THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP AND EMPLOYEE JOB SATISFACTION IN A MILITARY COMMUNITY

by

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Abstract

Organizations use different metrics to measure performance. Employee job satisfaction is one indicator of organizational effectiveness. Research has found that leadership directly influences employee job satisfaction. The purpose of this quantitative research study was to examine the relationship between leadership and employee job satisfaction in a military community. Bass and Avolio's (2004) full-range leadership theory served as the foundation for the research. The elements of this leadership style (transformational, transactional, and passive/avoidant) comprised the independent variables. Job satisfaction formed the dependent variable. The study required the administration of two composite surveys. The Leader survey was comprised of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Form 5X Short and a demographic questionnaire. The Employee survey was comprised of the MLQ Form 5X Short, the Spector (1994) Job Satisfaction Survey, and a demographic questionnaire. The participants included military and MWR civilian leaders as well as MWR civilian employees from U.S. Army garrisons in Europe. Three hundred eighty-one participants successfully completed one of the two surveys. The study employed Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient and multiple regression analysis to assess the bivariate relationship between employee job satisfaction and the elements of full-range leadership. The study results indicated a statistically significant correlation between each element and employee job satisfaction. Additionally, the regression analysis illustrated different degrees of job satisfaction prediction, depending on the element of full-range leadership being applied. Transformational leadership among military and MWR civilian leaders contributed more positively to MWR employee job satisfaction than the other leadership elements.

Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to all Morale, Welfare, and Recreation employees around the world committed to providing exceptional customer service every day to the military, civilians, and their families.

Acknowledgments

I have been blessed with the opportunity to complete this dissertation. Over the past four years, I have received support and encouragement from several people around the world.

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The research would not have been possible without the assistance and support of Morale, Welfare, and Recreation leaders and professionals across Europe. Engaging with you individually helped push me to keep learning. The culture of selfless service to military and their families can never be properly conveyed in words. Keep doing what you are doing every day, and never stop learning.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Research findings indicated that organizational performance indicators, such as customer satisfaction, employee job satisfaction, loyalty, and organizational commitment influence organizational effectiveness (Bolman & Deal, 2008; Dartey-Baah, 2010; DeClerk, 2008; Huang & Hsiao, 2007; Parish, Cadwaller, & Busch, 2008; Scott & Davis, 2007). Researchers have also proposed that leadership plays an integral role in an organization's performance through employing effective leadership styles and behaviors (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Northouse, 2010; Rukmani, Ramesh, & Jayakrishnan, 2010; Yukl, 2010). Bass (2008) stated that leaders influence an organization's success.

Opportunities to lead an organization have occurred at every management level where managers must interchangeably assume the roles of manager and leader. Management has communicated across all levels staying engaged with line-level requirements, yet leading across divisions to support organizational goals and objectives (Maxwell, 2008; Scott & Davis, 2007). Bass and Riggio (2006) stressed the influence of "follower's attitudes and their commitment to the leader and the organization" (p. 32) in a transformational leadership setting. Researchers claimed that different leadership styles and behaviors directly influence organizational effectiveness in terms of commitment, loyalty, and satisfaction among followers and stakeholders - both internal and external to the organization (Bass, 2008; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Scott & Davis, 2007).

The importance of effective leadership is no different for a military community. Military communities compare to small, self-contained cities, managed by military and civilian leaders whose primary objective is taking care of soldiers, civilians, and their families. Within a military community, leadership styles and behaviors demonstrated by

military and civilian leaders has played a critical role toward achieving and maintaining effective organizational performance (Groysberg, Hill, & Johnson, 2010; M.P. Hertling, personal communication, July 31, 2011; Useem, 2010). Leaders recognized the value that employee job satisfaction holds as a key component of organizational performance (Larsson, Vinberg, & Wiklund, 2007; Limsila & Ogunlana, 2008).

The first chapter presented background information on leadership styles and employee job satisfaction and its applicability to military and civilian leaders in a military community. This chapter also introduced the problem statement, purpose of the study and its significance, nature of the study, research questions, hypotheses, and the theoretical framework of the research. Additionally, this chapter included definitions, assumptions, scope, limitations, and delimitations. Last, a chapter summary reviewed the key points relating different leadership styles and employee job satisfaction on a military community.

Background of the Problem

Research findings have concluded that effective leadership from all levels is essential for successful organizations (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson, 2008; Hesselbein & Goldsmith, 2009; Kouzes & Posner, 2007; Northouse, 2010). To sustain effective performance, organizations have turned to leaders to influence people toward some action or activity (Yukl, 2010). Although most organizations evaluated financial results as their primary performance indicator, organizations have utilized several other nonfinancial criteria available to them for measurement, including profitability, productivity, customer satisfaction, customer growth, employee job satisfaction, employee development, and

employee turnover (Abu-Jarad, Yusof, & Nikbin, 2010). By virtue of their position, leaders possessed the ability to influence these different organizational performance signals (Bass, 2008).

Regardless of the chosen performance measures, the leaders' role did not change. They assumed responsibility for the organization's performance, and their leadership style influenced how work was accomplished and how people reacted to them. Problems arose when multiple leaders engage subordinates in the workplace, causing confusion from conflicting guidance and power issues for followers (White, 2010). Different leaders along the hierarchy of authority manage situations differently and sometimes consider their own individual goals and expectations, instead of those of the organization (Jones, 2010). As a leader's involvement and control concerning work varied from hands-off to micromanagement, followers' levels of trust and confidence in the organization fluctuated (Riaz & Haider, 2010). Followers interpreted micromanaged tasks as a sign of distrust or disloyalty, usually evident in formalized, rational systems (Scott & Davis, 2007; White, 2010).

Research has linked employee satisfaction to behavior, stemming from individual needs, attitudes, and motivation to work. Maslow's hierarchy of needs addressed the basic needs individuals must possess before pursuing other needs (Schein, 2010). These goals and desires are linked directly in the work environment, representative of an employee's job satisfaction. Hersey et al. (2008) referenced McGregor's (1960) Theory X – Theory Y that helps leaders better understand employee attitude in a work environment. Recent research has agreed that leader-member relations contribute to an

effective balance of leader, employee, and organization (Gallos, 2006; Hersey et al., Northouse, 2010; Wren, 2005; Yukl, 2010).

