Leadership theory (FRLT) (Avolio & Bass, 2004), and is valid and reliable to gather ordinal data, using a five-point Likert-type scale, on transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Hemsworth et al., 2013). The researcher used the MLQ (5X) instrument to measure perceptions of leadership (predictor variable), as provided by the research sample. The JSS, a 36-question instrument, measured nine dimensions of job satisfaction as well as overall job satisfaction on a six-point Likert-type scale (Spector, 1997). The JSS is one of the few job satisfaction instruments that meets the requirements for reliability and validity (Van Saane et al., 2003). The JSS measured the job satisfaction (criterion variable) of the research sample. The researcher administered the instruments via online survey to the research sample. The target population of this study consisted of online adjunct faculty who taught at least one class in the previous six months at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States. The target sample was a minimum of 74 respondents. This method of collecting data was consistent with the research design.

A quantitative method bases conclusions on the collection and analysis of quantitative, or numerical, data, and is an appropriate design when a researcher wants to investigate the relationship between two quantitatively expressed variables (Cozby &

Bates, 2015). This method was chosen because a quantitative, predictive correlational, or cross-sectional, non-experimental research is appropriate to use when a researcher wants to observe what naturally occurs without directly interfering. Researchers use a quantitative method and predictive correlational design to determine a relationship between multiple variables that come from the same population, and commonly use surveys to collect numerical data in order to generate descriptive statistics, test for relationship strength, and investigate the magnitude of impact between variables (Cozby & Bates, 2015). The type of data collected directly relates to the research questions and hypotheses.

Ellis and Levy (2009) observed that the nature of research questions is dependent on what type of study the researcher is conducting. Quantitative studies generally use research questions that are predictive or confirmatory in nature, while qualitative research seeks to gather opinions and feelings. This quantitative study used predictive research questions. Hypotheses are a prediction about the outcome of a relationship between variables. In this study, the research questions and hypotheses were as follows:

RQ1: To what extent does the administrators' transformational leadership style, as perceived by the online adjunct faculty who report to them and measured by the MLQ (5X), predict the overall job satisfaction of the same online adjunct faculty, as measured by the JSS, in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States?

$H1_0$: There is no statistically significant predictive relationship between the administrators' transformational leadership style and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

H1a: There is a statistically significant predictive relationship between the administrators' transformational leadership style and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

RQ2: To what extent does the administrators' transactional leadership style, as perceived by the online adjunct faculty who report to them and measured by the MLQ (5X), predict the overall job satisfaction of the same online adjunct faculty, as measured by the JSS, in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States?

$H2_0$: There is no statistically significant predictive relationship between the administrators' transactional leadership style and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

H2a: There is a statistically significant predictive relationship between the administrators' transactional leadership style and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

RQ3: To what extent does the administrators' laissez-faire leadership style, as perceived by the online adjunct faculty who report to them and measured by the MLQ (5X), predict the overall job satisfaction of the same online adjunct faculty, as measured by the JSS, in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States?

$H3_0$: There is no statistically significant predictive relationship between the administrators' laissez-faire leadership style and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

H3a: There is a statistically significant predictive relationship between the administrators' laissez-faire leadership style and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

Research Methodology

This research questions and hypotheses of this study were consistent with the use of a quantitative methodology. Quantitative methods are appropriate when investigating the relationship between two numerically, or quantitatively, expressed variables (Cozby & Bates, 2015). To answer the research questions concerning the predictive relationship between administrator's leadership style and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty, the researcher performed a quantitative study to gather, inspect, and analyze numerical data. The researcher used two valid and reliable instruments to collect data, which is indicative of a quantitative methodology.

The data were collected using the MLQ (5X) and the JSS, which are two validated instruments that generate interval data. Researchers view surveys as the preferred instrument of quantitative research because they can be easily adapted to many situations. Researchers can administer surveys at a distance and replicate the study using the same survey. Surveys are also suited for regression analysis, which makes them popular in quantitative research (Bryman, 1984).

A researcher uses quantitative methods to test hypotheses concerning the relationship of variables and the strength, or magnitude, of any relationships based on the data collected (Cozby & Bates, 2015). This study was an examination of the predictive relationship between three distinct leadership variables (predictor) and the variable of overall job satisfaction (criterion). The MLQ (5X) measured five transformational, two

transactional, and two laissez-faire leadership dimensions, with four questions for each dimension (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The researcher used the JSS, which measured nine work factors with four questions for each factor (Spector, 1997), to measure overall job satisfaction. The use of these validated surveys allowed the researcher to collect numerical, or quantitative, data to examine the relationship between leadership attributes and overall job satisfaction.

The researcher chose a quantitative methodology to study the predictive relationship between the administrators' leadership style (predictor variable) and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty (criterion variable). The researcher decided to use a quantitative method because, as Cooper and Schindler (2006) observed, the researcher's own subjective preferences, biases, and values do not affect the research. The researcher can state the research problem in specific terms, and the use of controlled observations contribute to improved reliability. In addition, this study sought to discover if a predictive relationship existed between variables, which indicated a qualitative method would not be appropriate.

A quantitative methodology and predictive correlational design uses inferential statistics to determine cause and effect, or predictive, relationships between two variables that are expressed quantitatively (Cozby & Bates, 2015). Quantitative research forms conclusions based on collecting and analyzing numerical data and examines relationships between variables (Parylo, 2012). Conversely, qualitative methods seek to discover patterns and themes, investigate how and why a phenomenon happens, and use inductive reasoning to study perceptions of reality as defined by the observer (Cooper & Schindler, 2006).

The researcher chose not to use a qualitative methodology because the purpose of this study was to determine if a predictive relationship existed between variables. Given qualitative research's focus on discovering motivations and opinions, the researcher deemed it was not appropriate for this study. Another reason the researcher decided not to perform a qualitative study is the distance involved between potential respondents. Online adjunct faculty could be located anywhere in the world, and obtaining qualitative data could be problematic. Moreover, a qualitative method collects data from a small sample that may, or may not, be generalizable to the population. The researcher chose a quantitative methodology because the use of a large population and sample size makes the results statistically generalizable to the total population (Cozby & Bates, 2015). Additionally, in qualitative studies, the researcher is the instrument. The researcher did not want to be the instrument to avoid potential bias. Numerous studies have employed a quantitative methodology to examine the perceived predictive relationship between leadership behaviors and employee job satisfaction (Aydin et al., 2013; Banks et al., 2016; Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Hobman et al., 2012; Omar & Hussin, 2013; Shurbagi, 2014). In this study, the researcher sought to investigate the predictive relationship between leadership attributes (predictor variables) and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty (criterion variable), which made a quantitative methodology appropriate.

Research Design

The researcher used a non-experimental correlational design to determine the strengths of the transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors of higher education administrators (predictor variable) as predictors of the overall job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty (criterion variable). Ellis and Levy (2009) stated

predictive correlational research ascertains if a predictive relationship is present between continuous independent variables and dependent variables. Correlational designs are a type of non-experimental research that is befitting a statistical analysis of the relationship between at least two variables (Cozby & Bates, 2015), and differs from other types of quantitative analysis (Ellis & Levy, 2009). These differences made a correlational analysis ideal for an examination of the relationship between leadership attributes and job satisfaction.

The purpose of this study was to determine if a predictive relationship existed between variables. Experimental research examines cause-effect relationships, but unlike correlational research, experimental research involves the manipulation of the variables by the researcher. The researcher uses two or more groups that receive different treatments of the independent variable. The researcher then determines if there is a difference in the independent variable's effect on the dependent variable in each group (Ellis & Levy, 2009). The researcher for this study did not choose this type of analysis because he desired to determine the predictive relationship between variables in an unaltered environment.

Causal-comparative analysis determines if a cause-effect relationship exists between variables. Superficially, causal-comparative analysis is similar to correlational analysis. Unlike a correlational analysis, a researcher using a causal-comparative analysis seeks to determine if a cause-effect relationship exists (Ellis & Levy, 2009). The focus of this study was to determine if a predictive relationship existed between leadership attributes and job satisfaction, which made a causal-comparative analysis unwarranted.

Correlation does not indicate causation, even when the relationship between independent and dependent variables is strong (Cozby & Bates, 2015).

The purpose of predictive correlational research is to determine if a predictive relationship exists between continuous predictor (independent) variables and criterion (dependent) variables. The researcher collected the independent (predictor) variable data using the MLQ (5X). The MLQ (5X) measured transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors by collecting data on a five-point Likert-type scale that measured nine leadership behaviors. These included the transactional dimensions of attributed idealized influence, behavioral idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and individual consideration. The MLQ (5X) also measured the transactional behaviors of active management-by-exception and contingent reward, and the two dimensions of laissez-faire leadership, which are laissez-faire behaviors and passive management-by-exception (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Survey participants had the option to pick a response from 1, "not at all", to 5 "frequently, if not always" in response to statements about their supervisors. The researcher combined the individual dimensions of each leadership style to measure transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors as a whole. The MLQ (5X) is a versatile instrument that measures transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership, as well as the individual dimensions of these leadership styles (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The MLQ (5X) is the most popular instrument used by researchers in the examination of transformational and transactional leadership (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Menon, 2014).

The researcher used the JSS to collect data on the overall job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty (criterion variable). The JSS is an instrument that used a six-point Likert-

type scale to collect data on nine different work factors, and is suitable to collect quantitative data on overall job satisfaction (Spector, 1997). The JSS is one of the few instruments that measures job satisfaction to meet the requirements for reliability and validity (Van Saane et al., 2003**).** The JSS asked respondents to choose a response to statements about their job. Responses range from 1, "disagree very much", to 6, "agree very much" (Spector, 1997). Researchers have used the MLQ (5X) and JSS instruments together to examine the predictive relationship of leadership attributes on job satisfaction (Perey, 2015). The use of instruments such as the MLQ (5X) and JSS is justified by Cooper and Schindler (2006) who observed researchers use instruments in correlational studies to derive inferences from a sample population.

The researcher collected data using an online survey. Researchers have used online surveys on samples in different organizations (Fricker & Schonlau, 2002), and they are the preferred instrument of quantitative research (Bryman, 1984). Bryman (1984) observed researchers use surveys to collect data for regression analysis, which made them ideal for this study. Surveys provide a quantitative (numeric) description of a population's trends, opinions, and/or attitudes when used to sample a specific population (Cozby & Bates, 2015). The researcher chose a survey method of data collection because the researcher could administer a survey at a distance. Moreover, surveys are easily adaptable to specific situations (Bryman, 1984) and the use of survey instruments is suited for predictive correlational research (Cooper & Schindler, 2006).

The researcher downloaded data into the SPSS software for analysis, cleaned the data, and used descriptive statistics to detect outliers in the population and provide descriptive statistics including the mean and median of the individual dimensions of

transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, and job satisfaction. The researcher tested the assumptions for linear regression, and then used three singular simple linear regressions, a type of ordinary least squares regression (OLS), to investigate the measures of leadership style, as measured by the MLQ (5X) on the overall job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty, as measured by the JSS.

Population and Sample Selection

The population of this study came from a private, for-profit, university located in the Midwest United States. The Carnegie Foundation (2015) classified the university as a doctoral university that performed moderate research activity. Most of the student population was graduate and part-time, but the university offered certificates, associates, bachelors, masters, and doctoral degrees for online learners. The university was a large institution, which was in a primarily nonresidential area (Carnegie Foundation, 2015).

The researcher had the research site send all online adjunct faculty email invitations to participate in the survey. The researcher stated in the invitation and in the informed consent that only adjunct faculty who have taught at least one online class at the research site within the past six months were eligible for the study. Eight hundred online faculty agreed to participate in research activities at the research site. Per information provided by the research site's Human Resources department, the majority of faculty were adjunct faculty and only active faculty were invited to the survey.

The researcher recruited a non-random, purposive sample, which may not be representative of the target population. This limits the internal and external validity of the results. The researcher performed the a priori computation of the minimum sample size for simple linear regression using G*Power (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007).

For regression analysis, Cohen et al. (2003) recommended a target power of at least 0.80. The researcher used as input a medium effect size of $f^2 = 0.15$, a 95% confidence level ($\alpha = 0.05$), and a power of 0.95 ($\beta = 0.05$). Using these settings, the resulting minimum sample size was 74 participants in the purposive sample (Appendix H, Figure 1). The researcher used 74 as the minimum sample size. Out of the 85 respondents 77 provided complete responses, which satisfied the minimum requirement for simple linear regression.

Baruch and Holtom (2008) observed that the level of response rate is important when assessing the value and validity of research findings. A sufficient response rate was important because non-response biases might affect statistical tests based on Likert-type questions (Culpepper & Zimmerman, 2006). Shih and Fan (2009) performed a meta-analysis of response rates to web surveys in a variety of organizations and found the average response rate to web surveys was 31.9%. Sauermann and Roach (2013) considered response rates of 10-25% acceptable for online surveys. The researcher's response rate goal was 10% (80 respondents out of a target population of 800). The actual response rate in this study was 9.6% (i.e., 77 participants out of a target population of 800).

The researcher received final approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of the research site (Appendix E) and the Grand Canyon University IRB (Appendix F) before contacting the research site to invite participation. The invitation provided information about the study and stated that participation was voluntary. The researcher included a statement of confidentiality and a link to the online survey service, SurveyMonkey®. The survey began with an informed consent that the potential

participants could "sign" by checking the box indicating the respondent wished to participate in the study. Acceptance to participate automatically opened the survey questionnaire.

Instrumentation

The researcher used two instruments for this study: the MLQ (5X) (Appendix C) and the JSS (Appendix D). The MLQ (5X) is the most popular FRLT instrument used to investigate transformational, transactional, and laissez-fair leadership attributes (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The MLQ (5X) measured the nine dimensions of the FRLT using 36 questions measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale. The MLQ (5X) used four questions each to measure the nine leadership dimensions, which included the transformational dimensions of inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, attributed idealized influence, behavioral idealized influence, and individual consideration, and the transactional dimensions of active management-by exception and contingent reward. The MLQ (5X) also measured two dimensions of laissez-faire leadership, laissez-faire behaviors and passive management-by-exception, with four questions each (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Scores for the MLQ "are average scores from the items on the scale. The score can be derived by summing the items and dividing by the number of items that make up the scale" (Avolio & Bass, 2004, p. 118). Similarly, the authors of the MLQ, in previous research, advocated that to measure overall values for transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors a researcher could combine individual behaviors to measure overall transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership because this created "a higher order construct" (Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003, p. 211). Moreover, Avolio & Bass (2004) stated the MLQ (5X) is a versatile

instrument that measures transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership, as well as the individual dimensions of these leadership styles. For this research, the individual dimensions of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership were combined by summing the items and dividing by the number of constructs. The participants were provided statements such as "my supervisor provides me with assistance when needed," and asked to pick responses that range from 1, "not at all", to 5 "frequently, if not always." The MLQ (5X) produced technically ordinal (Likert-type) data that the researcher approximated to continuous, which allowed the use of parametric statistical methods. Tests performed by Avolio and Bass (2004) discovered reliabilities of 0.63 to 0.92 across the nine leadership factors Garg and Ramjee (2013) found the MLQ (5X) produced an average Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.97. The MLQ (5X) proved to be a strong predictor of leadership behavior across a variety of organizations (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Spector (1985) developed the JSS to measure nine work factors that may lead to job satisfaction. The JSS consisted of a 6-point Likert scale that used a 36-question instrument to produce interval data that measured nine work factors. The instrument investigated each of the nine work factors using four statements for each work factor. Respondents could choose answers from 1, "disagree very much", to 6, "agree very much" to statements such ask "I like the people I work with" and "raises are too few and far between." The job factors measured included the nature of work, communication, operating procedures, coworker relationships, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, supervision, pay, and promotion potential (Spector, 1997). To score the instrument, Spector (1997) said to "sum responses to four items for each facet score and all items for

total score" (Spector, 1997, p. 1). Van Saane et al. (2003), in their investigation of 29 job satisfaction instruments, discovered the JSS yielded Cronbach alpha values of 0.60 to 0.80. The JSS displayed acceptable reliability, with a Cronbach alpha of 0.92 (Diržyté, Patapas, Smalskys, & Udaviciütè, 2013) and 0.91 (Van Saane et al., 2003) in separate studies, and was determined to meet the reliability criteria (Van Saane et al., 2003). In total, the survey consisted of the MLQ (5X) and the JSS. The survey was anonymous and did not collect any personal information. The researcher ensured the data was not linked in any way to the sample participants or individual administrators.

Validity

Validity is the capability to obtain justifiable and meaningful conclusions from data about a population or sample, and assesses the extent an instrument measures the variable correctly (Cohen et al., 2003). Straub (1989) stressed researchers should ensure instrument measures are obtained from every possible measure of the investigated variable. The measure for validity is the Cronbach's alpha value, which assesses the internal consistency of each dimension of a variable. High alpha levels indicate the items measure the same factor. George and Mallery (2016) stated a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.90 or more is considered excellent, 0.80-0.89 is considered good, 0.70-0.79 is considered acceptable, 0.60-0.69 is considered questionable, 0.50-0.59 is poor, and less than 0.50 is unacceptable. Researchers use validity to provide the foundation for making meaningful conclusions from an instrument score (Cozby & Bates, 2015).

The MLQ (5X) was used in this study to measure higher education administrators' leadership behaviors as perceived by the online adjunct faculty who directly report to them. The MLQ (5X) was derived from the Full Range Leadership

theory. The instrument has been tested and improved since 1985, with the result being the latest revision: the MLQ (5X) (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Avolio and Bass (2004) found the MLQ (5X), when used on large samples, demonstrated a Cronbach's alpha above 0.80 across the scales, and has proven to be a strong predictor of leadership behaviors. Muenjohn and Armstrong (2008) used a multi-data source of 138 cases to discover that although some leadership factors displayed high correlations with each other, the MLQ (5X) still exactly measured every factor's own leadership dimension. Additionally, the MLQ (5X) produced an alpha of 0.86 and successfully tested on large samples (n = 1.394) and small samples (n = 138). Muenjohn and Armstrong (2008) concluded the MLQ (5X) could be the best instrument to capture the constructs of transformational and transactional leadership.

The researcher used the JSS, developed by Spector (1985), as the instrument to measure the overall job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty. Spector (1997) stated the Cronbach alpha coefficients varied from 0.60 to 0.91 for the individual nine dimensions of the instrument. Van Saane et al. (2003) stated the JSS was one of only seven job satisfaction instruments to meet the criteria for reliability and validity. The authors tested the degree of inclusion of the nine work factors investigated in the survey and found the JSS displayed a convergent validity of 0.61– 0.80 when compared with the Job Descriptive Index (JDI). Astrauskaite, Vaitkevicius, and Perminas (2011) found alpha coefficients ranging from 0.60-0.82, and concluded the JSS is a valid instrument to measure job satisfaction.

Reliability

Reliability measures how consistently an instrument produces the same results when the unit measured has not changed. Cozby and Bates (2015) stated reliability is the consistency of the results obtained when researchers use the instrument with different samples from the same population. Researchers determine the reliability of an instrument by comparing the Cronbach's alpha coefficient ranges acquired in repetition studies. Reliability allows researchers to ensure measures display stability across the population measured (Straub, 1989).

The MLQ (5X) is the most popular instrument that measures transformational and transformational leadership and meets all criteria for reliability and validity (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Menon, 2014). Avolio & Bass (2004) found the reliabilities of each of the nine leadership dimensions measured by the MLQ (5X) ranged from 0.63 to 0.92 on the initial sample and 0.64 to 0.92 on the replication sample. In a pilot test, Sadeghi and Pihie (2012) discovered the Cronbach's alpha values ranged from 0.67 to 0.94. Similarly, Garg and Ramjee (2013) reported the overall Cronbach's alpha coefficient was 0.97. Researchers, in two separate studies, used 18 different samples consisting of 3368 individuals to test the reliability and validity of the MLQ (5X). They concluded the MLQ (5X) measures the same construct's reliability between differing samples (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003).

The JSS has undergone extensive investigation for reliability. Spector (1997) discovered alpha coefficient values ranged from 0.60 to 0.91. Van Saane et al. (2003), in their analysis of 29 different job satisfaction instruments, stated the JSS was one of only seven instruments to meet the criteria for reliability and validity. The researchers tested

for reliability by assessing the instrument's internal consistency and the test-retest coefficient. The time between the initial test and the retest for the JSS was 18 months. The researchers did not discover any responsiveness to change, and noted an initial internal consistency of 0.91 and a retest of 0.71. The initial test coefficient had to be at least 0.80 and the retest coefficient had to be at least 0.70 for the researchers to consider it reliable. The sub-scales of the JSS independently measure nine out of the standard 11 work factors (Spector, 1997), and have proven to pass the reliability test (Van Saane et al., 2003).

Data Collection and Management

The researcher obtained full written permission from the research site's IRB to collect data from adjunct faculty at an online for-profit university in the Midwest United States (Appendix E). The researcher obtained written permission to use the MLQ (5X) and JSS (Appendices A and B). The researcher also obtained approval from the GCU IRB (Appendix F) before contacting the point of contact at the research site to invite participation. After GCU IRB approval, the point of contact at the research site sent invitations to participate in the study through the research site's email system to the total population of approximately 800 faculty who reported to a higher education administrator. The target population consisted of adjunct faculty members who taught at least one online class within the past six months.

The sample consisted of a purposive non-random sample of volunteers. The researcher used a G*Power analysis to determine the minimum sample size (Appendix H, Figure 1). Using a 95% confidence level, a 5% margin of error, effect size of $f^2 = 0.15$, a power of 0.95, the minimum sample, as determined by G*Power (Faul et al., 2007) was

74 participants (Appendix H, Figure 1). Sauermann and Roach (2013) stated a 10-25% response rate is common to online surveys. The target population of adjunct faculty members who have taught at least one online class within the previous six months came from the total population of 800 faculty who taught online classes at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States, a 9.62% response rate satisfied the sample size requirement for simple linear regression analysis.

The email invitations for participation provided information about the study, indicated that participants must have taught at least one online class within the previous six months at the research site, and acknowledged that participation was voluntary. The researcher included a statement of confidentiality, information regarding any known benefits or risks for participation, and a link to the online survey service, SurveyMonkey®. To encourage participation, two $50 Amazon eCards were offered as an incentive. Two participants, who were chosen at random, were given one $50 Amazon eCard each. To enter the drawing, a link was provided at the end of the survey that led to a different survey where the participant's email address was collected. After data collection, two participants were chosen at random to receive one $50 Amazon eCard each. By creating a different survey to collect email addresses, the respondents' answers could not be associated with their answers to the survey instruments. The email information was deleted from the survey site once the incentives were awarded. All individuals in the population had the opportunity to decline or accept the invitation to participate in the study in the initial email. The survey began with instructions and an informed consent notice (Appendix J). After participants checked the box that indicated

they acknowledge the informed consent and agreed to participate, the page redirected to the survey.

The survey consisted of two sections. The first section, the MLQ (5X), consisted of 45 items that measure the transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles (predictor variables) on a five-point Likert-type scale. Responses ranged from 1, "not at all", to 5 "frequently, if not always." Samples of the questions include, "fails to interfere until problems become serious," and "provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts." The MLQ (5X) used four questions each to measure the transformational dimensions of individualized consideration, inspirational motivation, behavioral idealized influence, attributed idealized influence, and intellectual stimulation. The MLQ (5X) also used four questions each to measure the transactional dimensions of active management-by-exception, and contingent reward, and laissez-faire dimensions of laissez-faire behaviors and passive management-by-exception. Lastly, the MLQ (5X) used nine questions to measure the leadership outcomes of extra effort, effectiveness, and leader satisfaction (Avolio & Bass, 2004), which were not used for this study.

The second section, the JSS, consisted of 36 questions that assessed the aspects of, and attitudes about, the job with a six-point Likert-type scale. The instrument investigated each of the nine work factors using four questions for each work factor. Possible responses ranged from 1, "disagree very much", to 6, "agree very much." The factors included the nature of work, communication, operating procedures, coworker relationships, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, supervision, pay, and promotion potential (Spector, 1997). In total, the survey consisted of 81 questions. The respondents

had the opportunity to skip questions and exit the survey at any time without submitting their responses.

The survey was open for two weeks, after which the researcher closed the survey and did not allow any further responses. When data collection was completed, the researcher downloaded the data from SurveyMonkey® into an Excel spreadsheet, encrypted the data, saved it in a password protected external drive, and locked the drive in a drawer. The researcher deleted the survey from SurveyMonkey® and shredded any hard copies of the data after the analysis was complete. The electronic data will be kept for seven years, and then erased.

Data Analysis Procedures

In this quantitative, correlational study, the researcher investigated the following research questions and hypotheses:

RQ1: To what extent does the administrators' transformational leadership style, as perceived by the online adjunct faculty who report to them and measured by the MLQ (5X), predict the overall job satisfaction of the same online adjunct faculty, as measured by the JSS, in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States?

$H1_0$: There is no statistically significant predictive relationship between the administrators' transformational leadership style and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

H1a: There is a statistically significant predictive relationship between the administrators' transformational leadership style and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

RQ2: To what extent does the administrators' transactional leadership style, as perceived by the online adjunct faculty who report to them and measured by the MLQ (5X), predict the overall job satisfaction of the same online adjunct faculty, as measured by the JSS, in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States?

$H2_0$: There is no statistically significant predictive relationship between the administrators' transactional leadership style and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

H2a: There is a statistically significant predictive relationship between the administrators' transactional leadership style and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

RQ3: To what extent does the administrators' laissez-faire leadership style, as perceived by the online adjunct faculty who report to them and measured by the MLQ (5X), predict the overall job satisfaction of the same online adjunct faculty, as measured by the JSS, in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States?

$H3_0$: There is no statistically significant predictive relationship between the administrators' laissez-faire leadership style and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

H3a: There is a statistically significant predictive relationship between the administrators' laissez-faire leadership style and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

To answer the research questions, the researcher used the MLQ (5X) instrument to collect data on the predictor variables of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership. The researcher used the JSS to collect data on the criterion variable of overall job satisfaction. To investigate the research questions and hypotheses, the researcher analyzed data using a series of statistical procedures. The researcher began by organizing the data, and examined the survey response rate and response rate bias caused by non-response. Baruch and Holtom (2008) emphasized the importance of the level of response rate in assessing the value and validity of research findings. Analysis of the response rate is important because response biases might affect statistical tests based on Likert-type questions (Culpepper & Zimmerman, 2006). Sauermann and Roach (2013) found the response rate to web-based surveys to be 10-20%. For the purposes of this study, a 9.62% response rate satisfied the minimum sample requirement for simple linear regression analysis.

After entering the data into the SPSS software, but before data analysis, the researcher cleaned the data, which entailed checking the data set to determine if there were data entry errors, detecting and replacing missing values, detecting and resolving outliers, and identifying and recoding reverse coded items. The researcher then used the SPSS software to generate descriptive statistics that include the mean, standard deviation, skew, and kurtosis values for all dimensions of the MLQ (5X) and JSS. These statistics included the generation of all necessary tables displaying the mean, standard deviation, skew, and kurtosis values for transformational, transactional, laissez-faire leadership, and their individual dimensions. Cozby and Bates (2015) observed that descriptive statistics summarize the data to make it easily understood. The researcher examined descriptive

statistics to assess distribution normality and detect outliers. After examination of the distribution, the researcher tested the assumptions for regression.

Before primary data analysis, the researcher tested the assumptions for simple linear regression. The assumptions are: (a) the independent and dependent variables are continuous; (b) a linear relationship exists between the independent and dependent variables; (c) there is an independence of observations; (d) there are no significant outliers; (e) the data must display homoscedasticity; and (f) the residuals, or errors, of the regression line are approximately normally distributed (Laerd Statistics, 2013). The researcher used a scatterplot, or histogram, to assess the normality of the data. The researcher detected no outliers by examination of the z-scores of the scatterplot and all scores were within the critical values of ±3.29 *SD*. To discover if there was a linear relationship, the researcher visually inspected the scatterplot of the dependent variable against the independent variable. To test for independence of observations, the researcher performed a Durbin-Watson test. A value of approximately two indicated there was an independence of residuals (errors). The researcher tested for homoscedasticity by examination of a scatterplot of the regression-standardized residuals and regression standardized predicted values. Homoscedasticity was demonstrated by the lack of a pattern, and the points of the scatterplot appeared constantly distributed along the y-axis and x-axis. The researcher assessed the distribution of residuals by a visual examination of a normal probability plot, and all assumptions for linearity, outliers, homoscedasticity, and normality were met. After examination of the assumptions for simple linear regression, the researcher computed three simple linear regression models.

The researcher performed a bivariate linear regression analysis for each predictor variable: transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership. The researcher chose to investigate the individual predictor variables separately because the objective was to examine the singular effects of each leadership style on job satisfaction, regardless of other factors that may affect overall satisfaction. Moreover, the researcher chose a simple linear regression because the goal of this research was to determine if a predictive relationship existed between variables, not to determine which independent variable best predicted the dependent variable or to investigate the combined predictive relationship of the independent variables on the dependent variable. A simple linear regression allows a researcher to: (a) determine if there is a statistically significant linear regression between two variables; (b) ascertain the degree to which the independent (predictor) variable explains the variation in the dependent (criterion) variable; (c) discover the magnitude and direction of any relationship between variables; and (d) predict the values of the dependent (criterion) variable based on the values of the independent (predictor) variable (Cozby & Bates, 2015). The researcher examined the results of the simple linear regressions to answer the research questions and corresponding hypotheses.

This study investigated the predictive relationship between leadership and job satisfaction, which made a simple linear regression the appropriate data analysis procedure. When using simple linear regression, the R^2 value was used by the researcher to test the null hypotheses. The R^2 value could range from 0 to 1, with a R^2 value of 0.00 indicating failure to reject the null hypothesis. The R^2 value indicated the amount of variance of the criterion variable that could be accounted for by its linear relationship

with the predictor variable (Cozby & Bates, 2015). Although the significance level of the R^2 value is dependent on the research context, Cohen et al. (2003) suggested R^2 values should be assessed as follows in the behavioral sciences: 0.50 (substantial), 0.30 (moderate), and 0.10 (weak). The researcher assessed the predictive strength of the variance using the aforementioned criteria.

The researcher chose to perform simple linear regressions instead of other types of regression for several reasons. A researcher uses a multiple linear regression analysis to determine the combined effect of multiple independent variables on a single dependent variable (Cohen et al., 2003). A stepwise method ranks statistically significant predictor variables in order of strength, and will reveal the incremental variance of each additional independent (predictor) variable (Cozby & Bates, 2015). The researcher rejected multiple linear regression analysis because the goal of this research was to determine if a predictive relationship exists between variables, not to determine which style of leadership best predicts online adjunct faculty satisfaction or to investigate the combined relationship of the independent variables on the dependent variable. The researcher rejected the use of hierarchical multiple regression for a similar reason. Researchers use hierarchical multiple regression to determine how much extra variance in the dependent variable is explainable by the addition of additional independent variables, which is not the goal of this research. Binomial logistic regression is also not suitable for this research because binomial logistic regression uses a dichotomous dependent variable instead of a continuous dependent variable (Cozby & Bates, 2015). After careful consideration of the goals of this study, the researcher determined three simple linear regressions was the best

approach for data analysis because simple linear regressions could assess the predictive relationship between each type of leadership considered separately and job satisfaction.

When performing hypothesis tests, a researcher must be aware of possible logical errors. The first type of error is the Type-I error. The Type-I error, also known as a false positive, happens when the researcher rejects a null hypothesis that is true (Cozby & Bates, 2015). To prevent rejecting a true null hypothesis and committing a Type-I error, the researcher must examine the alpha value (level of statistical significance) and the *p*-value (probability level of the test). The alpha level is the maximum level of risk the researcher will accept that an effect is a chance occurrence (Cozby & Bates, 2015). For this study, the researcher will use the most commonly applied alpha level of 0.05, which indicates that out of 100 times, five observed variations will be caused by chance. The *p*-value indicates the actual calculated probability that a Type I error has occurred. If the *p*-value is less than the alpha value, the researcher rejects the null hypothesis. If the *p*-value is greater than the alpha value, the researcher fails to reject the null hypothesis (Cozby & Bates, 2015).

Type-II errors, also known as misses, occur when a researcher fails to reject a null hypothesis when it is false. Type-II errors are not as severe as Type-I errors because a miss is considered less misleading than a false positive. A researcher must use a sufficient sample size and high confidence interval to avoid making a Type-II error (Cozby & Bates, 2015). For the purposes of this study, a sample of 74 participants, as computed by G*Power (Faul et al., 2007), was required for simple linear regression analysis. A researcher can expect a response rate to web-based surveys to be 10-20% (Sauermann & Roach, 2013).

R1 sought to determine if a transformational administrative leadership behavior (predictor variable) significantly predicted the overall job satisfaction (criterion variable) of the population. The researcher used the results of a simple linear regression using transformational leadership behaviors as the independent variable and overall job satisfaction as the dependent variable to answer this question. R2 sought to determine if a transactional administrative leadership behavior (predictor variable) significantly predicted the overall job satisfaction (criterion variable) of the population. The researcher used the results of a simple linear regression using transactional leadership behaviors as the independent variable and overall job satisfaction as the dependent variable to answer R2. R3 sought to determine if a laissez-faire administrative leadership behavior (predictor variable) significantly predicted the overall job satisfaction (criterion variable) of the population. The researcher used the results of a simple linear regression using laissez-faire leadership behaviors as the independent variable and overall job satisfaction as the dependent variable to answer R3.

Ethical Considerations

This research raised no ethical questions or concern. The researcher adhered to the guidelines of the Belmont Report, which emphasized respecting and protecting all participants in the research. The researcher obtained permission from the organization in which the researcher collected data and the GCU Institutional Review Board (IRB) before beginning to collect data. The researcher observed the participants right to informed consent (Appendix J). The participants in the study shared sensitive information about their perceptions of their administrator's leadership and their own job satisfaction. To safeguard the participants' privacy, the survey did not ask participants for identifying

personal information, or contain information that could link the participants to their responses, supervising administrator, or organization.

The researcher set SurveyMonkey® to anonymous; and did record the IP addresses of participants. The participants were asked to accept the informed consent by checking the appropriate box before advancing to the survey. The participants had the option to skip any question they did not wish to answer. Additionally, the respondents were able to exit the survey at any time without submitting their responses if they chose not to complete the survey. To safeguard anonymity, confidentiality and privacy, no personal data was collected during the survey, the participant's school was not identified, and the participant's leader was not identified. If the respondents wished to be considered for the two $50 Amazon eCards, they were provided with a link at the end of the survey that tool them to a separate survey that collected their email address. This method of email collection ensured the respondent's answers to the survey instruments could not be associated with their email addresses. The researcher posted the survey on a secure, password protected, website. After data collection, the researcher downloaded the data, encrypted the files on a secure external flash drive, and secured the drive in a locked drawer. The researcher then deactivated the survey site and conducted a random drawing for the two $50 Amazon eCards. Respondents who receive the incentives were notified by email by Amazon after their email addresses are entered into Amazon's webpage. The researcher was the only individual who had access to the data files. After transferring any data stored on paper documents to the flash drive, the researcher destroyed the paper documents and stored all electronic data for this research in a secure, locked, drawer for a period of six years. After six years, the researcher will destroy the flash drive.

Limitations

Every study has limitations. These can include the measure of variables, an inadequate sample size, or other factors related to the collection and analysis of data (Cozby & Bates, 2015). For this study, the researcher foresaw three possible limitations.

The first limitation was the purposive, non-random, aspect of the sample. The method of sampling the non-random, volunteer participants may have affected the internal validity (representativeness) and external validity (generalizability) of this research. The researcher addressed this limitation by attempting to recruit the largest sample possible from the target population of online adjunct faculty who meet the criteria for the study by offering an incentive of two $50 Amazon eCards, awarded one each to two respondents who were chosen at random at the end of data collection.

Secondly, the MLQ (5X) and JSS survey instruments may have limited the findings of the study. Researchers extensively use the MLQ (5X) and JSS to examine the variables of leadership and job satisfaction, and both have been shown to be valid and reliable. Regardless of their popularity and credibility, the instruments may not have addressed all dimensions of leadership or job satisfaction. For example, the JSS examined nine out of a possible 11 work factors associated with satisfaction (Van Saane et al., 2003). The instruments may not have measured perceptions of all leadership behaviors or job satisfaction attitudes; therefore, the recommendations and results of data analysis may also be limited. Despite this limitation, the JSS measures the most dimensions of job satisfaction of any job satisfaction instrument that has met the requirements validity and reliability (Van Saane et al., 2003) and is effective for measuring overall job satisfaction (Spector, 1997; Van Saane et al., 2003). Likewise, the MLQ (5x) measures most

leadership behaviors, and is a reliable and validated instrument to measure the dimensions of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership (Avolio & Bass, 2004), which is the focus of this study.