Leadership styles and behaviors have played an influential role on organizational performance and employee job satisfaction in particular (Limsila & Ogunlana, 2008; Shibru & Darshan, 2011). According to Kaiser and Overfield (2010), while leadership's purpose focused on bringing people together toward a shared goal, the organizational performance of the group remained the top priority for the organization. Leaders expanded the importance of follower performance and perception as measurements of organizational effectiveness. Extensive research on how different characteristics involving leaders, followers, and organizations influence job satisfaction has been conducted, yet no single leadership style has been identified that contributes to the desired satisfaction level (Rad & Yarmohammadian, 2006; Yiing & Ahmad, 2008). Because followers choose to work for different reasons and needs, leaders must be cognizant of these differences and learn how to stimulate and influence followers on multiple levels (Hersey et al., 2008).

According to Bass (2008), elements of transformational leadership provided leaders with a toolbox of skills that emphasize intrinsic motivation and follower development. These skills have allowed leaders to focus on the needs and desires of followers, leveraging them to accomplish organizational goals and expectations. Some scholars have agreed that the ideal leader possesses both transformational and transactional leadership, balancing the task-oriented and relationship-oriented needs of the organization (Bass, 2008). However, Hersey et al. (2008) contended that no best

leadership style exists, and the most effective leaders adapt their leadership style to the situation.

In a military community, the directive nature of military leaders favored a task-oriented behavior (United States Military Academy, 2007). Comparatively, civilian leaders exhibited relationship-oriented behaviors as frequent interactions with customers and followers foster trust and cooperation (Yukl, 2010). Within a military community environment, a gap in current literature existed for the relationship of leadership styles and behaviors between military and civilian leaders on employee job satisfaction.

With these problems in mind, organizations required leaders to work together to attain goals, enhance follower and organization performance, inspire vision, and develop followers (Yukl, 2010). As several factors influenced organizational performance, leaders employed different styles to enable the organization to perform effectively across all levels (Jones, 2010; Lencioni, 2012). Prior research studied the relationship between leadership styles and various organizational performance indicators, but few focused on the military community environment. Within the military community, organizational goals and mission are shared; however, the methods and actions by which they are achieved varied between military and civilian leaders.

A review of literature on military leadership revealed several empirical studies address leadership styles and behaviors (Harper, 2010; Johnson & Hill, 2009; Mensch & Rahschulte, 2008; Murray, 2010). Some studies compared leadership style and organizational performance within the military, but very few studies addressed these elements with regard to a military community. No evidence existed regarding how leadership styles and behaviors influence follower actions in a military community.

Related research in the leadership field was available from other public agencies, including the Department of Agriculture and another division within the Department of Defense. While these other research studies addressed leadership, each study incorporated different variables and areas of concern.

This study evaluated leadership styles of military and civilian leaders within the U.S. Army. Military Commanders assume the top military leadership position, managing the entire community and providing quality of life support and services to military members, civilians, and family members from different divisions including public works, human resources, operations, financial management, and Morale, Welfare, and Recreation (MWR), to name a few. Civilians employed on military communities range from division chiefs to program managers and facility managers to line-level employees. The target sample for this study was composed of military leaders, MWR civilian leaders, and MWR civilian employees from the U.S. Army on military communities within the European region.

The leadership problem in a military community emanated from different leadership styles among community leaders. Military and MWR civilian leaders received foundational leadership training geared toward different goals: combat-oriented for military versus customer-oriented for MWR civilian leaders. For the combat-trained military leaders, the community Commander's mission included taking care of soldiers and their families and mentoring employees (Townsend & Gebhardt, 1997). According to the Army Management Staff College (2012), the Garrison Pre-command Course taught incoming U.S. Army Commanders about the new responsibilities for financial management, military and civilian personnel management, facilities and infrastructure

management, contracting oversight, community relations, and all aspects of service delivery to Soldiers, family members, and other customers.

While all of these responsibilities encompassed both internal and external customer service on a military community, MWR programs typically had more face-to-face customer interactions than the other support divisions (D. Brlecic, personal communication, September 12, 2011). MWR's services and programs ranged from childcare, family programs, physical fitness centers, and libraries to bowling centers, golf courses, and clubs. As a customer service provider, MWR prided itself on delivering quality programs and services equal to the sacrifice and service that soldiers and families provide (U.S. Army MWR, 2012). From this description, service delivery on a military community encompassed the greatest priority for Commanders. As such, the leadership styles and behaviors demonstrated by Commanders and civilian leaders played a very important role on that goal.

The different training methods military and MWR civilians yielded different leadership execution on employees and customers, respectively. Even though customer feedback and satisfaction remain key performance indicators, these measurements could be very subjective and irrational but not representative of service. While employee behaviors and attitudes should have influenced organizational performance separately from superiors' leadership styles, little empirical research has validated using employee job satisfaction as an indicator (Yiing & Ahmad, 2009). Conversely, although researchers defined it differently, leadership revolved around influencing followers to do something or provide some service that extends the organization's effectiveness (Jones, 2010). Because military and MWR civilian leaders employed different leadership styles

on a military community, no one style could be declared as most effective at serving customers and guiding employees (Yukl, 2010).

Statement of the Problem

Various leadership theorists claimed their particular models yielded effective results for organizations (Bass, 2008; Burns, 1978; Hersey et al., 2008). However, other researchers indicated that a specific leadership style that defines organizational effectiveness does not exist (Hill, 1969; McFadden, Eakin, Beck-Frazier, & McGlone, 2005; Vroom & Jago, 2007). The general problem explored how different leadership styles and behaviors exhibited by military and civilian leaders create confusion and mixed signals among employees.

According to Army Doctrine (Department of the Army, 2006), military leaders are trained to lead combat-oriented military missions. In a military community, the Commander's mission to take care of soldiers expanded to include their families and civilians. In this environment, the Commander instantly assumed the role of managing multiple fiscal and physical resources, including buildings, equipment, and a civilian workforce.

Mirroring the military structure, civilian leaders and their employees adhered to an Army Civilian Corps Creed (Department of the Army, 2011) supporting the military mission. Even with similar goals and a shared dedication, military and civilian leaders executed their mission differently in military communities. The specific problem addressed in the current study was to determine what role leadership plays for military and MWR civilian leaders when different methods and processes are implemented by various leaders to achieve the similar goal of taking care of soldiers and their families.

This quantitative correlational study examined the relationship of military and MWR civilian leaders' leadership styles and behaviors on job satisfaction for MWR employees in a military community. Employee job satisfaction influenced employee productivity in organizations (Malik, Ahmad, Saif, & Safwan, 2010). Leaders recognized the relationship between organizational performance and employee attitudes, applying different leadership styles and practices that support effectiveness (Lee & Fang, 2008). This study was important for military communities because different organizational performance indicators could lead to recommended leadership styles and behaviors that support employee job satisfaction. The study sample consisted of 381 participants including military leaders, MWR civilian leaders, and MWR civilian employees from U.S. Army garrisons throughout the European region.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this correlational quantitative study was to examine the relationship of leadership styles and behaviors of military and MWR civilian leaders on MWR employee job satisfaction in a military community environment. The research population consisted of approximately 1,800 military leaders, MWR civilian leaders, and MWR civilian employees from the U.S. Army stationed within the European Region. Within this region, there are approximately 16 U.S. Army garrisons averaging 20 to 40 leaders (including Military Commanders and MWR civilian division directors, program managers, and facility managers) and an array of MWR civilian employees.

Reviewing the specific problem in a military community, the quantitative method and correlational design was appropriate to determine if the elements of Bass and Avolio's (2004) full-range leadership model (transactional leadership, transformational

leadership, and passive/avoidant behavior) influence employee job satisfaction of MWR civilian employees. The three main components of full-range leadership comprised the independent variables. Employee job satisfaction was the dependent variable.

The Bass and Avolio (2004) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) measured leadership styles and behaviors, using a Likert-type scale. The MLQ was comprised of 45 questions. The Spector (1994) Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) measured the attributes of job satisfaction using descriptive statements. The JSS was comprised of a 36-item, nine-facet scale to assess employee attitudes about the job and aspects of the job.

Significance of the Problem

Significance of the study. The study increased the body of knowledge by providing a better understanding of the relationship of leadership styles and behaviors of military and MWR civilian leaders on MWR employee job satisfaction in a military community. According to Chung-Kai and Chia-Hung (2009), a connection between integrating transformational leadership and leader-follower relations existed that predicts follower behavior and attitude in organizational performance.

The study attempted to clarify the relationship of leadership styles and behaviors of military and MWR civilian leaders on MWR employee job satisfaction in a military community. Different leadership styles and behaviors among leaders could cause role conflict for subordinates, resulting in confusion and dissatisfaction (Judeh, 2011; White, 2010). As military and MWR civilian leaders operate within the same organizational structure on a military community, the possibility exists that subordinates will experience role conflict resulting from different operational guidance and direction. The study

focused on the follower-oriented performance indicator of job satisfaction to demonstrate organizational effectiveness.

Significance of the study to leadership. The significance of the current study was unique because the research identified the leadership behaviors and the effectiveness of military and MWR civilian leaders operating on U.S. Army garrisons within the European region. The resulting data collected from the U.S. Army expanded the knowledge of military and MWR civilian leadership effectiveness within a military community environment. Based on the results of the study, changes to the leadership development curriculum could enhance the leadership effectiveness for military and MWR civilian leaders within the U.S. Army and possibly for other Military Services.

The significance of this study could also prompt the Department of Defense to expand the knowledge base of leadership training within both the military and civilian sectors and adapt the current leadership development and training programs for existing and future leaders. The MLQ instrument examined the leadership effectiveness of military and MWR civilian leaders, supporting changes to leadership training and development curriculum within the different Military Services. The JSS questionnaire identified organizational performance issues from the followers' perspective, as they relate their individual satisfaction.

Nature of the Study

A review of current literature revealed minimal existing research that examined the relationship between leadership styles and organizational performance in a military setting. The focus of this study was to explore relationships of leadership styles and behaviors of military and MWR civilian leaders on MWR employee job satisfaction in a

military community environment. Understanding the factors of the exhibited leadership styles on a military community allowed leadership to implement a shared, consistent approach to military community management.

This study was performed using a quantitative research approach to determine whether there is a relationship between leadership styles and behaviors of military and MWR civilian leaders on MWR employee job satisfaction in a military community setting. This study used a stratified sampling technique that divides the population on some specific aspect (e.g., length of employment, education level) so a complete array of participation was collected (Creswell, 2008). As the study sample included military leaders, MWR civilian leaders, and MWR civilian employees from the entire European region, the study used electronic mail to invite followers to participate in the Internet-based survey.

This study administered multiple survey instruments to military leaders, MWR civilian leaders, and MWR civilian employees of the U.S. Army within the European region. The first instrument, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Form 5X Short provided data on leadership behaviors and effectiveness, which Avolio and Bass (2004) described as transactional leadership, transformational leadership, and passive/avoidant behavior to provide context for the current study's specific focus on transformational leadership skills. This instrument collected managers and employees' perceptions of leadership effectiveness. Research has concluded that there were strong positive correlations between all components of transformational leadership and effectiveness for public organizations (Lowe & Kroeck, 1996; Stanescu & Rosca, 2010).

The other survey instrument was Paul E. Spector's (1994) Job Satisfaction Scale (JSS), which includes 36 points across nine facets of questions that assess employee attitudes about the job and aspects of the job. Each facet assessed four items with a rating scale range of six choices ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." The nine facets included pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards (performance-based rewards), operating procedures (required rules and procedures), coworkers, nature of work, and communications.

Military leaders, MWR civilian leaders, and MWR civilian employees for this study decided voluntarily to complete survey. Maintaining privacy and confidentiality of participants was critical to the ethical concerns of the study (Creswell, 2008). Managers and employees were given the opportunity participate when reading the informed consent statement within the initial e-mail invitation to participate. Participants acknowledged their consent to participate by clicking on either survey link within the initial e-mail. This study used an explanatory approach, as this correlational design examined multiple variables and interpretations of relationships (Creswell).

Overview of the research method. The study used a quantitative research method as the purpose was to examine the relationship between leadership styles and behaviors of military and MWR civilian leaders on MWR employee job satisfaction in a military community. The quantitative research method involved objectively looking at numerical data of one or more variables seeking relationships between them (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). Quantitative research sought explanations and predictions that could be applicable to other populations and samples.

Overview of the design appropriateness. The selected research design used a quantitative correlational research method because the study objective was to collect numerical data, applying statistical measures to evaluate the results (Christensen, Johnson, & Turner, 2011). Multiple correlation and regression analyses provided the basis for understanding relationships that may exist in the research study. The study explored the relationship of leadership styles and behaviors of military and MWR civilian leaders on MWR employee job satisfaction across the U.S. Army within the European region. The correlational analysis measured the degree of relationships using multiple variables to improve predictability (Christensen, Johnson, & Turner). Multiple regression analyses investigated the combined relationship of multiple independent variables with a dependent variable (Creswell, 2008). Regression analysis examined the influence of leadership styles and behaviors in predicting employee job satisfaction on U.S. Army communities in Europe.