Lastly, Likert-type scales, as used by the MLQ (5X) and JSS, collected numerical data, which made parametric statistical procedures possible. The use of numerical data might have limited the ability of the respondents to articulate clearly their perceptions of leadership behaviors and/or job satisfaction. The instruments collected data at a specific point in time. As such, the study is limited because it did not allow the respondents to describe how leadership behaviors influence perceptions of job satisfaction over time. Both surveys included definitions of what each number on the Likert-type scale represented, which allowed the researcher to approximate interval measures, but the limitation remains.

Delimitations

There are also delimitations for this study, where the researcher can exercise control. First, the researcher used a specific purposive sample of adjunct faculty who taught at least one online class at the research site. The target population of online adjuncts who have taught a class within the past six months was chosen because this demographic was the focus of the study. Second, the sample was taken from one university. The researcher delimited the study to one university because collecting data from online faculty members from a single university allows for a specific target population that is subject to the same organizational policies and procedures. Third, the researcher chose a quantitative method for the study. The researcher delimited the research to a quantitative method because a qualitative methodology collects data from a

small sample that may, or may not, be generalizable to the total population. This quantitative study used a larger population and sample size, thereby making the results statistically generalizable to the total population. Moreover, this study examined the predictive relationship between leadership behaviors and job satisfaction, which a qualitative method cannot address.

Summary

The purpose of this quantitative, correlational study was to determine to what extent the perceived transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors of higher education administrators predicted the overall job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty who reported to them at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States. The researcher used a quantitative methodology and a correlational design to discover the predictive relationship, if any, between leadership style and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty. Researchers use quantitative methods to test hypotheses about the relationship between numerically expressed variables (Cozby & Bates, 2015). To gather the numerical data, the researcher used two instruments.

To gather the numerical data needed to answer the research questions, the researcher used the MLQ (5X) and the JSS. The MLQ (5X) measured nine facets of leadership behaviors (predictor variables). The instrument has undergone extensive testing for reliability and validity (Avolio & Bass, 2004), and is the most popular instrument to measure the dimensions of the FRLT (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014). The researcher measured the dependent variable of overall job satisfaction with the JSS. The JSS measured nine out of 11 work factors related to job satisfaction (Spector, 1985), and met all requirements for validity and reliability (Van Saane et al., 2003). The researcher

administered both instruments via SurveyMonkey®, which is an online survey website. The researcher site invited online adjunct faculty who taught at least one class at the research site within the last six months to complete the survey.

Data collection began by first obtaining permission from the research site and approval of the GCU IRB. After GCU IRB approval, the point of contact at the research site posted the study on the research site's research participation website, and sent invitations through the research site's email system to the target population. The invitation provided instructions to access the survey, a statement of confidentiality, information about the survey, and a link to the online survey service, SurveyMonkey®, which hosted the survey. The survey did not ask participants for identifying personal information, or contain information that could link the participants to their responses, supervising administrator, or organization. The researcher kept the survey open for two weeks, after which the survey was closed. The researcher then downloaded the data from SurveyMonkey®, encrypted the data, and saved it on a password protected drive. After the researcher completed data collection, data analysis began.

The researcher organized the data and examined the survey response rate. Baruch and Holtom (2008) stated the response rate is imperative when assessing the validity of any research findings. The researcher then used SPSS software to generate descriptive statistics, which summarized the data and made it easily understood (Cozby & Bates, 2015). The researcher examined the distribution of data and tested the assumptions for simple linear regression, and then used parametric statistics using the interval data obtained from the survey instruments.

The researcher performed three simple linear regression analyses. A simple linear regression reveals the degree that an independent variable predicts the dependent variable (Cohen et al., 2003). The researcher used the results of three singular simple linear regressions to answer the research questions, and the corresponding hypotheses.

There were no expected ethical concerns with this research. The researcher ensured privacy, anonymity, and confidentiality in the collection and storage of data, and address the issue of informed consent. The researcher was not provided with participant email addresses, and the survey did not ask participants for identifying personal information, or contain information that could link the participants to their responses, supervising administrator, or organization. After six years, the researcher will destroy the external flash drive, which will contain all data concerning the research.

Chapter 4 will address the research results. The researcher examines the descriptive data and provides all charts and tables required to explain the results of the research. The researcher explains the data analysis procedures and provides the results of the three singular simple regression analyses. The researcher then provides the results of the research and answers the research questions and hypotheses with the data acquired.

Chapter 4: Data Analysis and Results

Introduction

Prior to this study it was not known to what extent the transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors of higher education administrators, as perceived by online adjunct faculty, predicted the overall job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty who reported to them at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States. Bateh and Heyliger (2014) stressed the need to explore the perceived effects of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors on the job satisfaction of the faculty in for-profit post-secondary institutions. Rich (2015) observed the need for research on the factors that affect the job satisfaction of adjunct faculty, and particularly online adjuncts who might have different experiences than their traditional classroom counterparts. Likewise, Couch (2014) observed that online adjunct faculty may have different desires and needs than adjuncts teaching in a traditional environment, and suggested research on factors that affect online adjuncts' job satisfaction.

This study sought to investigate the current problem regarding the lack of research on leadership and the job satisfaction of adjunct faculty who taught online classes in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States. Like prior studies that investigated leadership behaviors and employee job satisfaction, this research used a survey that was distributed via the internet to 800 online adjunct faculty members of a for-profit university in the Midwest United States. The researcher chose a survey method to collect data because surveys are a preferred method of gathering data in quantitative research (Bryman, 1984), provide a method to explore the relationship between multiple variables

(Cozby & Bates, 2015), and are suited for correlational investigations (Cooper & Schindler, 2006).

The researcher collected data from the sample of 77 online adjunct faculty members by administering the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire 5x (MLQ (5X)), which was developed by Avolio and Bass (2004) (Appendix C), to measure perceptions of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors and Spector's (1997) Job Satisfaction Survey (Appendix D), which measured perceptions of overall job satisfaction. Both instruments provided anchor definitions for each number, thereby allowing the researcher to approximate data to interval measures and perform inferential analyses. The MLQ (5X) and JSS are two of the most popular instruments in this are for gathering quantitative data to conduct inferential analyses (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Khan & Ahmed, 2013; Menon, 2014; Perey, 2015; Saleem, 2015; Shurbagi, 2014).

The researcher used three simple linear regression procedures to analyze the data to address the following research questions and hypotheses:

RQ1: To what extent does the administrators' transformational leadership style, as perceived by the online adjunct faculty who report to them and measured by the MLQ (5X), predict the overall job satisfaction of the same online adjunct faculty, as measured by the JSS, in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States?

$H1_0$: There is no statistically significant predictive relationship between the administrators' transformational leadership style and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

H1a: There is a statistically significant predictive relationship between the administrators' transformational leadership style and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

RQ2: To what extent does the administrators' transactional leadership style, as perceived by the online adjunct faculty who report to them and measured by the MLQ (5X), predict the overall job satisfaction of the same online adjunct faculty, as measured by the JSS, in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States?

$H2_0$: There is no statistically significant predictive relationship between the administrators' transactional leadership style and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

H2a: There is a statistically significant predictive relationship between the administrators' transactional leadership style and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

RQ3: To what extent does the administrators' laissez-faire leadership style, as perceived by the online adjunct faculty who report to them and measured by the MLQ (5X), predict the overall job satisfaction of the same online adjunct faculty, as measured by the JSS, in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States?

$H3_0$: There is no statistically significant predictive relationship between the administrators' laissez-faire leadership style and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

H3a: There is a statistically significant predictive relationship between the administrators' laissez-faire leadership style and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

Chapter 4 includes the results of this research. The results of Chapter 4 are divided into three main sections (a) descriptive data, which includes population and descriptive information of the sample, (b) data analysis procedures, which includes instrumentation constructs and reliability and investigation of assumptions as related to inferential analysis, and (c) results, which present the inferential analyses and tests of hypotheses according to each research question. The chapter concludes with a summary of the results. SPSS v22.00 was used for all descriptive and inferential analyses. All inferential tests were set at a 95% level of significance ($p < 0.05$).

Descriptive Data

The population for this study was a private, for-profit, university located in the Midwest United States. The Carnegie Foundation (2015) classified the university as a doctoral university that performed moderate research activity. Most of the student population was graduate and part-time, but the university offered certificates, associates, bachelors, masters, and doctoral degrees for online learners. The university was a large institution, which was in a primarily nonresidential area (Carnegie Foundation, 2015). The researcher used the university's email system to invite participation in the study. The research population, per the university's Human Resources department, was composed of 800 online faculty who agreed to consider participating in research activities. The purposive sample included members of the population who were adjunct faculty and had taught at least one online class within the past six months, and volunteered to participate.

There were 85 respondents and a total of $N = 77$ participants who completed the surveys in their entirety, and these $N = 77$ participant records were retained for analysis. Using a 95% confidence level, a 5% margin of error, an effect size of $f^2 = 0.15$, a power of 0.95, the minimum sample, as determined by G*Power (Faul et al., 2007) was 74 participants. The total of completed surveys for this study was 77, which satisfied the minimum sample size requirement for the selected parameters.

Demographic and other descriptive data were not collected for the participants. Only participant answers to each of the survey items were retained in the data record and analyzed. Therefore, descriptive findings and tables for participants are not included in this reporting. This section does include a descriptive analysis of the leadership attributes and individual dimensions of job satisfaction. Table 1 displays a summary of the ratings for each of the nine leadership subscales, the overall ratings for transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors as measured by the MLQ (5x), and overall job satisfaction, and the nine dimensions of job satisfaction as measured by the JSS.

The sample rated transactional leadership as the perceived most used overall style of leadership ($M = 2.87$), followed by transformational leadership ($M = 2.85$), and overall laissez-faire leadership ($M = 2.79$). The transformational dimension of inspirational motivation rated as the most used individual facet of leadership displayed ($M = 3.30$), followed closely by the transactional dimension of active management by exception ($M = 3.06$) and the laissez-faire dimension of passive management by exception ($M = 3.04$). The least used leadership behaviors were identified as individual consideration ($M = 2.52$) and the individual dimension of laissez-faire ($M = 2.54$).

Spector (1997) suggested interpreting the JSS results as follows; for the 4-item subscales with a range from a mean of 4 to 24, mean scores of 4 to 12 are dissatisfied, 16 to 24 are satisfied, and between 12 and 16 are ambivalent. For the 36-item total where possible mean scores range from 36 to 216, the ranges are 36 to 108 for dissatisfaction, 144 to 216 for satisfaction, and between 108 and 144 indicating ambivalence. Following Spector's guidelines, online adjunct faculty indicated ambivalence about their overall job satisfaction (M = 116.34). The respondents indicated they were satisfied with two job dimensions: Nature of the Work (M = 19.17) and Coworkers (M = 17.52). The lowest rated dimensions of job satisfaction were Pay (M = 8.47) and Promotion (M = 8.75).

In addition to the summary of the ratings for each of the dimensions of the MLQ (5X) and the JSS, Table 1 provides the skewness and kurtosis for each dimension of leadership and job satisfaction, and the overall ratings for each leadership style and overall job satisfaction. Generally, the data are fairly symmetrical if the skewness is between -.05 and 0.5, moderately skewed if the skewness is between -1 and -.05 and 0.05 and 1, and highly skewed if greater than 1 or less than -1 (George & Mallery, 2016). Examination of the scores for the MLQ (5X) indicated that all dimension values except for the transformational dimensions of intellectual stimulation (0.65), and individualized consideration (0.56), and the individual dimension of laissez-faire (0.57) were fairly symmetrical. Overall, transformational leadership (0.52) was slightly out of the fairly symmetrical range and showed as moderately skewed, but the scores for transactional leadership (-0.40) and overall laissez-faire leadership (0.16) were fairly symmetrical. A possible explanation for the skewedness may involve some aspect of the sample, or the use of virtual leadership by administrators instead of traditional face-to-face leadership.

An examination of the subscales for job satisfaction, as measured by the JSS, displayed slightly more skewed results. The values for the dimensions of supervision (0.46), operating conditions (-0.31), and communication (0.04) rated at fairly symmetrical. The rest of the dimensions of job satisfaction rated as moderately skewed, except for the dimension of nature of work (-1.26), which rated as heavily skewed. The skewness for overall job satisfaction (-0.26) was fairly symmetrical. A possible explanation for the skewed dimensions of job satisfaction might involve the virtual work environment of the sample.

Kurtosis shows the univariate distribution, and values between -2 and +2 are considered acceptable (George & Mallery, 2016). An examination of the kurtosis for each dimension of leadership and job satisfaction, as well as the overall scores for job satisfaction, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership, showed that all values were within the normal distribution range. Table 1 presents the measures of central tendency and variability for the individual scales and factors of the two instruments as well as the factor constructs used for inferential analysis. The table also includes the Cronbach's alpha coefficients computed for the scales using the data of this study.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics for MLQ and JSS, Measures of Central Tendency, and Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha for Study Instrumentation Scores (N = 77)

Instrument/Factor	*M*	*Mdn*	Sample Range	Skewness	Kurtosis	α
MLQ						
Idealized attributes	2.96	2.75	1.00 – 5.00	0.36	-0.61	0.76
Idealized behaviors	2.82	2.75	1.00 – 5.00	0.41	0.08	0.66
Inspirational motivation	3.30	3.50	1.00 – 5.00	-0.46	-0.08	0.82
Intellectual stimulation	2.67	2.50	1.00 – 4.75	0.65	-0.33	0.83
Individual consideration	2.52	2.25	1.00 – 4.50	0.56	-0.76	0.75
Contingent reward	2.69	2.50	1.00 – 4.50	0.37	-0.69	0.72
Mgmt. by exception (A)	3.06	3.25	1.25 – 4.75	-0.27	-0.75	0.76
Mgmt. by exception (P)	3.04	3.00	1.25 – 4.50	-0.25	-0.83	0.70
Laissez-faire	2.54	2.50	1.00 – 4.75	0.57	-0.05	0.67
Transformational ldship	2.85	2.75	1.00 – 4.75	0.52	-0.18	0.95
Transactional leadership	2.87	3.00	1.25 – 4.00	-0.40	-0.59	0.69
Laissez-faire leadership	2.79	2.88	1.38 – 4.62	0.16	-0.50	0.79
JSS						
Pay	8.47	8.00	4.00 – 16.00	0.52	-0.49	0.55
Promotion	8.75	8.00	4.00 – 17.00	0.64	-0.20	0.69
Supervision	15.16	14.00	7.00 – 24.00	0.46	0.07	0.54
Fringe benefits	10.27	8.00	4.00 – 22.00	0.72	-0.72	0.90
Contingent rewards	10.66	9.00	4.00 – 20.00	0.53	-0.80	0.81
Operating conditions	12.91	14.00	5.00 – 20.00	-0.31	-0.73	0.64
Coworkers	17.52	18.00	7.00 – 24.00	-0.82	0.41	0.74
Nature of work	19.17	20.00	7.00 – 24.00	-1.26	1.50	0.76
Communication	13.65	14.00	6.00 – 21.00	0.04	-0.99	0.82
Total satisfaction	116.34	115.00	69.00 – 154.00	-0.26	-0.35	0.90

Note. *M* = Mean; SE = Standard Error; *SD* = Standard Deviation; *Mdn* = Median; MLQ = Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire; JSS = Job Satisfaction Survey.

Cronbach's coefficient alpha was used to check the reliability of the individual MLQ (5X) scale scores, the JSS factor scores, and the variable constructs that were compiled for inferential analysis. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients are presented in Table 1. George and Mallery (2016) stated a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.90 or more is considered excellent, 0.80-0.89 is considered good, 0.70-0.79 is considered acceptable,

0.60-0.69 is considered questionable, 0.50-0.59 is poor, and less than 0.50 is unacceptable. All constructs were reliable for the dataset used in this study according to the 0.70 acceptability threshold with the exceptions of the MLQ (5X) scale scores of (a) idealized behaviors (α = 0.66), and (b) laissez-faire (α = 0.67); and the JSS factor scores of (a) pay (α = 0.55), (b) promotion (α = 0.69), (c) supervision (α = 0.54), and (d) operating conditions (α = 0.64). All the MLQ (5X) scale scores and JSS factor scores were composed of four items each. Overall transactional leadership was also less than the 0.70 cut-off (α = 0.69) even though both dimensions of transactional leadership, contingent reward (α = 0.73) and active management by exception (α = 0.77), surpassed the 0.70 threshold.

In previous studies, Avolio and Bass (2004) found the MLQ (5X) demonstrated a Cronbach's alpha above 0.80 across the scales when used on large samples. Spector (1997) stated the Cronbach alpha coefficients varied from 0.60 to 0.91 for the individual nine dimensions of the instrument. Astrauskaite et al. (2011) found the JSS produced alpha coefficients ranging from 0.60-0.82. When the numbers of items that make up a scale are 10 or fewer, this can result in lower Cronbach's alpha values (Pallant, 2013), as seen in this study. Also, both the MLQ (5X) and the JSS instrumentation have been extensively utilized and tested for reliability in the literature base, so it is possible that the slightly lower scores could be anomalous to the relatively small sample size. Additionally, except for the JSS factor of pay, the scores were not much lower than 0.70. The SPSS output was checked to see if removal of any items on the factors would improve the reliability of the low loading measures, and none of the items could be removed to improve fit. It was decided that since the instrumentation has been used

extensively and has shown reasonable reliability in the literature and in similar studies, that all the constructs were acceptable for use during inferential analysis. Regardless, the transactional leadership Cronbach (α = 0.685) indicated a possible limitation of the study, and this limitation must be taken into consideration when examining the results of R2, which addressed the predictive power of transactional leadership on overall job satisfaction.

Data Analysis Procedures

The researcher used two instruments for this study, the MLQ (5X) (Appendix C) and the JSS (Appendix D). The MLQ (5X) is the most popular Full Range Leadership theory (FRLT) instrument used to investigate transformational, transactional, and laissez-fair leadership attributes (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The MLQ (5X) measured the nine scales of the FRLT using 36 questions measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale, with 0 = "Not at all" and 4 = "Frequently, if not always." The MLQ (5X) used four questions each to measure the nine leadership scales, which were then compiled into three characteristic dimensions of leadership behaviors: (a) the transformational dimension of inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, attributed idealized influence, behavioral idealized influence, and individual consideration,(b) the transactional dimension of active management-by-exception and contingent reward, and (c) the laissez-faire dimension of passive management-by-exception and laissez-faire (Bass & Riggio, 2006). "The MLQ scale scores are average scores for the items in the scale" (Avolio & Bass, 2004, p. 118). Thus, for each of the nine leadership dimensions, "the score can be derived by summing the items and dividing by the number of items that make up the scale" (Avolio & Bass, 2004, p. 118). Then the factors of the individual scales were combined and averaged to

measure the three dimensions of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The combining of scales was appropriate because, in previous research, the authors of the MLQ chose to combine the individual dimensions of each leadership style to create "a higher order construct" to measure transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors as a whole (Bass et al., 2003, p. 211). Avolio and Bass (2004), the authors of the MLQ (5X), observed that the MLQ (5X) is a versatile instrument that can be used to measure the overall values of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership. The three dimensions of leadership behaviors were used as the independent variables, with one variable for each of the three simple regression models.

Spector (1985) developed the JSS to measure nine work factors that may lead to job satisfaction. The JSS consists of a 6-point Likert scale that uses a 36-question instrument to produce interval data that measures nine work factors. The instrument investigated each of the nine work factors using four statements for each work factor. The job factors measured included the nature of work, communication, operating procedures, coworker relationships, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, supervision, pay, and promotion potential (Spector, 1997). Approximately half of the scores were negatively worded and were reverse coded prior to score computation. Spector (1997) stated that a researcher should "sum responses to four items for each facet score and all items for total score" (p.1). Per instructions, the four item scores were summed for each of the nine job factors and the 36 individual items were summed into a total satisfaction score. Scores for each of the nine job factors could range from 6 to 36, with lower scores indicative of lesser satisfaction with the job factor. The possible range for the total satisfaction score

was 36-216. Like the nine job factor scores, the total satisfaction score was coded such that lower scores were associated with lesser satisfaction. The total satisfaction score was used as the dependent variable in all three simple regression models. In total, the participant survey consisted of the MLQ (5X) and the JSS.

Assumption checks. Prior to the analysis, the researcher checked the following assumptions for three simple linear regression models: (a) the independent and dependent variables are continuous; (b) a linear relationship exists between the independent and dependent variables; (c) there is an independence of observations; (d) there are no significant outliers; (e) the data must display homoscedasticity; and (f) the residuals, or errors, of the regression line are approximately normally distributed (Laerd Statistics, 2013). Outliers in a dataset have the potential to distort results of an inferential analysis. A check of boxplots for the four variable constructs (Appendix K, Figure 2) of (a) transformational leadership, (b) transactional leadership, (c) laissez-faire leadership, and (d) total satisfaction was performed to visually inspect for outliers. The boxplots did not show outliers and the researcher concluded that this assumption (absence of outliers) was met.

Normality for the scores of the four variable constructs was investigated with SPSS Explore. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov (Table 2) test for normality indicated that two of the four constructs, transformational and transactional leadership, were not normally distributed. This violation of normality could be due to the relatively small size of the sample, or another factor anomalous to the sample. In a further check for normality, a visual check of histograms (Appendix L, Figures 3 - 6) and normal Q-Q plots (Appendix M, Figures 7 - 10) for the variable constructs indicated normal distributions for all four

constructs. A comparison of the means and medians of each the four variable constructs showed numbers close in value (Table 1) indicating that skew or other characteristics of the distribution were not adversely affecting normality. Therefore, the assumption of normality was met. Regardless, the two violations of normality are potential limitations of the study.

Table 2

Tests of Normality: Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

Variable	Statistic	*df*	Sig.
SAT	0.05	77	0.20
TFL	0.12	77	0.01
TAL	0.11	77	0.02
LAF	0.07	77	0.20

Note: SAT = Total Satisfaction; TFL = Transformational leadership; TAL = Transactional leadership; LAF = Laissez-faire leadership

The assumption of linearity between study variables was checked with scatterplots of the data. The scatterplots indicated a linear relationship and the assumption of linearity was met. Homoscedasticity was checked during the regression analysis with scatterplots of residuals (Appendix N, Figures 11 - 13) and the Durbin-Watson test (Tables 3, 6, and 9). The residual plots showed a good scatter, and the Durbin-Watson test was close in value to 2 for the simple regressions with independent variables of transactional leadership (1.92) and laissez-faire leadership (2.00). The Durbin-Watson statistic for transformational leadership (1.54), was lower that the desired 2.00 value; however, the plots of the standardized residuals showed a normally distributed set of errors with a nice scatter around zero, so the visual inspection was given more weight in deciding on homoscedasticity and the assumption was considered met.

Results

Three simple regression analyses were performed to address the research questions and associated statistical hypotheses of this study. The simple regression analysis and findings, with conclusions as relates to each null hypothesis are presented according to each research question. A total of 77 records were included in the inferential analyses. Using a 95% confidence level, a 5% margin of error, effect size of f^2=0.15, and a power of 0.95, the minimum sample, as determined by G*Power (Faul et al., 2007) was 74 participants.

Research Question 1.

RQ1: To what extent does the administrators' transformational leadership style, as perceived by the online adjunct faculty who report to them and measured by the MLQ (5X), predict the overall job satisfaction of the same online adjunct faculty, as measured by the JSS, in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States?

$H1_0$: There is no statistically significant predictive relationship between the administrators' transformational leadership style and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

H1a: There is a statistically significant predictive relationship between the administrators' transformational leadership style and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

A simple linear regression was performed with the dependent variable (criterion) of total satisfaction and the independent variable (predictor) of transformational leadership (Tables 3 - 5). The regression equation for the regression model corresponding

to the first research question was: TotSat = 2.54 (Transformational Leadership) + 80.12, with TotSat indicating total overall job satisfaction. The results of the simple linear regression model corresponding to the first research question were statistically significant, F (1, 75) = 30.26, $p < 0.01$, adjusted $R^2 = 0.29$, $\beta = 0.54$, $t = 5.50$, $p < 0.01$. The adjusted R^2 value indicated that approximately 29% of the variability in the dependent variable of total satisfaction was predicted by the transformational leadership variable. The standardized Beta, $\beta = 0.55$, was statistically significant and indicated that a change of one standard deviation in transformational leadership resulted in a 0.55 standard deviations increase in job satisfaction. The size and direction of the relationship between total satisfaction and transformational leadership, as displayed in Table 12, suggested that faculty job satisfaction increased when their assessment of the administrators' transformational leadership increased.

The predictor of transformational leadership was statistically significant for the outcome of total satisfaction; therefore, the researcher rejected Null Hypothesis 1. There was sufficient evidence to indicate that there was a statistically significant predictive relationship between the administrators' transformational leadership style and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

Table 3

Transformational Leadership: Bivariate Linear Regression Model Summary[b]

Model	*R*	*R* Squared	Adjusted *R* Squared	Std. Error	Durbin - Watson
1	0.54[a]	0.29	0.28	16.93	1.55

a. Predictors: (Constant), Transformational Leadership
b. Dependent Variable: Total Satisfaction

Table 4

Transformational Leadership: Model ANOVA[a]

Model	Sum of Squares	*df*	Mean Square	*F*	Sig.
1 Regression	8672	1	8672	30.26	0.00[b]
Residual	21495	75	286.60		
Total	30167	76			

a. Dependent Variable: Total Satisfaction
b. Predictors: (Constant), Transformational Leadership

Table 5

Transformational Leadership: Model Coefficients[a]

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			95% Confidence Interval for B			
Model	*B*	Std. Error	Beta	*t*	*p*	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	80.12	6.86		11.68	0.00	66.45	93.79		
TFL	2.54	0.46	0.54	5.50	0.00	1.69	3.46	1.00	0.00

Note: TFL = Transformational Leadership
b. Dependent Variable: Total Satisfaction

Research Question 2.

RQ2: To what extent does the administrators' transactional leadership style, as perceived by the online adjunct faculty who report to them and measured by the MLQ (5X), predict the overall job satisfaction of the same online adjunct faculty, as measured by the JSS, in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States?

$H2_0$: There is no statistically significant predictive relationship between the administrators' transactional leadership style and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

H2a: There is a statistically significant predictive relationship between the administrators' transactional leadership style and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

A simple linear regression was performed with the dependent variable (criterion) of total satisfaction and the independent variable (predictor) of transactional leadership (Tables 6 - 8). The regression equation for the simple linear regression model corresponding to the second research question was: TotSat = -0.33 (Transactional Leadership) + 118.22. The results indicated that the model was not statistically significant for total satisfaction regressed onto the predictor of transactional leadership, $F(1, 75) = 0.03$, $p = 0.86$, adjusted $R^2 < 0.01$, $\beta = -0.02$, $t = -0.18$, $p = 0.86$. Consequently, the researcher accepted null hypothesis 2. There was not sufficient evidence to indicate that there was a statistically significant predictive relationship between the administrators' transactional leadership style and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

Table 6

Transactional Leadership: Bivariate Linear Regression Model Summary[b]

Model	*R*	*R* Squared	Adjusted *R* Squared	Std. Error	Durbin - Watson
1	0.02[a]	0.00	0.00	20.05	1.99

a. Predictors: (Constant), Transactional Leadership
b. Dependent Variable: Total Satisfaction

Table 7

Transactional Leadership: Model ANOVA[a]

Model	Sum of Squares	*df*	Mean Square	*F*	Sig.
1 Regression	13.59	1	13.59	0.03	0.86[b]
Residual	30154	75	402.00		
Total	30167	76			

a. Dependent Variable: Total Satisfaction
b. Predictors: (Constant), Transactional Leadership

Table 8

Transactional Leadership: Model Coefficients[a]

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			95% Confidence Interval for B			
Model	*B*	Std. Error	Beta	*t*	*p*	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	118.20	10.46		11.30	0.00	97.37	139.10		
TAL	-0.33	1.78	-0.02	-0.18	0.86	-3.87	3.21	1.00	1.00

Note: TAL = Transactional Leadership
b. Dependent Variable: Total Satisfaction

Research Question 3.

RQ3: To what extent does the administrators' laissez-faire leadership style, as perceived by the online adjunct faculty who report to them and measured by the MLQ (5X), predict the overall job satisfaction of the same online adjunct faculty, as measured by the JSS, in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States?

$H3_0$: There is no statistically significant predictive relationship between the administrators' laissez-faire leadership style and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

H3a: There is a statistically significant predictive relationship between the administrators' laissez-faire leadership style and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

A simple linear regression was performed with the dependent variable (criterion) of total satisfaction and the independent variable (predictor) of laissez-faire leadership (Tables 9 - 11). The regression equation for simple linear regression model corresponding to the third research question was: TotSat = -4.82 (Laissez-faire Leadership) + 143.22. The results of the simple linear regression model corresponding to the third research question were statistically significant, F (1, 75) = 12.07, p = 0.01, adjusted R^2 = 0.13, β = -0.37, t = -3.47, p = 0.01. The adjusted R^2 value indicated that approximately 13% of the variance in the dependent variable of total satisfaction was accounted for by the laissez-faire leadership variable. The standardized Beta, β = -0.37, was statistically significant and indicated that a change of one standard deviation in laissez-faire leadership resulted in a 0.37 standard deviations decrease in job satisfaction. The size and direction of the relationship between total satisfaction and laissez-faire leadership suggested that faculty job satisfaction decreased when their assessment of the administrators' laissez-faire leadership increased.

The predictor of laissez-faire leadership was statistically significant for the outcome of total satisfaction; therefore, the researcher rejected Null Hypothesis 3. There was sufficient evidence to indicate that there was a statistically significant predictive relationship between the administrators' laissez-faire leadership style and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

Table 9

Laissez-faire: Bivariate Linear Regression Model Summary[b]

Model	*R*	*R Squared*	Adjusted *R* Squared	Standard Error	Durbin - Watson
1	0.37[a]	0.14	0.13	18.61	1.99

a. Predictors: (Constant), Laissez-faire Leadership
b. Dependent Variable: Total Satisfaction

Table 10

Laissez-faire Leadership: Model ANOVA[a]

Model	Sum of Squares	*df*	Mean Square	*F*	Sig.
1 Regression	4181	1	4181	12.07	0.01[b]
Residual	25986	75	346.50		
Total	30167	76			

a. Dependent Variable: Total Satisfaction
b. Predictors: (Constant), Laissez-faire Leadership

Table 11

Laissez-faire Leadership: Model Coefficients[a]

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			95% Confidence Interval for B			
Model	*B*	Std. Error	Beta	*t*	*p*	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	143.20	8.03		17.85	0.00	127.20	159.20		
LAF	-4.82	1.39	-0.37	-3.47	0.01	-7.59	-2.06	1.00	1.00

Note: LAF = Laissez-faire Leadership
b. Dependent Variable: Total Satisfaction

Table 12

Summary Table of the Simple Linear Regression Models Related to the Research Questions

			95% CI for *B*		
RQ	*Adj* R^2	β	LCL	UCL	Regression Model
Research Q1	0.29	0.54	1.62	3.46	TotSat = 80.12 + 2.54(TFL)
Research Q2	<0.01	-0.02	-3.87	3.21	TotSat = 118.22 + -0.33(TAL)
Research Q3	0.14	-0.37	-7.59	-2.06	TotSat = 143.22 + -4.82(LAF)

Note. TotSat = Total Overall Job Satisfaction; TFL = Transformational Leadership; TAL = Transactional Leadership; LAF = Laissez-faire Leadership

Summary

Chapter 4 began with a description of the population and participants in the study (*N* = 77). Following the report of the population and sample, the MLQ (5x) and JSS instruments were briefly discussed. The inferential analysis variable constructs of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership, and overall job satisfaction were briefly defined. Information pertaining to required assumptions for the inferential analyses were presented and discussed. All assumptions for simple linear regression were met.

Analysis of the descriptive statistics found the sample rated transactional leadership as the most used overall style of leadership (*M* = 2.87), followed by transformational leadership (*M* = 2.85), and laissez-faire leadership (*M* = 2.79). Although the respondents indicated ambivalence about their overall job satisfaction (*M* = 116.34), the results indicated they were satisfied with the intrinsic dimension of Nature of the Work (*M* = 19.17) and the extrinsic dimension of Coworkers (*M* = 17.52). The lowest rated job dimensions were the extrinsic dimensions of Pay (*M* = 8.47) and Promotion (*M* = 8.75).

Following the descriptive and assumption sections, inferential analyses were performed using three simple regression to address the three research questions and statistical hypothesis of this study. All inferential analyses were performed using SPSS v. 22 statistical software. All inferential analyses were set at a 95% level of significance. The result of hypothesis testing followed as they related to individual research hypothesis.

The regression results of the simple linear regression model corresponding to the first research question were statistically significant, F (1, 75) = 30.26, $p < 0.01$, adjusted $R^2 = 0.29$, $\beta = 0.54$, $t = 5.50$, and indicated that increases of administrators' transformational leadership styles were significantly associated with increases in total satisfaction of the faculty. The regression results of the simple linear regression model corresponding to the third research question were also statistically significant, F (1, 75) = 12.07, $p = 0.01$, adjusted $R^2 = 0.13$, $\beta = -0.37$, $t = -3.47$, $p = 0.01$, and indicated that increases of administrators' laissez-faire leadership styles were significantly associated with decreases in total satisfaction of the faculty. There was no significant relationship between transactional leadership and job satisfaction, F(1, 75) = 0.03, $p = 0.86$, adjusted $R^2 <.01$, $\beta = -0.02$, $t = -0.18$, $p = 0.86$, although the transactional leadership Cronbach's ($\alpha = 0.69$) indicated a possible limitation of the study, which must be taken into consideration when examining the results of R2.

Chapter 5 concludes the research with a summary of the data, a discussion of the results, and a conclusion. Conclusions drawn from the findings, implications for leadership styles of administrators on faculty satisfaction, and a discussion of any significant predictive relationships between job satisfaction and leadership characteristics

will be included in Chapter 5. A discussion of the findings, the benefits of the results, the recommendations to leadership based on the research, and the recommendations for the future studies will also be addressed.

Chapter 5: Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

For-profit university enrollment has tripled since 2000, with enrollment exceeding 1.5 million students as of 2014 (National Center for Education Statistics, 2016). The increased enrollment, combined with the popularity of online education, has created an increase in online classes (Allen & Seaman, 2016), and in the number of adjunct faculty required to meet the demands of enrollment (Starcher & Mandernach, 2016). Despite the increased use of adjunct faculty, few studies have examined their job satisfaction, work experiences, or development (Datray et al., 2014; Rich, 2015). Similarly, Chung (2012) observed a lack of research in the for-profit sector of higher education. The researcher was prompted to investigate the effect of leadership on the job satisfaction of online adjuncts because of the limited amount of research in the for-profit sector of higher education (Chung, 2012) and on adjunct faculty who teach online classes (Rich, 2015).

This research investigated to what extent the transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors of higher education administrators, as perceived by online adjunct faculty, predicted the overall job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty who report to them at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States. Prior to this research, relatively few studies examining the effect of leadership on employee job satisfaction have taken place in institutions of higher education (Alonderiene & Majauskaite, 2016). This lack of research is significant because a university's faculty is an important resource and a major contributor to the success of the institution (Al-Smadi & Qbian, 2015). This study explored transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership's ability to predict the job satisfaction of adjunct faculty who teach online

classes at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States by asking the following research questions:

RQ1: To what extent does the administrators' transformational leadership style, as perceived by the online adjunct faculty who report to them and measured by the MLQ (5X), predict the overall job satisfaction of the same online adjunct faculty, as measured by the JSS, in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States?

RQ2: To what extent does the administrators' transactional leadership style, as perceived by the online adjunct faculty who report to them and measured by the MLQ (5X), predict the overall job satisfaction of the same online adjunct faculty, as measured by the JSS, in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States?

RQ3: To what extent does the administrators' laissez-faire leadership style, as perceived by the online adjunct faculty who report to them and measured by the MLQ (5X), predict the overall job satisfaction of the same online adjunct faculty, as measured by the JSS, in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States?

Information gained from this study may help for-profit universities design effective leadership development programs, which may increase the job satisfaction of adjunct faculty who teach online classes. The findings of this study add to the body of knowledge on leadership and job satisfaction in an under researched demographic. Moreover, the results of this research have produced recommendations for additional research in the area. The remainder of this chapter provides a summary of the study and

research, as well as implications, recommendations, and conclusions obtained from the findings of this study. Limitations of the study are examined and recommendations for future practice and research are offered.

Summary of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative, non-experimental correlational study was to examine to what extent online faculty members' perceptions of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership style of higher education administrators predicted the overall job satisfaction of the online adjunct faculty who reported to them at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States. Bateh and Heyliger (2014) suggested the need to examine the perceived effects of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors on the job satisfaction of the faculty in for-profit higher education. Additionally, Rich (2015) observed the need for research on the factors that affect the job satisfaction of adjunct faculty, and particularly online adjuncts who might have different experiences than adjuncts teaching in a traditional environment.