Research Questions

Four research questions focused on leadership styles and job satisfaction in a military community. While literature and previous research addressed relationships between leader development and different organizational performance criteria, no relevant research evaluated leadership styles and behaviors for military and MWR civilian leaders on military communities. The mission on every military installation revolved around providing a quality of life for military, civilians, and their families. Compared to most cities where a mayor or city council is responsible for providing services to its residents, a military Commander or high-ranking Department of Defense civilian assumed the role of community leader on every military community. In short,

these community leaders were in the customer service business, providing all services necessary to house, entertain, and support soldiers and their families.

MWR operated within the military structure to provide quality customer service, supporting the Commander's goals, mission, and values. Overseas military communities played a very important role in providing a quality of life comparable to state-side communities where services and support are generally available both on-post and off-post. Thus, the need to provide consistent, quality service became critical for military and civilians stationed overseas. The issue of delivering the expected level of service came into question when military and MWR civilian leaders demonstrate different styles and behaviors to attain similar organizational performance goals.

The research questions below explored how leadership styles and behaviors for military and MWR civilian leaders relate to MWR employee job satisfaction on a military community.

RQ1: To what degree does transformational leadership relate to MWR employee job satisfaction on a military community?

RQ2: To what degree does transactional leadership relate to MWR employee job satisfaction on a military community?

RQ3: To what degree does passive/avoidant behavior relate to MWR employee job satisfaction on a military community?

RQ4: To what degree does the age relate to leadership style and behaviors of military and MWR civilian leaders on a military community?

Hypotheses

The purpose of the study was to evaluate the relationship of the research variables. Research hypotheses identified the researcher's expectations about the relationship between the variables (Roberts, 2010), claiming the hypotheses indicated what the potential outcome may be.

The following hypotheses provided the basis for evaluation of leadership styles and behaviors of military and MWR civilian leaders on MWR employee job satisfaction on a military community. $H1_a$, $H2_a$, and $H3_a$ postulated that military and MWR civilian leaders exhibit transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and passive/avoidant behavior, respectively, when leading and managing MWR civilian employees in a military community. $H4_a$ addressed how the different leadership styles and behaviors of the Bass and Avolio's (2004) model of full range leadership predict employee job satisfaction. $H5_a$ evaluated whether or not a relationship between the age of the leader and his or her leadership style existed.

$H1_0$: A direct relationship between transformational leadership styles and MWR employee job satisfaction does not exist for military and MWR civilian leaders on U.S. Army communities.

$H1_a$: A direct relationship between transformational leadership styles and MWR employee job satisfaction exists for military and MWR civilian leaders on U.S. Army communities.

$H2_0$: A direct relationship between transactional leadership styles and MWR employee job satisfaction does not exist for military and MWR civilian leaders on U.S. Army communities.

$H2_a$: A direct relationship between transactional leadership styles and MWR employee job satisfaction exists for military and MWR civilian leaders on U.S. Army communities.

$H3_0$: A direct relationship between passive/avoidant behavior and MWR employee job satisfaction does not exist for military and MWR civilian leaders on U.S. Army communities.

$H3_a$: A direct relationship between passive/avoidant behavior and MWR employee job satisfaction exists for military and MWR civilian leaders on U.S. Army communities.

$H4_0$: Transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and passive/avoidant behavior does not predict employee job satisfaction on U.S. Army communities.

$H4_a$: Transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and passive/avoidant behavior predict employee job satisfaction on U.S. Army communities.

$H5_0$: A direct relationship between leadership style and age of the leader does not exist for military and MWR civilian leaders on U.S. Army communities.

$H5_a$: A direct relationship between leadership style and age of the leader exists for military and MWR civilian leaders on U.S. Army communities.

Theoretical Framework

Leadership has been essential to every organization. Different leadership styles influenced employee performance throughout an organization, ultimately determining organizational effectiveness (Rukmani et al., 2010). The perception of their immediate supervisor significantly contributed to employees' work outlook (Emery & Barker, 2007). Hersey et al. (2008) further referenced the Ohio State Leadership model where

subordinates were motivated by leader behavior. Employee behavior and attitude added to an organization's effectiveness, most frequently demonstrated through commitment, retention, and satisfaction (Liangding, Jiwen, Chaoping, Rongjun, & Yongxia, 2007).

The situation for the quantitative correlational study addressed the relationship of leadership styles and behaviors on MWR employee job satisfaction on U.S. Army communities, where military and MWR civilian leaders work toward organizational effectiveness. The foundational theory for the study was established using Bass and Avolio's (2004) model of full-range leadership that incorporates transactional leadership, transformational leadership, and passive/avoidant behavior. Cycling leadership back to follower involvement, several behavioral theories addressed the fluctuations of an individual's goals and motivations. After individual goals and needs were met, an individual's level of satisfaction was measured, which was directly tied to organizational performance and eventually back to leadership (Bass 2008; Burns, 1978; Limsila & Ogunlana, 2007; Northouse, 2010; Scott & Davis, 2007).

Leadership. Over the past 30 years, leadership has become one of the most studied areas of organizational development (Bass, 2008; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Burns, 1978; Scott & Davis, 2007). The theoretical framework of this leadership study was based on Bass and Avolio's (2004) model of full-range leadership. Burns originated the concept of transforming leaders as those leaders who recognize and exploit an existing need or demand of a potential follower. Even though he believed transactional interactions comprised the majority of the relationship between leader and follower, Burns viewed the difference between transformational and transactional leadership on opposite ends of the same spectrum (Emery & Barker, 2007). Transformational leaders

focused beyond the immediate needs, focusing instead on greater essential requirements, compared to transactional leaders are fixated on resource allocation and exchange.

As part of the full-range leadership model, Bass and Avolio (2004) refined the transformational leadership component to include four elements: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration, and contended that a leader could exhibit both transactional and transformational styles. In addition the expanded transformational piece, Bass and Avolio identified two transactional leadership components including contingent reward and management by exception – active. According to Bass and Riggio (2006), the leader obtained follower agreement on work requirements in exchange for promised rewards upon satisfactorily completing the assignment. The final component of the Bass and Avolio model included passive/avoidant behavior, which included management by exception – passive and laissez-faire. Stanescu and Rosca (2010) explained the difference between active and passive management by exception as the point when leaders actively monitor for deviation and take corrective action, or passively wait for mistakes to occur before taking action. Considered the no leadership element, Bass and Riggio (2006) described laissez-faire leaders as disengaged, indecisive, and who "do not emphasize results, refrain from intervening, and fail to perform follow-up" (p. 206).