The researcher investigated the foundational theories of the Full Range Leadership theory, Herzberg's Motivation/Hygiene theory, and Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. An extensive review of current research was performed, and a synthesis of current and foundational research was accomplished. The researcher then performed research to investigate the predictive relationship between administrative leadership behaviors and online adjunct faculty job satisfaction.

To investigate the research problem, which was a lack of research concerning the effects of administrative leadership on the job satisfaciton of online adjunct faculty at a for-profit university, the researcher first obtained written permission from the IRBs of

Grand Canyon University (GCU) and the research site. The point of contact at the research site then sent invitations to 800 adjunct faculty members who taught online classes. The invitation provided a summary of the research and included a link that directed the participants to the survey, which was hosted on the SurveyMonkey website.

The survey began with a statement of informed consent and consisted of two reliable, valid instruments: the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire 5x short (MLQ (5X)) and the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS). These instruments measured perceptions of leadership behaviors and job satisfaction from a purposive sample of adjunct faculty who taught online classes at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States. After downloading and cleaning the data, the researcher used the SPSS v. 22 software to test the assumptions for three linear regression models, and perform three singular simple linear regressions to answer the following research questions:

RQ1: To what extent does the administrators' transformational leadership style, as perceived by the online adjunct faculty who report to them and measured by the MLQ (5X), predict the overall job satisfaction of the same online adjunct faculty, as measured by the JSS, in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States?

RQ2: To what extent does the administrators' transactional leadership style, as perceived by the online adjunct faculty who report to them and measured by the MLQ (5X), predict the overall job satisfaction of the same online adjunct faculty, as measured by the JSS, in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States?

RQ3: To what extent does the administrators' laissez-faire leadership style, as perceived by the online adjunct faculty who report to them and measured by the MLQ (5X), predict the overall job satisfaction of the same online adjunct faculty, as measured by the JSS, in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States?

The remainder of Chapter 5 will provide a summary of the findings and conclusions of the study. The chapter continues with a discussion of the implications of the study. The chapter concludes with recommendations for future research and practice.

Summary of Findings and Conclusion

This section of Chapter 5 is organized by the descriptive data and research questions associated with this study, and provides a summary of the key findings based on the analysis of data that was provided in Chapter 4. Based on the data analysis, the researcher then drew conclusions based on the results. The researcher then examined and compared the results with existing research on leadership and job satisfaction.

Descriptive Analysis. As shown in Chapter 4, the adjunct faculty who taught online classes for a for-profit university in the Midwest United States exhibited ambivalence, neither satisfied or not satisfied, about their job satisfaction (M=116.34). Spector (1997) suggested interpreting the JSS results as follows: For the 4-item subscales with a range from a mean of 4 to 24, mean scores of 4 to 12 are dissatisfied, 16 to 24 are satisfied, and between 12 and 16 are ambivalent. For the 36-item total where possible mean scores range from 36 to 216, the ranges are 36 to 108 for dissatisfaction, 144 to 216 for satisfaction, and between 108 and 144 indicating ambivalence. There were only two dimensions of job satisfaction, nature of the work (M = 19.17) and coworkers (M =

17.52), that the respondents indicated satisfaction. The respondents indicated ambivalence about supervision (*M*=15.16), operating conditions (*M* = 12.91), and communication (*M* = 13.65). The respondents rated the factors of pay (*M* = 8.47), promotion (*M* = 8.75), fringe benefits (*M* = 10.27), and contingent rewards (*M* = 10.66) as dissatisfied.

An examination of how the adjunct faculty who taught online classes at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States perceived they were being led are as follows: Transactional leadership (*M* = 2.87) was rated the perceived most used form of leadership, followed closely by transformational leadership *(M* = 2.85) and laissez-faire leadership (*M* = 2.79). The transformational dimension of inspirational motivation was rated as the highest perceived individual facet of leadership exhibited by the direct supervisor of the respondents (*M* = 3.30), followed closely by the transactional dimension of active management by exception (*M* = 3.06) and the laissez-faire dimension of passive management by exception (*M* = 3.04). The transformational dimensions of idealized attributes (*M* = 2.96), idealized behaviors (*M* = 2.82) were the next highest perceived leadership behaviors displayed, followed by the transactional aspect of contingent reward (*M* = 2.69) and the transformational dimension of intellectual stimulation (*M* = 2 67). The lowest rated leadership behaviors were laissez-faire (*M* = 2.54) and the transformational aspect of individualized consideration (*M* = 2.52).

The findings indicated that even though transactional leadership was the highest perceived overall style of leadership exhibited by the direct supervisors of online adjunct faculty at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States, the scores for overall transformational and laissez-faire leadership were close to that of transactional

leadership. This fact indicated that all three leadership styles were viewed by the respondents as being similarly used by their superiors, which aligns with the work of Bass (1985), who stated leaders use all three forms of leadership. This observation is confirmed by the fact that the behaviors ranked as most used by respondents were the transformational dimension of inspirational motivation, the transactional dimension of active management by exception, and the laissez-faire behavior of passive management by exception. Likewise, the lowest rated dimensions were the transactional dimension of contingent reward, the transformational aspect of intellectual stimulation, the laissez-faire leadership dimension of laissez-faire, and the transformational aspect of individualized consideration.

The second conclusion drawn is that the respondents were largely dissatisfied with the transactional dimension of the contingent rewards aspects of their job, as displayed by the low ratings of the extrinsic dimensions of contingent rewards, pay, promotion, and fringe benefits. These low ratings, along with the high rating of active management by exception, may explain why transactional leadership displayed no significant relationship to overall job satisfaction. Moreover, the intrinsic values of the nature of the work and co-workers were the highest rated dimension of job satisfaction, which are generally not affected by transactional leadership. Despite this conclusion, the Cronbach value ($\alpha = 0.69$) associated with overall transactional leadership must be taken into account as a limitation when interrupting these results. While these descriptive statistics provided an insight into the overall perceptions of the 77 participants in this research study about the transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors exhibited by their direct superiors and the perceptions of their job, the

researcher conducted additional data analysis to answer the research questions and hypotheses that guided this research study.

Research Question 1. The first research question investigated the predictive relationship between the perceived transformational leadership behavior of the direct supervisors of online adjunct faculty at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States and overall job satisfaction of the same faculty. The researcher hypothesized overall transformational leadership behaviors would have a significant predictive relationship on the overall job satisfaction of adjunct faculty who teach online classes at a for-profit university in the Midwest United states. To answer this question, the researcher performed a single simple linear regression.

The adjusted R-squared value of 0.29 indicated that approximately 29% of the variability in the dependent variable of total satisfaction was predicted by the transformational leadership variable. Transformational leadership was shown to be a significant predictor of overall job satisfaction, F (1, 75) = 30.26, $p < 0.01$, adjusted R^2 = 0.29, $\beta = 0.54$, $t = 5.50$, $p < 0.01$. The size and direction of the relationship between overall job satisfaction and transformational leadership suggested faculty job satisfaction increased when their assessment of their direct superior's transformational leadership increased. The standardized Beta, $\beta = 0.55$, was statistically significant and indicated that a change of one standard deviation in transformational leadership resulted in a 0.55 standard deviations increase in job satisfaction.

The results indicated there was a significantly positive relationship between perceived transformational leadership behavior and overall job satisfaction; therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. The use of transformational leadership by higher education

administrators significantly increases the overall job satisfaction of their followers. The researcher concluded transformational leadership behaviors were beneficial to the overall job satisfaction of adjunct faculty who teach online classes at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

Research Question 2. The second research question investigated the predictive relationship between perceived transactional leadership behaviors and the overall job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States. The researcher hypothesized transactional leadership behaviors would have a significant predictive relationship with overall job satisfaction. To answer this question, the researcher performed a single simple linear regression.

The R value for regression (.02) was not significantly different from zero, which indicated there is no predictive relationship between transactional leadership and overall job satisfaction. Transactional leadership was shown to not be a significant predictor of job satisfaction, F (1, 75) = 0.03, p = 0.86, adjusted $R^2 < 0.01$, β = -0.02, t = -0.18, p = 0.86; therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. An important observation is the results may be inaccurate because of the slightly low Cronbach's value (α = 0.69) for overall transactional leadership, which must be taken into consideration when evaluating the results of this portion of the study.

Research Question 3. The third research question asked if there was a predictive relationship between laissez-faire leadership and overall job satisfaction. The researcher hypothesized there would be a significant predictive relationship between laissez-faire leadership behavior and the overall job satisfaction of adjunct faculty who teach online classes at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States. As with the previous

research questions, the researcher performed a single simple linear regression analysis to answer the research question.

The adjusted R-square value of 0.13 indicated that approximately 13% of the variability in the dependent variable of total satisfaction was predicted by the laissez-faire leadership variable. The laissez-faire leadership predictor was significant, F (1, 75) = 12.07, p = 0.01, adjusted R^2 = 0.13, β = -0.37, t = -3.47, p = 0.01. The size and direction of the relationship between total satisfaction and laissez-faire leadership indicated faculty job satisfaction decreased when their assessment of the administrators' laissez-faire leadership increased. The standardized Beta, β = -0.37, was statistically significant and indicated that a change of one standard deviation in laissez-faire leadership resulted in a 0.37 standard deviations decrease in job satisfaction.

The results indicated a significantly negative relationship between perceived laissez-faire leadership behavior and overall job satisfaction; therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. The use of laissez-faire leadership by higher education administrators significantly decreased the overall job satisfaction of their followers. The researcher concluded laissez-faire leadership behaviors were detrimental to the overall job satisfaction of adjunct faculty who teach online classes at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

Conclusion. Leadership behaviors and the job satisfaction of employees at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States is an under-researched population, and a lack of research exists on the topic. The previously described findings have contributed to the body of knowledge on leadership and job satisfaction by generating empirical data concerning the effect of perceived transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire

leadership behaviors of for-profit higher education administrators and its relationship to the overall job satisfaction of adjunct faculty who teach online classes. This research has provided valuable insights into the relationship of leadership behaviors and job satisfaction. Based on the findings of this study, the researcher drew the following conclusions.

First, the online adjunct faculty at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States are less satisfied than the norm. Spector (1997) stated the norm for studies using the JSS in higher education was (M = 137.20), while the online adjunct faculty in this study expressed an overall job satisfaction rating of (M = 116.34). These results show that the online adjunct faculty were less satisfied than the norm, and according to Spector (1997) expressed ambivalence about their job satisfaction. Additionally, the high ratings of nature of work and co-workers conforms to the previous study of Rich (2015) who found adjuncts rely on other adjuncts for support and are motivated by their work. The low ratings of pay, fringe benefits, promotion, and contingent rewards aligns with previous research that found adjuncts seldom receive raises, lack retirement benefits and health insurance (Amin et al., 2013; Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Dussault & Frenette, 2015; Masum et al., 2015), and are paid less than full-time faculty (Halcrow & Olson, 2008; Kezar, 2013b; Morton, 2012).

Secondly this study revealed transformational leadership had a statistically significant, and positive relationship with overall job satisfaction. The findings indicated that as transformational leadership is exhibited by leadership, the overall job satisfaction of employees' increased. This is consistent with other studies that found transformational leadership to be beneficial to employee job satisfaction (Aydin et al., 2013; Banks et al.,

2016; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Ding et al., 2017; Hijazi et al., 2016; Hobman et al., 2012; Muterera et al., 2015; Omar & Hussin, 2013; Shurbagi, 2014; Viswanathan & Lal, 2016). The regression findings for transformational leadership have advanced scientific knowledge by providing valuable insights into the relationship between the perceived transformational leadership behaviors of higher education administrators and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty at the for-profit university that participated in this research.

Third, this study revealed that transactional leadership did not have a statistically significant relationship with employee job satisfaction. This contradicts previous studies that found transactional leadership to be beneficial to employee job satisfaction (Aydin et al., 2013; Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Sakiru et al., 2014) or detrimental to employee job satisfaction (Hijazi et al., 2016; Saleem, 2015), and affirms previous studies that found transactional leadership to display a statistically insignificant relationship with job satisfaction (Amin et al., 2013; Tetteh & Brenyah, 2016). The result of this regression also added to the body of knowledge by providing data that indicated transactional leadership is ineffectual in promoting employee job satisfaction.

Fourth, this study displayed results that displayed the negative effects of laissez-faire leadership on job satisfaction. The results found that as laissez-faire leadership behaviors increased, job satisfaction decreased. These results are like other studies that found laissez-faire to be detrimental to employee job satisfaction (Amin et al., 2013; Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Dussault & Frenette, 2015; Masum et al., 2015). The result of this finding added to the body of knowledge by reinforcing the findings that indicate laissez-faire leadership should be avoided in organizations.

Lastly, the similar scores in overall transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors confirmed the work of Burns (1978) and Avolio and Bass (2004) who professed that leaders exhibit all three leadership behaviors to a degree. Likewise, the utility of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, developed by Avolio and Bass (2004), is confirmed in identifying leadership variables that may be beneficial or detrimental in influencing job satisfaction. This knowledge could prove beneficial to leaders who wish to improve the job satisfaction of their faculty.

This study confirmed the importance of transformational leadership and its positive relationship to job satisfaction, as shown in prior studies (Aydin et al., 2013; Banks et al., 2016; Bass & Avolio, 1993; Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Ding et al., 2017; Hijazi et al., 2016; Hobman et al., 2012; Muterera et al., 2015; Omar & Hussin, 2013; Shurbagi, 2014; Viswanathan & Lal, 2016). The study also confirmed the findings of previous research (Amin et al., 2013; Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Dussault & Frenette, 2015; Masum et al., 2015) that found laissez-faire leadership detrimental to the job satisfaction of employees. The results of this study could be used by administrators to identify variables that increase job satisfaction in for-profit universities. Moreover, the knowledge provided by this research may help leaders in higher education design effective leadership programs that encourage the use of transformational leadership, while emphasizing the negative results of laissez-faire leadership behaviors.

Implications

This section examines the findings of this research study as they pertain to theoretical, practical, and future implications. Theoretically, there is an examination of the Full Range Leadership theory, Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene theory, and Maslow's

Hierarchy of Needs, and how the findings of this study advance scientific knowledge. The practical implications of this study are examined to provide insight on how the findings may be used to address leadership and job satisfaction for online adjuncts in a for-profit university in the Midwest United States. Lastly, the future implications are examined to provide possibilities for future research on this topic.

Theoretical implications. This study was focused on the leadership theoretical foundation of the Full Range Leadership theory. Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene theory and Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs served as the theoretical foundations for job satisfaction. The findings of this study are examined in the context of each foundational theory, and the strengths and weaknesses of this study are examined.

The Full Range Leadership theory (FRLT) is one of the best-formulated theories of leadership (Moynihan et al., 2012). Bass (1985) stated leaders exhibit three different types of leadership to one extent or another. Drawing from the work of Burns (1978) who established the terms transformational and transactional leadership, Bass (1985) professed transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire behaviors were not mutually exclusive; leaders could, and do, use aspects of each style. Bass's FRLT was refined by Bass and Avolio (1994) and Avolio and Bass (2004) to better recognize the individual leadership attributes. According to Bass and Avolio (1994), transformational leadership is composed of five dimensions: behavioral idealized influence, attributed idealized influence, inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation. Transactional leadership dimensions include contingent reward, active management by exception, and passive management by exception. Laissez-faire leadership, generally considered a non-leadership style, was initially investigated by

itself, but Avolio and Bass (2004), in their refinement of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire 5x short (MLQ (5X)), removed passive management by exception from transactional leadership and added it as a laissez-faire behavior for measuring leadership behaviors in organizations.

Transformational leadership denotes how leaders strive to meet the higher-order needs of their followers (Banks et al., 2016). Transformational leadership is based on trust, acknowledgement, encouragement, and commendation (Mujkić et al., 2014), and motivates followers to achieve their higher potential (Burns, 1978). Bass (1999) stated transformational leadership is effective in post-secondary education, and recent studies have confirmed this finding (Alonderiene & Majauskaite, 2016; Hijazi et al., 2016; Sakiru et al., 2014; Saleem, 2015). This current study confirmed recent research findings and the findings of Bass (1999).

This current study confirmed the work of previous researchers (Aydin et al., 2013; Banks et al., 2016; Bass & Avolio, 1993; Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Ding et al., 2017; Hijazi et al., 2016; Hobman et al., 2012; Muterera et al., 2015; Omar & Hussin, 2013; Shurbagi, 2014; Viswanathan & Lal, 2016) who found transformational leaders promote higher overall follower job satisfaction. The regression for transformational leadership from this study found transformational leadership was statistically significant in predicting overall job satisfaction. The standardized beta of $\beta = 0.55$ indicated that a change of one standard deviation in transformational leadership resulted in a 0.55 standard deviations increase in job satisfaction. ($p < 0.001$). This finding confirmed previous research that demonstrated the benefits of transformational leadership in higher

education, and confirmed there is a significant positive relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction.

Transactional leadership motivates followers by using promises, praises, and rewards to fulfill follower self-interest and realize organizational goals (Burns, 1978). The foundation of transactional leadership is an agreement, or exchange, with followers that states what an individual will receive for acceptable performance, as well as punishments for unsatisfactory performance (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Leaders precisely define all job duties, benefits, and codes of discipline (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Transactional leadership has provided mixed results in organizations. Researchers have found transactional leadership to have a positive relationship with job satisfaction (Aydin et al., 2013), a negative relationship with job satisfaction (Saleem, 2015), and have also found transactional leadership to be ineffective in promoting job satisfaction in higher education (Amin et al., 2013). This study added to the body of knowledge on transformational leadership and confirmed the work of Amin et al. (2013), who found no statistically significant relationship between transactional leadership and overall job satisfaction. The regression for this study found no statistically significant relationship between transactional leadership and the overall job satisfaction of online adjuncts at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

Laissez-faire leadership indicates the avoidance and absence of leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Individuals who use laissez-faire leadership behaviors typically avoid responsibility and delay acting. Laissez-faire leaders are inattentive, indifferent, inactive, uninfluential, and absent when their presence is required. They do not give feedback to their charges and do not attempt to develop their followers (Bass, 1990). Generally,

laissez-faire leadership behaviors have proven ineffective in organizations, even though these behaviors are still exhibited by some managers (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014). Recent research found laissez-faire leadership to be associated with negative effects in promoting job satisfaction in followers (Amin et al., 2013; Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Dussault & Frenette, 2015; Masum et al., 2015).

This study confirmed previous research on the relationship between laissez-faire leadership and overall job satisfaction, which found laissez-faire leadership to have a negative relationship with overall job satisfaction (Amin et al., 2013; Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Dussault & Frenette, 2015; Masum et al., 2015). The regression for this study found a standardized Beta, β = -0.37, which indicated that a change of one standard deviation in laissez-faire leadership resulted in a 0.37 standard deviations decrease in job satisfaction. (p = 0.01). This study added to the body of knowledge on laissez-faire leadership by confirming prior studies that indicate laissez-faire leadership behaviors are detrimental to job satisfaction, and should be avoided by leaders.

Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory, also known as the two-factor or dual-factor theory, identified and examined the motivation and hygiene elements that increased or decreased employee satisfaction (Derby-Davis, 2014). Herzberg et al. (1959) stated dissatisfaction and satisfaction, although related, are completely different issues. Herzberg stated there are two types of factors that influence motivation and satisfaction: motivators and hygiene factors. Motivation factors are the intrinsic factors of the job that increase satisfaction if present, but do not necessarily promote dissatisfaction if absent. Motivation factors consist of responsibility, achievement, recognition, growth, the work itself, and recognition (Herzberg et al., 1959). Hygiene factors are extrinsic factors that

include the job factors of relationship with peers, salary, relationships with superiors, supervision, personal life, relationship with subordinates, status, security, organizational policy and administration, and working conditions (Herzberg et al., 1959).

Herzberg's theory stated an employer could not improve an employee's job satisfaction by only addressing hygiene factors. Instead, leadership must focus on raising the levels of the six motivational (intrinsic) factors (Herzberg et al., 1959). This study added to the body of knowledge by finding transformational leadership, which primarily focuses on intrinsic motivators, was the sole predictor of overall job satisfaction. Additionally, the descriptive statistics of this study found the nature of work (*M*=19.17), a motivator as stated by Herzberg et al. (1959), was the highest rated factor of job satisfaction of the participants in this research. Coworkers (*M*=17.52), a hygiene dimension, was the only other factor that the respondents indicated satisfaction. The respondents indicated ambivalence about the hygiene factors of supervision (*M*=15.16), operating conditions (*M*=12.91), and communication (*M*=13.65). The respondents also rated the extrinsic hygiene factors of pay (*M* = 8.47), fringe benefits (*M*=10.27), and contingent rewards (*M*=10.66), and the intrinsic motivation factor of promotion (*M*=8.75), as dissatisfied. Herzberg et al. (1959) stated that the absence of hygiene factors promote dissatisfaction, and the presence of motivators increases satisfaction. In this study, the hygiene factors of pay, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, communication, and supervision, along with the motivator factor of promotion, all rated as ambivalent or dissatisfied. Only two factors, nature of work and co-workers, rated as satisfied. The absence of the hygiene factors rated as satisfied in this study, in addition to the absence of motivators that were rated as satisfied, increased

dissatisfaction, or at the very least discouraged satisfaction, which added to the body of knowledge on this theory.

Maslow (1943) believed factors unrelated to unconscious desires or rewards motivate individuals. Maslow (1943) stated individuals are motivated to fulfill specific needs. When an individual satisfies one need, they then seek to satisfy the next higher order need. This continues until an individual fulfills the final need of self-actualization. Maslow (1943) stated the lowest level needs are the physiological and biological needs of food, drink, air, warmth, sex, shelter, and sleep. The next highest are safety needs, which are comprised of security, law, order, stability, elimination of fear, and shelter from the environment. The next highest needs are friendship, love, family, friends, romance, intimacy, friendship, and work group relations. Esteem needs, the next highest, are composed of mastery, achievement, status, independence, prestige, self-respect, respect from others, and dominance. The final need is self-actualization or self-fulfillment.

This research study added to the body of scientific knowledge by agreeing with Thielke et al. (2012) who found empirical research does not validate Maslow's theory. In this study, the low order needs of pay and fringe benefits are not fulfilled, and the higher order need of promotion is also rated as dissatisfied. The higher order need of nature of work is satisfied, as is the higher order need of co-workers. The results of this study indicated that higher order needs were fulfilled, even though the lower order needs remained absent, which is contrary to Maslow's theory.

Examination of this research study identified several strengths of this study. First, this study used a quantitative methodology and a correlational design. This approach was consistent with other researchers who examined relationships between leadership

behaviors and employee job satisfaction in various types of organizations (Aydin et al., 2013; Banks et al., 2016; Bateh & Heyliger, 2014; Hobman et al., 2012; Omar & Hussin, 2013; Shurbagi, 2014). This quantitative correlational research allowed the researcher to collect a large amount of data that was statistically analyzed to answer the three research questions and test the corresponding hypotheses of this study. The researcher was then able to draw general conclusions about the perceived relationship between the transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors of higher education administrators and the job satisfaction of the sample participants, which is representative of the target population of adjunct faculty who teach online classes for a for-profit university in the Midwest United States.

Secondly, the data collection process was a strength of this study. The use of an online survey instrument allowed the researcher to collect data from adjunct faculty located in different geographic locations. Additionally, the survey could collect data at all hours. This approach made it easy for respondents to participate in the study, and allowed the researcher to collect data from adjunct faculty who may have not been able to participate if a different method of data collection was used.

Third, the sample size of 77 respondents was sufficient to perform simple regression analysis at a confidence level of 95%. According to G*Power 3.1.9.2 (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009), using a 95% confidence level ($\alpha = 0.05$), medium effect size of $f^2 = 0.015$, and a power of 0.95 ($\beta = 0.05$), the minimum sample that was recommended for simple multiple regression was 74 participants (Figure 1). The 77 respondents who filled out the survey completely surpassed the minimum acceptable level of participation.

Fourth, this research further confirmed the reliability and validity of the MLQ (5x) and JSS to measure overall values of leadership and job satisfaction. As seen in Table 2, the overall alpha value for transformational leadership was 0.95, and the overall alpha value for laissez-faire leadership was 0.79. The overall alpha value for transactional leadership, 0.69, was slightly below the minimum acceptable alpha value of 0.70, but both constructs of transactional leadership surpassed the 0.70 threshold at 0.73 for contingent reward and 0.77 for active management by exception. The alpha value for overall job satisfaction was 0.90, which surpassed the minimum standard.

Lastly, this study addressed a gap in existing knowledge by providing insight into the predictive relationship of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors and the job satisfaction of online faculty at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States. This research is notable because of the lack of research in the for-profit sector of higher education (Chung, 2012), and the lack of empirical research on the job satisfaction of adjunct faculty who teach online classes (Rich, 2015). For-profit education continues to expand (Gilpin et al., 2015), and the use of adjunct faculty to teach online classes has increased (Liftig, 2014). This study provided empirical findings and insights regarding the under-researched population of adjunct faculty who teach online classes at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States, which is arguably the greatest strength of this study.

The researcher must acknowledge some weaknesses of this study, along with the strengths. The first weakness of this research study is the researcher only used a quantitative methodology to collect and analyze data. While this approach yielded a large amount of numeric data, the addition of a qualitative methodology would have added

insight to this study. A qualitative design would have allowed the researcher to examine the feelings and thoughts of individual adjunct faculty, which a quantitative method could not provide. This information would have provided information that may have been used to explain or strengthen the conclusions of this research study.

A second weakness is the researcher only investigated one university. This purposive sampling method allowed the researcher to collect data from adjunct faculty who teach online classes at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States. Although this approach worked for this study, the results and conclusions of this study cannot be generalized to other institutions or faculty.

A third weakness of this research is the Cronbach alpha value for transactional leadership. The overall alpha value for transactional leadership, 0.69, was slightly below the minimum acceptable alpha value of 0.70. Even though both constructs of transactional leadership surpassed the 0.70 threshold at 0.73 for contingent reward and 0.77 for active management by exception, the limitation and weakness remains. Any conclusions concerning transactional leadership must take this slightly low alpha value into consideration.

Practical implications. The practical implications of this research study align with the constructs of the FRLT, which were examined in Chapter 2. The findings of this study showed transformational leadership had a positive relationship and laissez-faire leadership had a negative relationship to the job satisfaction of adjunct faculty who teach online classes at a for-profit university in the Midwest United States. This study providedpractical implications for the selection, assessment, and development of higher education administrators.

A practical implication would be to identify individuals who display transformational leadership behaviors, which include idealized individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, idealized influence, and inspirational motivation. Another practical application is to design professional development classes for prospective and current academic leaders. This development is important because most academic leaders are former faculty who assume the position with little business or management training (Thrasher, 2017), prior executive experience, leadership training, or an implicit understanding of their role (Gmelch, 2015). Recent research concluded that leadership development provides statistically significant increases in transformational leadership behaviors (MacKie, 2015). Training in the use in transformational leadership is important because in addition to the benefits to employee job satisfaction, the use of transformational leadership has been shown to increase task performance (Braun et al., 2013), innovation (Mohamed, 2016), organizational commitment (Asaari et al., 2016; Aydin et al., 2013; Dai et al., 2013), and leadership effectiveness (Banks et al., 2016; Nguyen et al., 2017). Professional development that includes training in transformational leadership could provide many benefits for an institution of higher education beyond employee job satisfaction.

Future implications. Future implications were based on the findings of this study, and from what this research did not discover. Based on the finding that transformational leadership significantly predicted an increase in job satisfaction, post-secondary institutions should consider professional development targeting potential and current leaders. Additionally, higher education organizations should conduct an examination of current behaviors exhibited by leadership by use of 360 degree feedback

obtained from their faculty and staff. This information may prove useful in understanding the perceptions of their employees, and address any problem areas in the organization.

Another implication is to examine factors besides leadership that affect job satisfaction. As seen in the descriptive section of Chapter 4, adjunct faculty expressed dissatisfaction with they pay, fringe benefits, and chances for promotion. This dissatisfaction is notable because despite the increased use of adjunct faculty, adjuncts seldom receive raises, retirement benefits, or health insurance (Halcrow & Olson, 2008; Kezar, 2013b; Morton, 2012). The academic community does not support adjuncts the way they do full-time faculty, and adjuncts typically experience a disconnection from full-time faculty (Dailey-Hebert et al., 2014; Ott & Cisneros, 2015; Webb et al., 2013), their institution, and department (Benton & Li, 2015). Discovering factors besides leadership that can increase adjunct faculty job satisfaction may prove beneficial the organization as a whole.

Recommendations for Future Research

This section sets forth recommendations for future research based on the results of this study. The results of this study, which investigated the predictive relationship between academic leaders perceived use of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership and the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty who teach at a for-profit university, may be used as a guide for future researchers who seek to investigate leadership and job satisfaction in for-profit higher education. The results may help administrators, researchers, and organizations determine leadership attributes that are associated with faculty job satisfaction.

Transformational leadership is effective in higher education (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014), and has been shown to increase faculty job satisfaction (Alonderiene & Majauskaite, 2016; Hijazi et al., 2016; Sakiru et al., 2014; Saleem, 2015) and employee performance in faculty (Thamrin, 2012). The first recommendation is future quantitative research should focus on investigating the effect of full range leadership on the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty at different for-profit higher education institutions. The current study only investigated one for-profit university and one population of online adjunct faculty. Investigating other populations might help determine if the results of this study are like other for-profit universities.

Recommendation two for further research is that qualitative research be performed on the same, or similar population. Qualitative research is used to explore opinions, motivations, and the way people experience phenomena (Cozby & Bates, 2015), which may help explain why online adjunct feel a specific way, and compliment the results of this study. The results of a qualitative study may add depth to research concerning the effect of leadership on the job satisfaction of adjunct faculty who teach online classes in for-profit universities.

Recommendation three is that further quantitative research be performed on the job satisfaction of online adjuncts. The JSS (Spector, 1997) measures nine different facets of job satisfaction. This study only explored the overall job satisfaction of online adjuncts, and only performed a descriptive observation of a multi-faceted subject. Future quantitative research could explore the effect of leadership behaviors on specific dimensions of job satisfaction.

Recommendation four is that demographic questions be used in similar research to determine if there are any statistically significant differences between demographic factors, such as sex, age, and years teaching. This study concentrated on the sample as a whole. Discovering any differences in the sample may add insight into the job satisfaction perceptions of adjunct faculty who teach online classes at a for-profit university. Likewise, an investigation into demographic responses may add to the body of knowledge in leadership.

Recommendations for Future Practice

This study found a positive relationship between transformational leadership and the overall job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty; therefore, institutions of higher education, academic leadership development programs, and graduate courses should include training or coursework in this model of leadership. Asaari et al. (2016) stated university administrators would benefit from transformational leadership training. Moreover, recent research found leadership development provided a statistically significant increase in transformational leadership behaviors (MacKie, 2015), which may benefit institutions of higher education, their leaders, and their faculty.

Since the MLQ (5x) is versatile and can be used for self-evaluation, as well as at the group or organizational level (Avolio & Bass, 2004), the second recommendation is that leaders in for-profit academia take the MLQ (5x) for self-evaluation purposes. In conjunction with the self-evaluation of the leader, followers could also take the MLQ (5x) and the results could be compared to give academic leadership an insight in how they think they are leading as compared to how their followers perceive they are being

led. This insight may allow academic leaders to modify their leadership behaviors, if needed, to more effectively encourage the job satisfaction of their followers.

Since many administrators and deans are former faculty who assume the position with little management (Thrasher, 2017) or leadership training (Gmelch, 2015), the third recommendation is that training in transformational leadership be made available to faculty and adjunct faculty as a part of ongoing employee development. Transformational leadership has shown, in this study and other recent research (Bateh & Heyliger, 2014), to be effective in higher education. Since future academic leaders may come from the ranks of the faculty and adjunct faculty, it may be advantageous to the organization to foster these leadership behaviors at an early stage in their employees' career.

This study found transformational leadership to be a significant predictor of online adjunct faculty job satisfaction. Previous research found transformational leadership positively related to employee task performance (Braun et al., 2013), innovation (Mohamed, 2016), organizational commitment (Asaari et al., 2016; Aydin et al., 2013; Dai et al., 2013), team output effectiveness (Choi et al., 2017), and leadership effectiveness (Banks et al., 2016; Nguyen et al., 2017). Given the many benefits of transformational leadership, as displayed by this study and prior research, a prudent conclusion is transformational leadership should be incorporated into the day-to-day operations of institutions of higher learning.

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Appendix A

Permission to use Job Satisfaction Survey

Spector, Paul <pspector@usf.edu> 07/28/15 at 7:55 AM

To Donald Barnett

Dear Donald:

You have my permission to use the JSS in your research. You can find copies of the scale in the original English and several other languages, as well as details about the scale's development and norms in the Scales section of my website http://shell.cas.usf.edu/~spector. I allow free use for noncommercial research and teaching purposes in return for sharing of results. This includes student theses and dissertations, as well as other student research projects. Copies of the scale can be reproduced in a thesis or dissertation as long as the copyright notice is included, "Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved." Results can be shared by providing an e-copy of a published or unpublished research report (e.g., a dissertation). You also have permission to translate the JSS into another language under the same conditions in addition to sharing a copy of the translation with me. Be sure to include the copyright statement, as well as credit the person who did the translation with the year.

Thank you for your interest in the JSS, and good luck with your research.

Best,

Paul Spector, Distinguished Professor
Department of Psychology
PCD 4118
University of South Florida
Tampa, FL 33620
813-974-0357
pspector@usf.edu
http://shell.cas.usf.edu/~spector

Appendix B

Permission to use Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire 5x short

www.mindgarden.com

To whom it may concern,

This letter is to grant permission for the above named person to use the following copyright material for his/her research:

Instrument: *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*

Authors: *Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass*

Copyright: *1995 by Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass*

Five sample items from this instrument may be reproduced for inclusion in a proposal, thesis, or dissertation.

The entire instrument may not be included or reproduced at any time in any published material.

Sincerely,

Robert Most
Mind Garden, Inc.
www.mindgarden.com

Appendix C

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (5x) short

MLQ Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
Rater Form (5x-Short)

Name of Leader: _____ Date: _____

Organization ID #: _____ Leader ID #: _____

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

IMPORTANT (necessary for processing): Which best describes you?

___ I am at a higher organizational level than the person I am rating.
___ The person I am rating is at my organizational level.
___ I am at a lower organizational level than the person I am rating.
___ I do not wish my organizational level to be known.

Forty-five descriptive statements are listed on the following pages. Judge how frequently each statement fits the person you are describing. Use the following rating scale:

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

THE PERSON I AM RATING. . .

1.	Provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts	0	1	2	3	4
2.	Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate	0	1	2	3	4
3.	Fails to interfere until problems become serious	0	1	2	3	4
4.	Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards	0	1	2	3	4
5.	Avoids getting involved when important issues arise	0	1	2	3	4

Appendix D

Job Satisfaction Survey

	JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY Paul E. Spector Department of Psychology University of South Florida 	

	PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT. 	Disagree very much	Disagree moderatel	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
1	I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	I like the people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Communications seem good within this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Raises are too few and far between.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	My supervisor is unfair to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	I like doing the things I do at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	The goals of this organization are not clear to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	The benefit package we have is equitable.	1	2	3	4	5	6

	PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.	Disagree very much	Disagree moderatel	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
23	There are few rewards for those who work here.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	I have too much to do at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	I enjoy my coworkers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	There are benefits we do not have which we should have.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	I like my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	I have too much paperwork.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33	I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34	There is too much bickering and fighting at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35	My job is enjoyable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36	Work assignments are not fully explained.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix E

Research Site Permission

[redacted]

October 10, 2016

Dear IRB Members,

After reviewing the proposed study, "The Effect of Higher Education Administrative Leadership Styles on the Job Satisfaction of Online Adjunct Faculty in For-Profit Universities", presented by Donald Barnett, I have granted authorization for Donald Barnet to conduct research at [redacted]

I understand the purpose of the study is to determine the predictive relationship, if any, between administrative leadership behaviors and faculty job satisfaction. Donald Barnett will conduct the following research activities: collect data from faculty via online survey. It is understood that this project will end no later than 12/30/2017.

I have indicated to Donald Barnett that my organization will allow the following research activities: allow Donald Barnett to distribute an invitation to participate in an online survey, [redacted] to adjunct faculty who teach online classes.

To ensure that the employees are protected, Donald Barnett has agreed to provide to me a copy of any Grand Canyon University IRB-approved, consent document before he recruits participants at [redacted] Donald Barnett has agreed to provide a copy of the study results, in aggregate, to our college.

If the IRB has any concerns about the permission being granted by this letter, please contact me at the phone number listed above.