Northouse (2010) addressed two situational theories: Hersey and Blanchard's (1969) Situational Leadership and Fielder's (1967) Contingency Theory. Northouse described Hersey and Blanchard's theory as directive and supportive, but applicable to different situations. Once leaders determined the capabilities of followers, they better matched the needs of followers to the specific situation. Comparatively, he defined

Fielder's theory as being either task-oriented or relationship-oriented, attempting to match the leader to the appropriate situation. Hersey et al. (2008) summarized that under either theory, leaders should be flexible and able to apply the appropriate style to different situations.

Organizational Performance. Researchers have established the relationship between leadership and organizational performance (Bass, 2008; Scott & Davis, 2007). While several performance indicators demonstrate organizational effectiveness, leaders have determined that follower involvement and interaction contribute to these indicators, including customer satisfaction, productivity, and financial performance (Emery & Barker, 2007; Yiing & Ahmad, 2009). As a result, leaders have realized the required balance between being task-oriented and relationship-oriented when leading organizations (Ismail, Zainuddin, & Ibrahim, 2010). Yukl (2010) concluded that the situational variables relevant to organizations have influenced leadership, organizational effectiveness, and finally, follower satisfaction. Recognizing a follower's personal needs and motivations allowed leaders to understand and manage the organization and its followers more effectively (Yukl).

Behavior Theories. Understanding human behavior allowed leaders to determine not only past actions but also possibly predict or control future behavior (Hersey et al., 2008). The motivation behind human behavior began with Maslow's (1943, as cited in Hersey et al.) hierarchy of needs, covering physiological, safety, social, esteem, and self-actualization. Inherent to individual rewards were a person's needs and value one places on such rewards. Maslow's philosophy stated that until basic needs are met, a person's motivation to move to higher needs will remain low (Hersey et al.). Because employees have different needs and motivations, leaders must remain cognizant of those differences and manage them differently.

Building from Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory determined that people have several categories of needs independent of each other that affect behavior differently (Hersey et al., 2008). The employee's work environment was addressed under hygiene, where followers maintained the basic work conditions to prevent job dissatisfaction. The other category was motivators that helped people work toward superior performance, and included feelings of achievement, professional growth, and recognition. As leaders understood employees' needs, established goals helped employees attain those goals and remain motivated.

Another behavioral theory, House and Mitchell's (1974) path-goal theory explained how leaders can adapt behaviors to support employees' needs and goals in different situations (Northouse, 2010). Seeking more of employee's effort, Lawler (2006) asked "what makes people effective contributors to organizational performance" (p. 634), influenced by the combination of motivation and ability. Vroom's (1973)

Expectancy Theory held that people will perform in particular ways if they are certain that the result will lead to some reward.

Larsson, Vinberg, and Wiklund (2007) referenced McGregor's (1960) Theory X - Y as an old, but still applicable theory about how a leader's beliefs about employees influence different leadership methods. Theory X stated the average human being dislikes work and will attempt to avoid it if possible, preferring instead to be directed to work toward organizational goals (Kopelman, Prottas, & Davis, 2008). Theory X workers were not interested in assuming responsibility, had little determination, but wanted safety above all. The typical follower preferred being directed with little ambition, avoided responsibility, and desired security from the organization. As such, followers must be forced to work, which may require different styles of management and leadership (McAuley, Duberley, & Johnson, 2007). Comparatively, Theory Y stated that people are generally not lazy or unreliable, but can be self-directed and creative if properly motivated. Theory Y employees were more likely to commit to organizational objectives as they were aware of the potential rewards associated with their achievement.

For more than half a century, human behavior has played an important role in leadership and management of organizations. Understanding how employees behave and what motivates their actions remained critical to leadership. Integral to individual motivation, employee job satisfaction provided a clear indicator into follower happiness and commitment to an organization.

Employee Job Satisfaction. While several motivational indicators of organizational effectiveness existed, employee job satisfaction was the primary individual criteria measured from an employee's perspective (Matzler & Renzl, 2007;

Savaneviciene & Stankeviciute, 2011). Bashir, Jianqiao, Jun, Ghazanfar, and Khan (2011) viewed employee job satisfaction as being vital for organization performance. Recent studies concluded that a significant relationship exists between leadership styles and satisfaction (Bodla & Nawaz, 2010). According to the Dictionary of Human Resource Management (2008), a number of dimensions or sources for job satisfaction have been defined, including attitudes to pay, working conditions, coworkers and superiors, career prospects, and the intrinsic features of the tasks performed.

Locke (1976) offered an early definition of job satisfaction, viewing it as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (p. 1304). More recently, Whitman, Van Roddy, and Viswesvaran (2010) adopted Brief's (1998) job satisfaction definition as "an internal state that is expressed by affectively and cognitively evaluating an experienced job with some degree of favor or disfavor" (p. 86). Followers strove for inclusion and consideration when actions were taken or decisions made (Eskildensen & Dahlgaard, 2000).

The exchange between leader and follower contributed to organizational effectiveness and performance (Lawler & Porter, 1967; Mardanov, Heischmidt, & Henson, 2008). In a military environment in which task-oriented and relationship-oriented leadership were very distinct, employees embraced organizational values, built on trust, commitment, and satisfaction (Gill, Flaschner, Shat, & Bhutani, 2010; Gilstrap & Collins, 2012). Lawler (2008) acknowledged that responsible leaders must focus on the performance the organization desires, skill development for followers, individual motivation, and employee assessment. These challenges were equally important in a military community where Commanders balanced all available resources.

Military Leadership. Historically, Commanders have led military communities where military, civilians, and their families live and work. Most Commanders who assume leadership on a military community did not have specific training in resource allocation and personnel management. For most Commanders, leadership training consisted of general leadership theory and specific military-oriented leadership training classes (United States Military Academy, 2007). In an overseas environment, military communities resembled self-contained cities led by military Commanders and a civilian workforce whose primary objective is to provide quality services and support to soldiers, civilians, and their families, equal to those in the United States. Both military and civilians leaders managed every quality of life aspect within these quasi-cities.

Inherent to any military environment, the military leader exuded a natural influence over everyone. However, similar to most organizations, leaders managed and directed operations using different leadership skills and abilities (Hersey et al., 2008). As a consequence, incumbent managers and employees conformed and adapted to different leadership styles as Commanders changed, directly influencing the expected performance and outcomes. For most military communities, the normal length of service for a military Commander was approximately two years. Comparatively, most Department of Defense civilians stayed at the same military community up to five years. This disparity in time has created controversy as most incoming military Commanders want to establish their own philosophies, shaping programs and services based on what they have seen on other military communities.

The different perspectives on leadership and management influenced how employees react and work to accomplish the military community mission and goals. As

employees assume the primary role of customer service provider on most military communities, their level of job satisfaction directly contributes to the organization's performance. The present study identified how significant the relationship of leadership styles and behaviors of military and MWR civilian leaders on MWR employee job satisfaction in a military community.