Sincerely,

[redacted]

[redacted]
IRB Chair
[redacted]

Appendix F

IRB Permission

GRAND CANYON UNIVERSITY™

3300 West Camelback Road, Phoenix Arizona 85017 602.639.7500 Toll Free 800.800.9776 www.gcu.edu

DATE:	February 24, 2017
TO:	Donald Barnett
FROM:	Grand Canyon University Institutional Review Board
STUDY TITLE:	[1025137-1] The Effect of Leadership on the Job Satisfaction of Online Adjunct Faculty at a For-Profit University in the Midwest United States.
IRB REFERENCE #:	
SUBMISSION TYPE:	New Project
ACTION:	DETERMINATION OF EXEMPT STATUS
DECISION DATE:	February 24, 2017
REVIEW CATEGORY:	Exemption category # 7.2

Thank you for your submission of New Project materials for this research study. Grand Canyon University Institutional Review Board has determined this project is EXEMPT FROM IRB REVIEW according to federal regulations.

Please remember that informed consent is a process beginning with a description of the study and insurance of participant understanding followed by a signed consent form. Informed consent must continue throughout the study via a dialogue between the researcher and research participant. Federal regulations require each participant receive a copy of the approved signed consent document. The approved, watermarked informed consent is included in your published documents in your IRBNet submission for use with your study.

We will put a copy of this correspondence on file in our office.

If you have any questions, please contact Cathrine Ames at (602) 639-6460 or cathrine.ames@gcu.edu. Please include your study title and reference number in all correspondence with this office.

cc:

Appendix G

Participant Recruitment E-mail

You are invited to participate in a research study entitled The Effect of Leadership on the Job Satisfaction of Online Adjunct Faculty in a For-Profit University. This study is being conducted by Donald Barnett, a doctoral student under direction of Dr. Delilah Krasch in the College of Doctoral Studies at Grand Canyon University. **To be eligible for this study, you must be an adjunct faculty member who has taught at least one online class within the last six months.** This research study is the final requirement for a degree in Organizational Leadership.

This study involves completing an online survey, which I am asking you complete during the two week period that the survey will be open. The survey includes demographic questions, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire 5X rater form (MLQ) and the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS). The MLQ is a 45-item questionnaire that asks for your perceptions of the leadership behavior of your direct supervisor. The JSS is a 36-question instrument that assesses your perceptions about the conditions of, and attitudes about, your job.

Two $50 Amazon eCards will be offered as an incentive for participation. Two participants, who will be chosen at random at the end of data collection, will be given one $50 Amazon eCard each. To enter the drawing, a link will be provided at the end of the survey that will lead to a different survey where email addresses will be collected. At the conclusion of data collection, two participants will be chosen to receive one $50 Amazon eCard each. By creating another survey to collect email address, your email cannot be associated with your answers to the survey. After the incentives are awarded, the email addresses will be deleted.

The survey will take approximately 20-30 minutes to complete. I am asking for maximum participation so I can obtain at least 78 completed surveys. You participation is voluntary and no personal information will be gathered. Donald Barnett will take every precaution to ensure confidentiality and anonymity.

You can access the survey here: https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/BSDJXJJ

Thank you in advance for your participation! Please address any questions to:

[redacted]

Best regards,

Donald Barnett

Doctoral Student

Grand Canyon University

Appendix H

G*Power Analysis

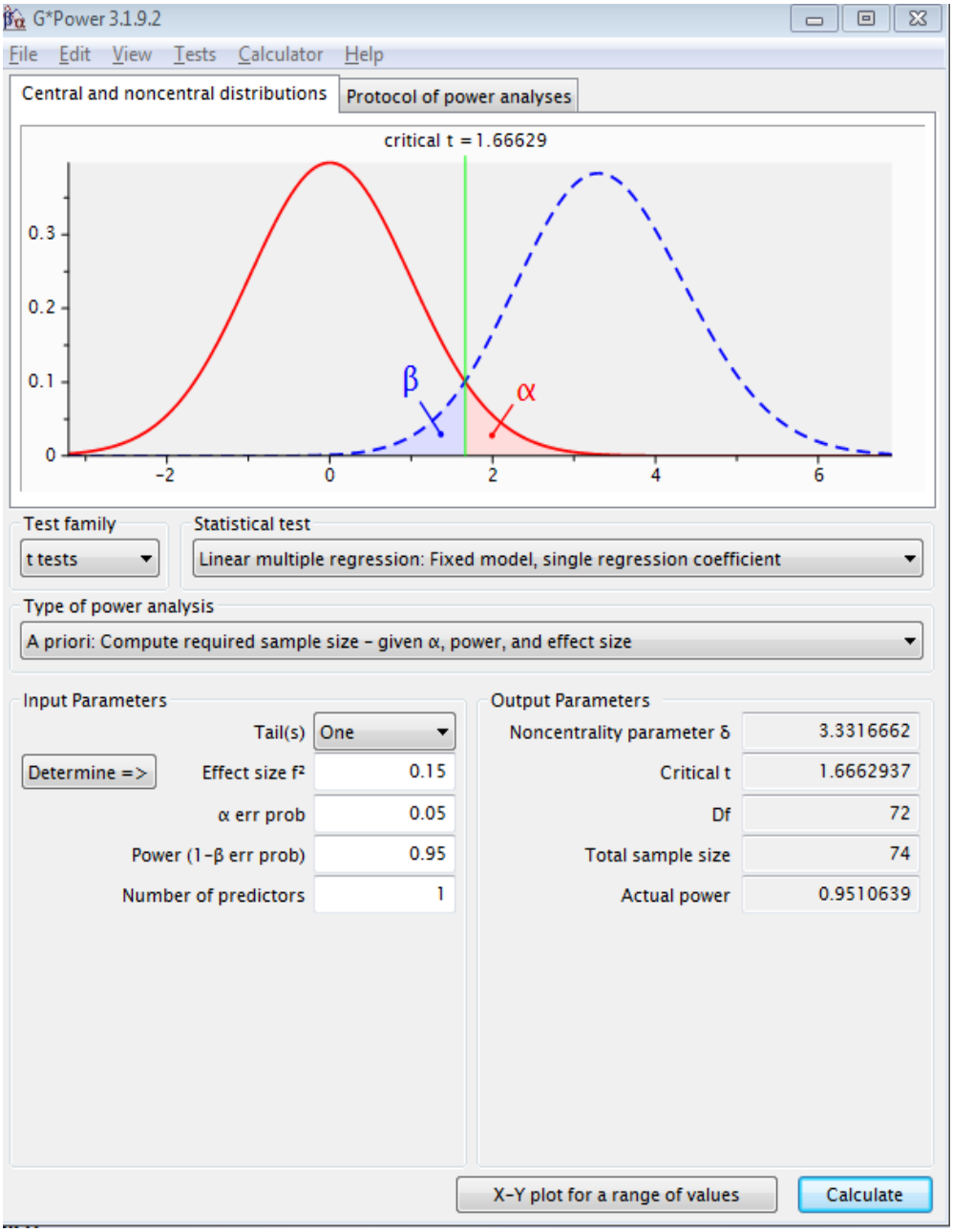

Figure 1. G*Power analysis.

Appendix I

Survey Introduction

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this survey. Only adjunct faculty members who have taught at least one online class within the past six months are eligible to participate in this survey. The purpose of this study is to examine the effects of administrative leadership on the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty in for-profit universities in the United States.

You are asked to complete the following surveys. The first is the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire rater form, which asks about your perceptions of the leadership behaviors of your direct supervisor. The second part of the survey is the Job Satisfaction Survey, which assesses your perceptions of your job and attitudes about your job. In addition to these two surveys, there are three demographic questions. Please give yourself 30 minutes to complete the entire survey in one sitting.

There is no risk of anyone determining who you are, what school you teach at, or which administrator you work for because this information is not gathered in this study. Any information you provide will be kept anonymous and your participation in this study is voluntary.

Two $50 Amazon eCards will be offered as an incentive for participation. Two participants, who will be chosen at random at the end of data collection, will be given one $50 Amazon eCard each. To enter the drawing, a link will be provided at the end of the survey that will lead to a different survey where email addresses will be collected. At the conclusion of data collection, two participants will be chosen to receive one $50 Amazon eCard each. By creating another survey to collect email address, your email cannot be

associated with your answers to the survey. After the incentives are awarded, the email addresses will be deleted.

Again, thank you very much for your participation in this research.

Best,

Donald Barnett

Doctoral Student

Grand Canyon University

Appendix J

IRB Informed Consent Document

Grand Canyon University
College of Doctoral Studies
3300 W. Camelback Road
Phoenix, AZ 85017
Phone: 602-639-7804
Email: irb@gcu.edu

INFORMED CONSENT FORM (SOCIAL BEHAVIORAL)
MINIMAL RISK

CONSENT FORM
The Effect of Leadership on the Job Satisfaction of Online Adjunct Faculty in a For-Profit University in the Midwest United States.

INTRODUCTION

My name is Donald Barnett. I am a doctoral candidate at Grand Canyon University, and the Principal Investigator in the current study. I am inviting your participation in my study. Your perspective is valuable; however, your participation in the study is voluntary. Should you choose not to participate, your employment will not be affected. The purpose of this consent form is to provide you, as a prospective study participant, with information about this research study so you can make an informed decision as to whether or not to participate. If you agree to fill out the survey associated with this study, you are giving your consent to participate in the research study.

RESEARCH

Donald Barnett, a doctoral student at Grand Canyon University, has invited your participation in a research study exploring the effects of higher education administrators' leadership style on the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty in for profit universities in the United States.

STUDY PURPOSE

The purpose of this study is to examine if and to what extent the transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership style of higher education administrators effect the overall job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty in for-profit university in the Midwest United States. There is currently a lack of research in the for-profit sector of higher education and on factors that affect the job satisfaction of online adjunct faculty.

DESCRIPTION OF RESEARCH STUDY

This survey is intended for adjunct faculty members who have taught an online class within the past six months. If you decide to participate, then as a study participant you will join a study involving research of leadership and job satisfaction by taking a survey. If you say yes, then your participation will last for approximately ten to twenty minutes online. Approximately 78 adjunct faculty of online learning from a for-profit university in the Midwest United States will be participating in this study. Participants can skip questions and/or exit the survey at any time.

RISKS

There are no known risks from taking part in this study, but in any research, there is some possibility that you may be subject to risks that have not yet been identified.

BENEFITS

Although there may be no direct benefits to you, the possible benefits of your participation in the research are to be a part of bringing forward research aimed at helping administrators and online adjunct faculty understand what leadership behaviors effect online adjunct faculty job satisfaction.

NEW INFORMATION

If the researchers find new information during the study that would reasonably change your decision about participating, then they will provide this information to you.

CONFIDENTIALITY

All information obtained in this study is strictly confidential. The results of this research study may be used in reports, presentations, and publications, but the researcher will not identify you. In order to maintain confidentiality of your records, Donald Barnett will be collecting data anonymously and no names, IP addresses, or other identifying information will be captured. Each survey will be numbered and any access by others, will be only by number. The data will be kept in a secure environment, Donald Barnett's password protected computer, for seven years, only identifiable by number. All the raw data collected will be stored for a period of seven years, and then destroyed.

WITHDRAWL PRIVILEGE

Participation in this study is completely voluntary. It is ok for you to say no. Even if you say yes now, you are free to say no later, and withdraw from the study at any time. Nonparticipation or withdrawal from the study will not affect your job. Your decision will not affect your relationship with your university or otherwise cause a loss of benefits to which you might otherwise be entitled.

COSTS AND PAYMENTS

There is no cost to participate in this survey. Two $50 Amazon eCards will be offered as an incentive for participation. Two participants, who will be chosen at random at the end of data collection, will be given one $50 Amazon eCard each. To enter the drawing, a link will be provided at the end of the survey that will lead to a different survey where email addresses will be collected. At the conclusion of data collection, two participants will be chosen at random to receive one $50 Amazon eCard each. By creating another survey to collect email address, your email cannot be associated with your answers to the survey. After the incentives are awarded, the email addresses will be deleted.

VOLUNTARY CONSENT

By filling out the survey, you are agreeing to participate in the study. Thus, you are verifying that you understand the research protocol, any risks involved in the project, have had the opportunity to ask for clarification, recognize that you can withdraw at any time, and understand you will be notified if the study changes significantly in a way that may affect you. By consenting to participate in this study, you are not waiving any legal rights, claims, or remedies.

Any questions you have concerning the research study or your participation in the study, before or after your consent, will be answered by Donald Barnett at Dbarnett6@my.gcu.edu or by calling 314-504-6639. If you have questions about your rights as a subject/participant in this research, or if you feel you have been placed at risk, you can contact the Chair of the Institutional Review Board, through the College of Doctoral Studies at (602) 639-7804.

Remember, your participation is voluntary. You may choose not to participate or to withdraw your consent and discontinue participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefit. By taking this survey, you are not waiving any legal claims, rights, or remedies.

INVESTIGATOR'S STATEMENT

"I certify the participant has been provided with the nature, purpose, benefits, and possible risks of this study. The participant has had the opportunity to ask questions and receive clarification about the study. The participant appears to understand the involvement in this study. These elements of Informed Consent conform to the assurance given by Grand Canyon University to the Office for Human Research Protections to protect the rights of human subjects."

Signature of Investigator Donald Barnett 9/12/2016

1. I have read the informed consent notice and.... (CHOOSE ONE)

- ○ I agree to participate in this study.
- ○ I do not agree to participate in this study.