The present research study between leadership styles and employee job satisfaction added to the existing knowledge base in the military community environment. While there have been similar studies covering leadership styles and employee job satisfaction for military and government agencies, no research existed that examined varying leadership styles between military and civilian leaders against employee job satisfaction on military communities. By studying the leadership styles from these two core management elements on a military community, research demonstrated which style was more effective in supporting organizational performance and specifically employee job satisfaction. Additionally, this research extended the body of knowledge of how different leadership styles influence employee job satisfaction.

Definition of Terms

The following constructs provided operational terms and definitions used in the study.

Commander. Dictionary.com (n.d.) defined Commander as someone who holds authority or an officer in command of a military formation or operation. The Commander encompassed the highest ranking military member who oversees and directly manages an Army garrison, usually a colonel or lieutenant colonel.

Department of Defense Personnel. Army Regulation 215-3 (2003) defined Department of Defense (DOD) personnel as military personnel (including retired members and reservists on active or inactive duty for training) and DOD civilian employees paid from appropriated and non-appropriated funds, under permanent or temporary appointment. For this study, within MWR, DOD personnel constituted U.S. citizens or Local Nationals (citizens of an overseas host country or foreign country).

Employees. Dictionary.com (n.d.) defined 'employee' as a person working for another person or a business firm for pay. For this study, the terms employees and followers were used interchangeably to mean civilian personnel who work on military communities under the leadership of the Commander or MWR civilian leader.

Job Satisfaction. Locke (1976) defined job satisfaction as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (p. 1304).

Laissez-faire Leadership. Bass & Riggio (2006) described laissez-faire leaders as disengaged, indecisive, and who "do not emphasize results, refrain from intervening, and fail to perform follow-up" (p. 206).

Leader. Bennis and Nanus (1985) proclaimed that a leader "is one who commits people to action, who converts followers to leaders, and who may convert leaders into agents of change" (p. 3). For this study, a leader was anyone who signs a performance rating for a subordinate employee.

Leadership. For this study, the definition of leadership was the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it,

and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives (Yukl, 2010).

Morale, Welfare, and Recreation (MWR). The network of family services and leisure programs designed to improve the quality of life of military, civilians, and their families across all Military Services within the Department of Defense (DoD). Broken up into different funding categories, mission sustaining programs (Category A) were considered essential in meeting the organizational objectives of the Military Services. They promoted the physical and mental well-being of the military member, a requirement that supports accomplishment of the basic military mission, including libraries, fitness centers, parks and picnic areas, and recreation centers, and Armed Forces Entertainment.

The basic community support programs (Category B) were closely related to those in Category A in supporting the military mission. They satisfied the basic physiological and psychological needs of the military and their families, providing to the extent possible the community support systems that make DoD installations temporary hometowns for a mobile military population, including Child, Youth, and School Services, Outdoor Recreation, Recreation Swimming, Recreation Information, Tickets, Tours, and Travel Services, Automotive Skills, Art and Crafts, Boating, Camping, Riding Stables, and Service Member Techno-Activities Centers.

The revenue-generating programs (Category C) provided recreational activities that contribute to building a sense of community and enjoyment. Activities in this group had the business capability of generating enough income to cover most of their operating expenses but they lacked the ability to sustain themselves based purely on their business activity, including Golf, Recreation Lodging, Marinas, Animal Kennels, Aquatics

Centers, Equipment Rental, Vehicle Storage, Bowling, Clubs, Lounges, Java Cafés, Resale Programs, and Armed Forces Recreation Centers (Department of Defense Instruction 1015.10, 2009).

Organizational Performance. Snow and Hrebiniak (1980, as cited in Kapucu, Volkov, & Wang, 2011) defined organizational performance "as the effectiveness of an organization in providing products and services" (p. 397). An organization's performance was measured using financial results, mystery shopper scores, customer satisfaction, employee job satisfaction, and employee turnover (Abu-Jarad et al., 2010).

Passive/Avoidant Behavior. According to Bass and Avolio (2004), passive/avoidant behavior consists of two components. In general, management by exception was the degree to which the leader takes corrective action on the basis of results of leader–follower transactions. One component of management by exception reflected a more passive and reactive approach, where leaders waited until the behavior has created problems before taking action. Laissez-faire leaders avoided involvement with followers when issues arose, further delaying responses and decisions.

Transactional Leadership. According to Bass (2008), the two dimensions of transactional leadership were contingent reward and management by exception—active. Contingent reward was the degree to which the leader sets up constructive transactions or exchanges with followers. The leader clarified expectations and establishes the rewards for meeting these expectations. Related to the definition of management by exception – passive, the active component of management by exception implied a directive approach to monitoring mistakes and deviations for expected performance. Active leaders

monitored follower behavior, anticipated problems, and took corrective actions before the behavior creates serious difficulties.

Transformational Leadership. Bass and Avolio (2004) defined transformational leadership as "a process of influencing in which leaders change their associates' awareness of what is important, and move them to see themselves and the opportunities and challenges of their environment in a new way. Transformational leaders are proactive: they seek to optimize individual, group, and organizational development and innovation, not just achieve performance 'at expectations.' They convince their associated to strive for higher levels of potential as well as higher levels of moral and ethical standards." (p. 94).

Assumptions

Neuman (2011) postulated that assumptions provide the starting point for gaining a more complete understanding of a theory or issue. The first assumption was the two selected survey instruments are reliable, valid, and applicable to this research study. Both the Bass and Avolio (2004) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire and the Spector (1994) Job Satisfaction Survey have been proven valid and reliable for measuring leadership behaviors and styles and assessing employee attitudes, respectively. The second assumption was that vast population across Europe would provide an optimal response rate. The population represented the U.S. Army military leaders, MWR civilian leaders, and MWR civilian employees from 16 garrisons across Europe. The next assumption was the availability of the military e-mail network in Europe would remain available to the population. This population had U.S. Army computer access, allowing them to receive the e-mail invitation to participate. The next assumption involved the

population's ability to comprehend the e-mail invitation and decide to participate in the research study. Most participants possessed at least a high school level education with many holding college degrees, further reducing the likelihood of misinterpreting the surveys. The next assumption fell on the population's decision to want to participate in the research study. Competing priorities, job requirements, and personal commitments influenced members of the population from considering participation in the research study. The last assumption relied on the participants' capacity to understand and answer the survey questions accurately and honestly. Because survey participation was anonymous, respondents had no reason to misrepresent their position on leadership or their individual job attitude.

Scope and Limitations

The scope of the quantitative study was designed to expand the study of leadership styles and behaviors of military and MWR civilian leaders on MWR employee job satisfaction within a military community. The study sample consisted of 381 participants, including military leaders, MWR civilian leaders, and MWR civilian employees employed by the U.S. Army within the European Region. Two survey forms collected the data: the Leader Survey and the Employee Survey. Within the Employee Survey, additional questions were added that addressed employee job satisfaction.

Limitations referred to factors beyond the control of the researcher, including problems or potential weaknesses with the study (Creswell, 2008; Roberts, 2010). As the study focused on military and MWR civilian leaders within a military community, the results may not be applicable to private industries or organizations outside the military or government. Second, residing and living in Europe may influence how participants

perceive their leaders and their employment situation, as compared to living and working in other parts of the world. Next, the accuracy of the research findings relied on how well respondents understood the survey questions and how honest their responses were. Last, while research conclusions identified the existence of relationships between leadership of military and MWR civilian leaders and employee job satisfaction on military communities, the correlation did not indicate to what level a specific leadership style influenced organizational performance. In addition to job satisfaction, other follower influences factored into organizational performance.

Delimitations

According to Roberts (2010) and Pajares (2007), delimitations addressed how a study was narrowed in scope, or how it was bounded. In other words, this section defined what the research did not cover and why the researcher chose not to cover it. In the current study, a self-reporting survey instrument collected the data. This type of survey returned very subjective results based on individual preferences, potentially jeopardizing the validity of the results and subsequent findings. Participants from different U.S. Army communities within the European Region did not share the same leadership knowledge and job satisfaction levels as military communities outside Europe or even nonmilitary organizations, which influenced the results and findings of the study.

The research study encompassed a population of approximately 1,800 people comprised of U.S. citizens and local national employees from the MWR programs and the military Commander on U.S. Army garrisons in Europe. Because the jobs and duties are similar to U.S. citizens, the local nationals employed by MWR were included within the potential population. The primary employment differences between local nationals

and U.S. citizens centered on wages, benefits, and working conditions, which are specific to each country.

The U.S. Army garrisons were embedded in several international communities in Germany, Italy, Belgium, and the Netherlands. A Status of Forces Agreement between each host country and the foreign nation stationing military personnel within that country dictated the rules and rights that foreign personnel must adhere to while residing in their country. While the international communities that surround these military garrisons actively supported and interacted with the U.S. Army and its personnel, this study did not address the relationship between the local host nation communities and the U.S. Army garrisons.

Summary

The purpose of the study was to determine the relationship of leadership styles and behaviors of military and MWR civilian leaders on MWR employee job satisfaction in a military community. A sample of military leaders, MWR civilian leaders, and MWR civilian employees from the U.S. Army in the Europe contributed to this study. The method of data analysis included two Likert-style surveys distributed to the population using an e-mail message with survey links for leaders and employees. The surveys were a combination of Bass and Avolio's (2004) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire and Spector's (1994) Job Satisfaction Survey, depending on whether the participant was a leader or employee.

Different analytical methods, including multiple regression, descriptive statistics, and bivariate correlations were considered to analyze the data to determine to what degree a relationship existed between leadership styles and employee job satisfaction.

The results from the study contributed to body of knowledge and potentially provided Department of Defense leadership with evidence that may improve military community leadership and management.

In every organization, effective leadership was critical to achieving organizational performance for both internal and external stakeholders (Bass, 2008; Yukl, 2010). Employees looked to leaders for guidance and direction, a vital element within most definitions of leadership (Navanhandi, 2006; Northouse, 2010). While researchers have established a relationship between leadership and employee satisfaction (Bass, 2008; Bolman & Deal, 2008; Jones, 2010; Scott & Davis, 2007), no research existed that addressed this relationship in a military community. To understand the relationship among different leadership styles and employee job satisfaction and its application to a military community, it was important to review the literature. The literature review that follows in Chapter 2 was conducted to review the current literature on relevant leadership theories and employee job satisfaction.

Chapter 2: Review of the Literature

This correlational quantitative study examined the relationship of leadership styles and behaviors of military and MWR civilian leaders on MWR employee job satisfaction in a military community. The review of the literature in Chapter 2 investigated the relationships between leadership styles and behavioral theories and their influence on organizational performance and specifically employee job satisfaction. This chapter also explored background information on military leadership and the gap in research.

Documentation

Chapter 2 offered relevant literature from scholarly peer-reviewed articles, journals, and books. Sources included books and various online databases comprising EBSCOhost, ProQuest, Gale PowerSearch, and ProQuest Dissertation databases. Additionally, relevant military research originated from secured online military networks and databases as well as personal communications from military leaders. Articles and journals were accessed using keyword searches such as *leadership styles, leadership theories, leadership effectiveness, leadership and job satisfaction, transformational leadership, full-range leadership, employee job satisfaction, military leadership effectiveness*, *organizational performance, organizational performance and job satisfaction*, and *organizational effectiveness*. A total of 132 references were considered for this study (Appendix A).

Articles. Ninety-four peer-reviewed and scholarly articles were referenced in preparation for this proposal. The use of scholarly articles was important in research, as it has presented well-documented research that led to solid findings (Leedy & Ormrod,

2010). Peer-reviewed articles contributed impartiality to research, reducing the chance for bias. Approximately 50% of the articles used in this chapter were related to leadership and job satisfaction. Additional articles from organizational behavior and military leadership were reviewed for inclusion into this chapter.

Research Documents. Thirty-seven books and journals were reviewed and determined relevant to the study of leadership and its influence of job satisfaction on employees. Some of these books were authored by: Bass (2006, 2008), Bass and Avolio (1994), Bolman and Deal (2008), Burns (1978, 2003), Jones (2010), Northouse, (2010), Scott and Davis (2007), and Yukl (2010). These books contributed material on leadership, organizational theory, and organizational behavior. Military leadership documents were obtained through the Center for the Army Profession and Ethic at the United States Military Academy at West Point, Army Regulations from Army Publishing Directorate, and the secured Army Knowledge Online website.

Even with the abundance of transformational leadership articles and documents covering multiple industries and sectors, the review of literature suggested a lack of leadership research specific to leading military communities. The only recent military-oriented research studies addressed gender stereotyping among Air Force military, lifelong civilian education for enlisted military, the applicability of military leadership to civilian careers, or satisfaction levels of U.S. Army civilians at a specific U.S.-based garrison. Several studies involving government civil servant employees were more common, relating leadership styles to either various organizational performance indicators or emotional intelligence competencies.