Appendix K

Scatterplot Matrix

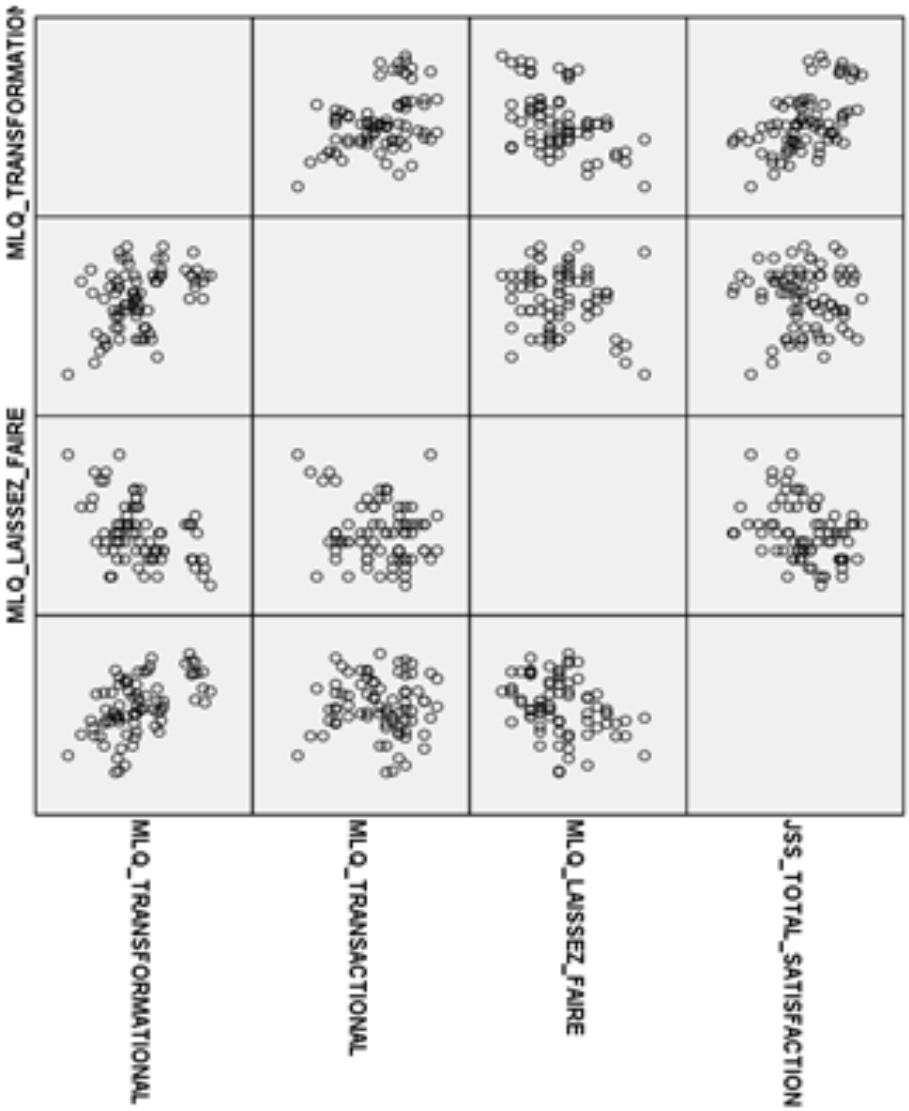

Figure 2. Matrix scatterplot

Appendix L

Histograms

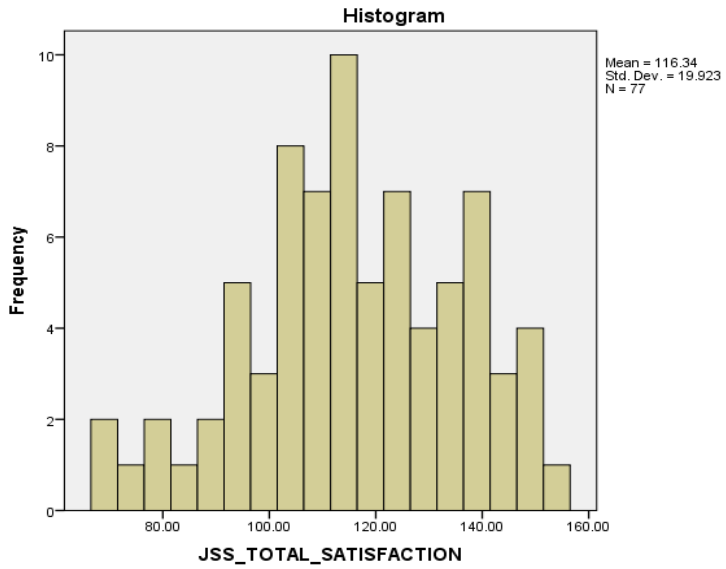

Figure 3. JSS total satisfaction histogram

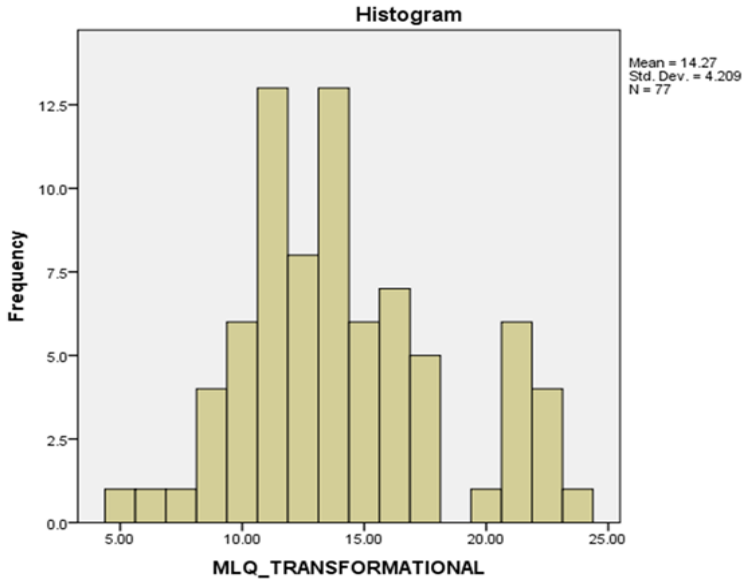

Figure 4. Transformational leadership histogram

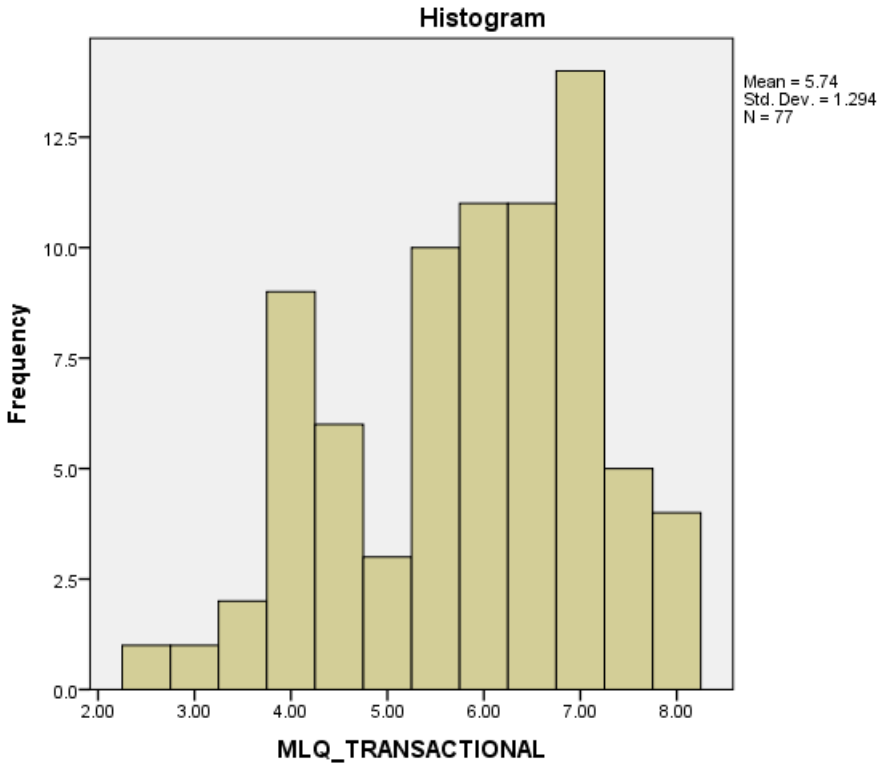

Figure 5. Transactional leadership histogram

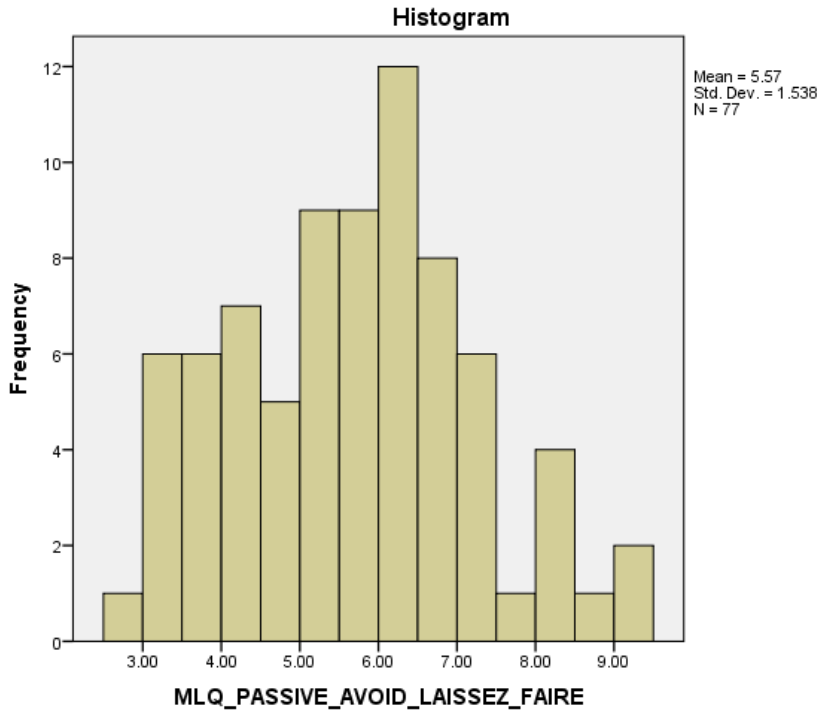

Figure 6. Laissez-faire leadership histogram

Appendix M

Q-Q Plots

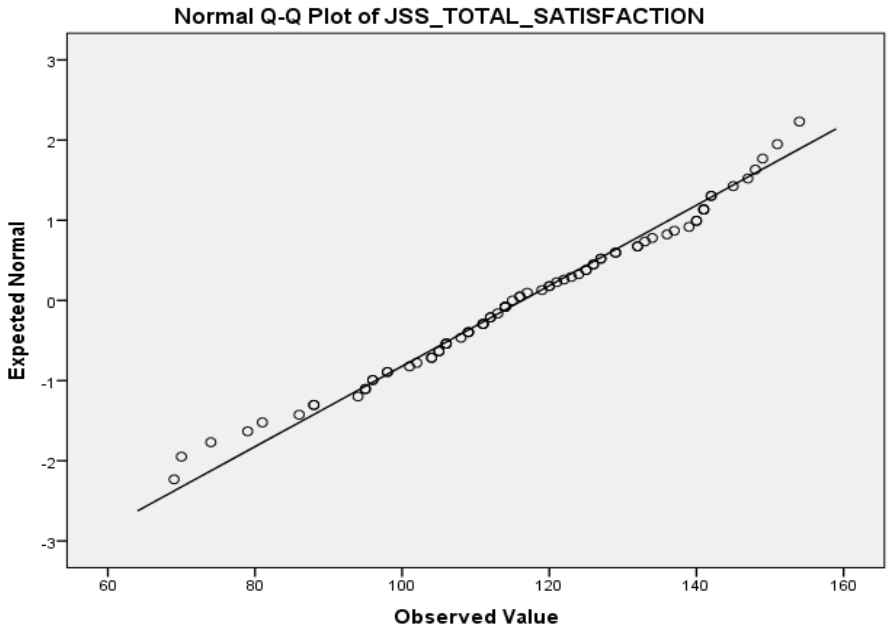

Figure 7. JSS total satisfaction Q-Q plot

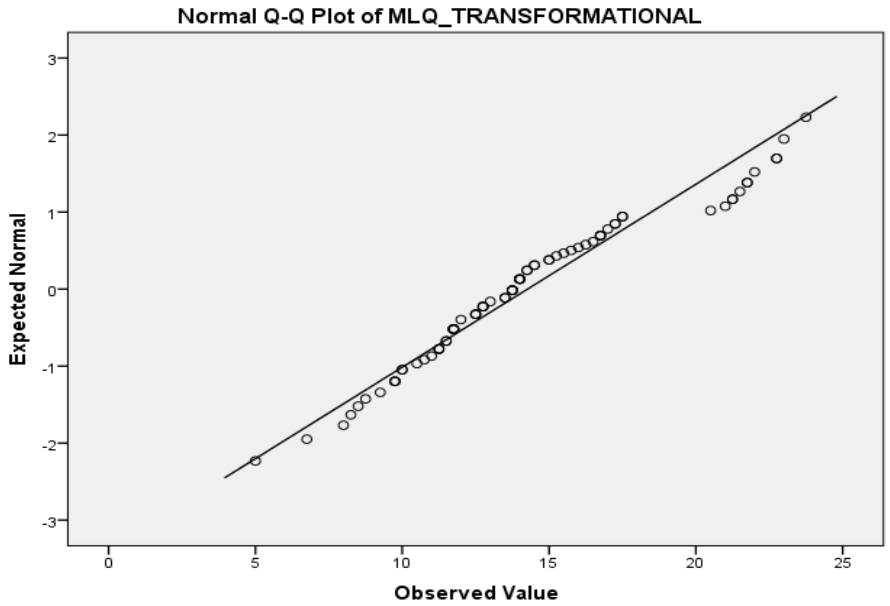

Figure 8. Transformational leadership Q-Q plot

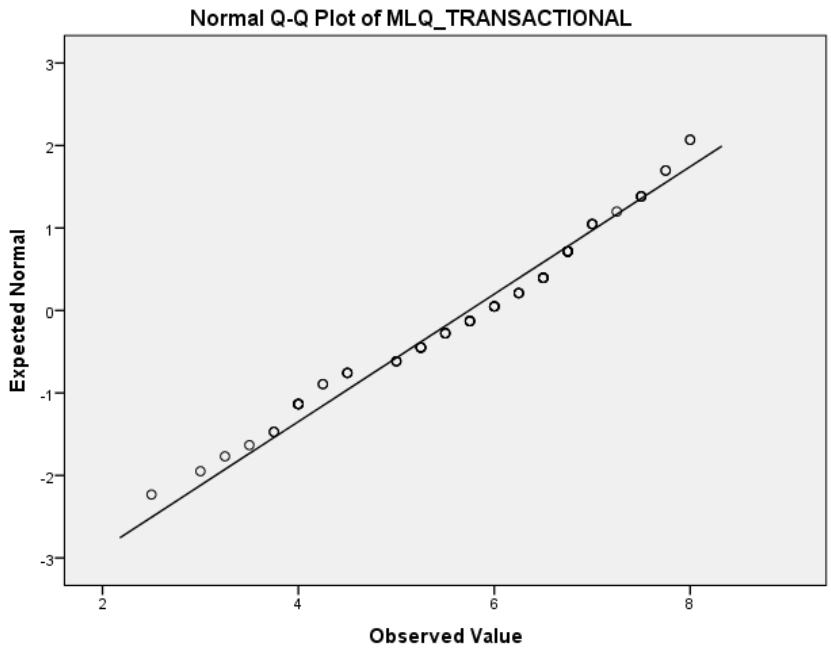

Figure 9. Transactional leadership Q-Q plot

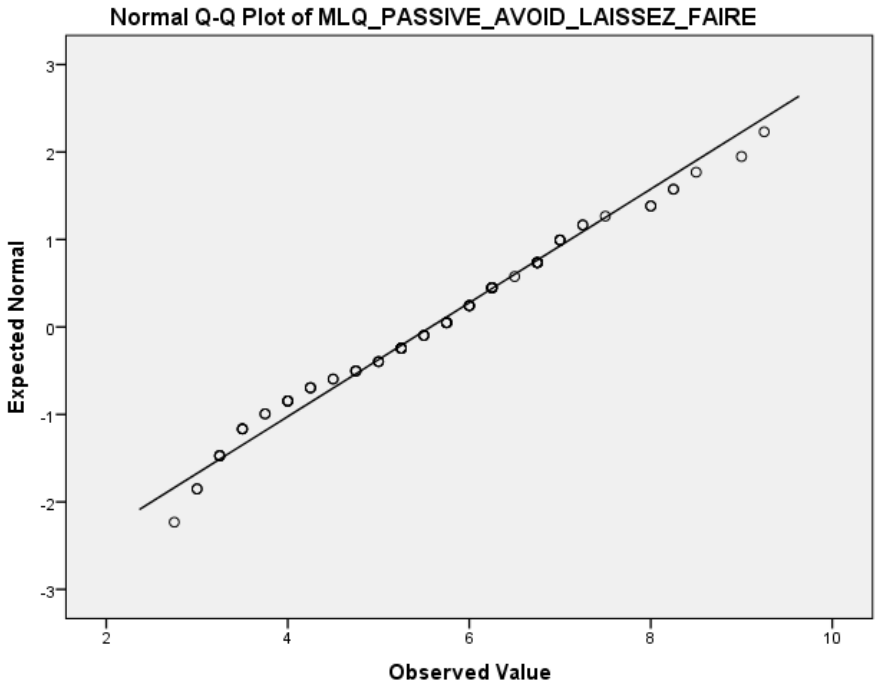

Figure 10. Laissez-faire leadership Q-Q plot

Appendix N

Scatterplots

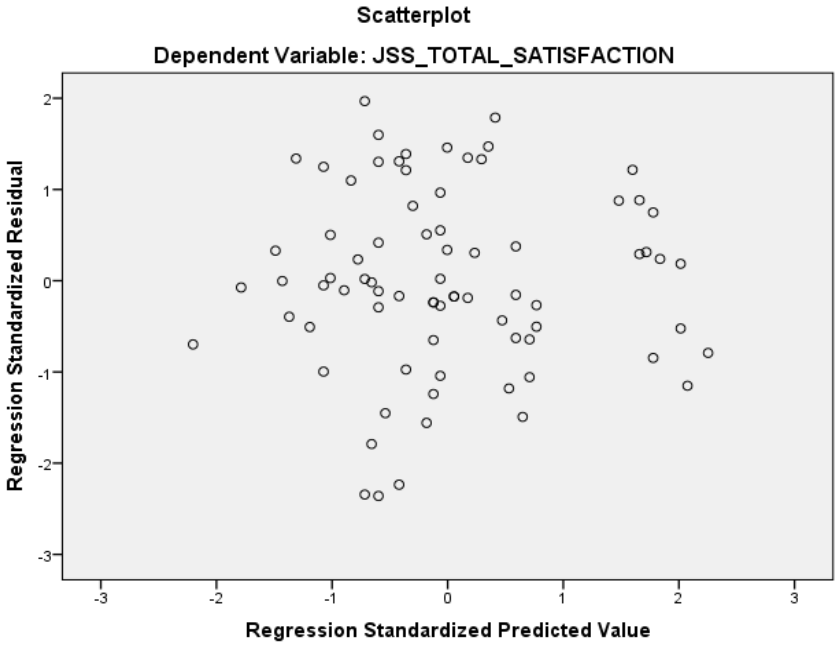

Figure 11. Transformational leadership scatterplot

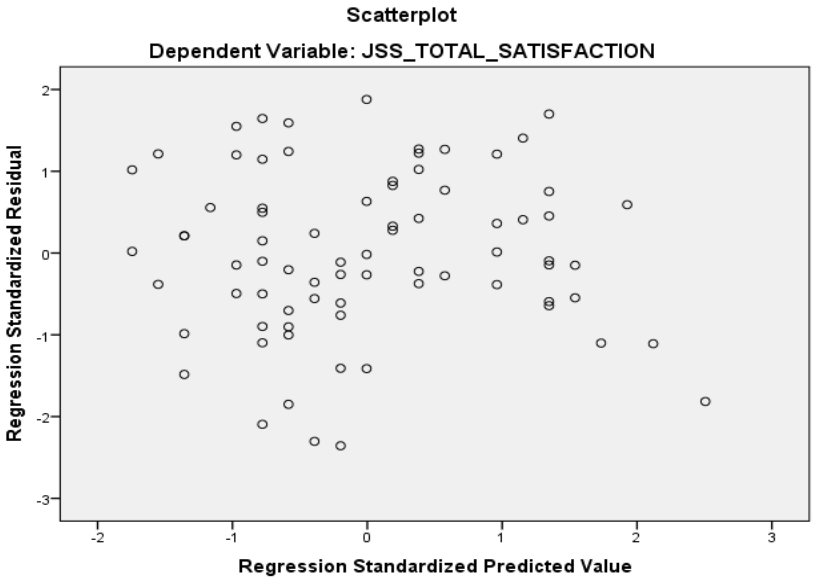

Figure 12. Transactional leadership scatterplot

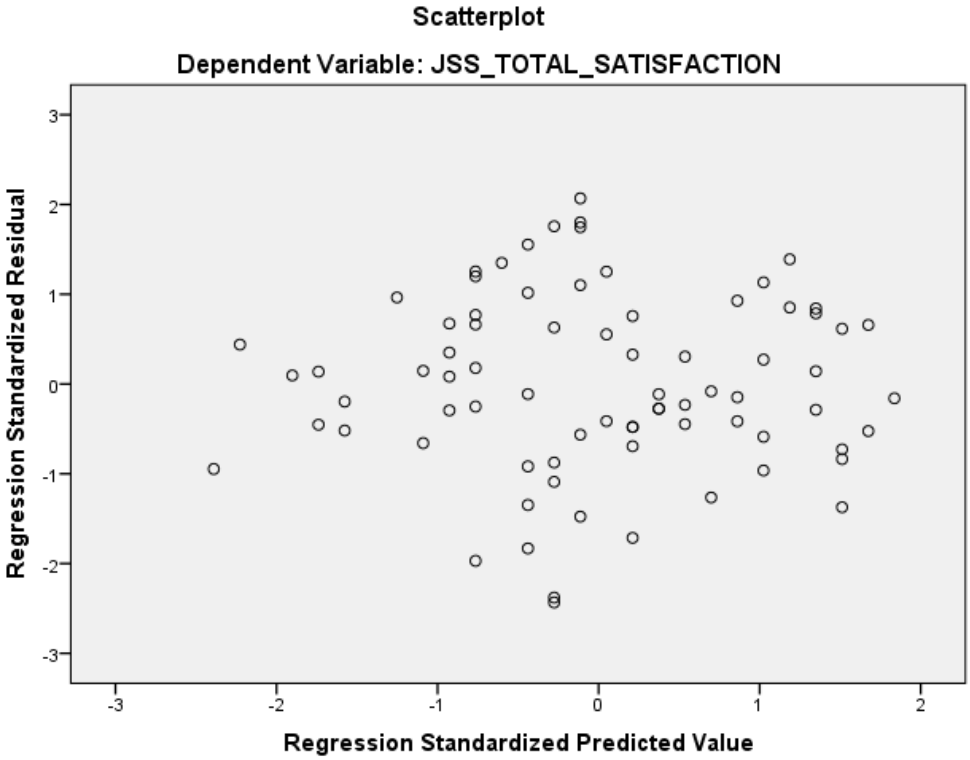

Figure 13. Laissez-faire leadership scatterplot