Leadership

The study of leadership extended to the beginning of civilization (Bass, 2008). From Egyptian hieroglyphs to Plato to Machiavelli, the philosophy of leadership has had a place in establishing and maintaining order (Wren, 2005). In the latter half of the 20th century, leadership research investigated unproven techniques and methods in search of answers ranging from leader-centric approaches to hands-off empowered followers. The changing nature of society and technology necessitated better management involvement and growth in organizations (Wren).

Background

Prior to discussing the foundational theory for this research study, one must understand how early theories have progressed to transformational leadership. Initially, the Great Man Theory assumed that "leaders are born and not made" giving rise to the idea that effective leaders will evolve naturally when needed (Bass, 2008; Riaz & Haider, 2010). Early leadership research indicated that leaders stepped forward to lead people, mostly from an aristocratic and elevated position level, like King, President, or Prime Minister. Derue, Nahrgang, Wellman, and Humphrey (2011) speculated that individual traits influence leadership effectiveness. However, Derue et al. believed leader behaviors fluctuate between inherent traits and the followers' reactions to the leader.

In the 1950s, behavioral theories emphasized the development of leaders over inherited abilities. Moving away from the leader-centric approach, researchers began exploring how leaders relate and interact with followers. Bass (2008) posited how Stogdill identified several personality traits and skills as critical to the success of leaders, most of which could be considered learned behaviors applicable in different situations.

Additionally, Bass noted Blake and Mouton's (1964) Managerial Grid (and later called Blake and McCanse's Leadership Grid) introduced the balance between task and people. This grid as well as other similar theories and concepts evolved from the leader approach that emphasized the traits and personalities of the leader to the identification and interaction between leaders and followers, which eventually led to the development of transformational leadership (Bass, 2008; Bass & Riggio, 2006).

As a natural development of management, the human side of leadership emerged that considered the leader and the follower (Emery & Barker, 2007; Yukl, 2010). With the onset of the modern management era, leaders began considering production and people as part of the organization's performance (McFadden, Eakin, Beck-Frazier, & McGlone, 2005). Yammarino (as cited in Bass & Avolio, 1994) claimed that managers are concerned with decisions and communication flow, compared to a leader who focuses on creative ideas and motivating others to work hard to transform those ideas into new realities.

Similar to the evolution of leadership theories and models, the definition of leadership brought several variations and considerations. While Machiavelli advised leaders to rule followers using manipulative and harsh behaviors, he also believed a kinder, gentler approach was also possible, depending on the situation (Kessler, Bandelli, Spector, Borman, Nelson, & Penney, 2010). Navanhandi (2006) identified three common elements from different working definitions of leadership. First, leadership was a *group phenomenon* because there can be no leaders without followers, reinforcing the notion that leadership involves interpersonal influence. Second, leadership was *goal-oriented* with leaders guiding others down a particular path toward a certain goal. Third, the

presence of leaders implied some level of *hierarchy within a group*, whether it is formal or informal.

Burns (1978) offered an early definition of leadership as "leaders inducing followers to act for certain goals that represent the values and motivations–the wants and needs, the aspirations and expectations–of both leaders and followers" (p. 19). On a more basic level, Northouse (2010) defined leadership as a process whereby one individual influences another individual or group of individuals to achieve some goal or perform some action. Bass (2008) also identified key leadership components to include "concentrating on the leader as a person, on the behavior of the leader, on the effect of the leader, and on the interaction process between the leader and the led" (p. 15). For this study, leadership was defined as "the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done, how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives" (Yukl, 2010, p. 8).

As evidenced from these progressive definitions, leadership has long been a subject of study (Bass, 2008; Hoppe, 1970; Yukl, 2010). The importance of leadership has evolved from early civilization and folk-lore to leader-follower research studies, where the role of leaders has evolved from authoritarian to selfless service (Bass, 2008; Northouse, 2010; Vroom & Jago, 2007). Wren (2005) referenced Follett's view where leadership would be based on a reciprocal influence of leader on follower and follower on leader, depending on the situation. Toward the end of the 20th century, the integration between leader and follower began to take hold as being critical to leader effectiveness and organizational performance.

Foundational Theories

This overview of leadership encapsulated several leadership styles and theories. This section concentrated on full-range leadership, which has become an important instrument in comprehending the skills, behaviors, and styles of effective leaders (Bass, 2008; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Kaiser & Overfield, 2010), as well as situational and contingency leadership.

Transactional Leadership. According to Burns (1978), transactional leaders focused on the exchange process in which they use items of tangible value, like salary increases or promotions, to make followers execute their orders or commands (Bass, 2008). Leaders accomplished these goals through contingent rewards and management-by-exception – active. For contingent rewards, leaders rewarded followers if they meet or exceed their performance expectations (Northouse, 2010). Conversely, they were punished if they failed to meet the objectives.

In management-by-exception, a leader used corrective criticism, negative feedback, and negative reinforcement if there was evidence of major deviations from the plan from a follower's poor performance (Northouse, 2010). For active management-by-exception, the leader closely supervised monitoring for mistakes or violations before taking corrective action.

Bass (1998) did not agree with Burns and opined transactional leaders are to some degree involved with leader-follower exchanges, compared to the typical transactional leader who is uninvolved and inactive. Through his own research of earlier leaders, Burns (2003) realized that leadership went beyond the give and take relationship of transactions. Studying President Franklin Delano Roosevelt's political life, he discovered

the value of interaction between leader and follower as Roosevelt influenced others in Congress toward his policies and programs.

Burns (1978, 2003) realized that a transforming leader seeks to satisfy higher personal needs and looks for possible motives in followers through engaging them completely. Burns further opined that transforming leadership takes place when both leaders and followers engage together, raising each other's motivation and morality. Burns concluded that transforming leadership should be viewed as a complete system in which the functions and roles of leaders and followers change through interaction.

Transformational Leadership. Bass (2008) expanded on Burns' original theory and described the transformational leader as someone who "asks followers to transcend their own self-interests for the good of the group, organization, or society, to consider their longer-term needs to develop themselves, rather than their needs of the moment, and to become more aware of what is really important" (p. 50). Bass and Riggio (2006) suggested that transformational leadership's attractiveness emanates from its emphasis on intrinsic motivation and follower development. The transformational leader targeted the individual followers' desires and needs guiding them to accomplish more than what is normally expected of them (Northouse, 2010). In the mid-1980s, Bass (2008) developed a multidimensional theory of transformational leadership that included idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration.

Idealized influence. Originally known as charisma, leaders who have idealized influence behaved in admirable ways that caused followers to identify with them and the organization. Bodla and Nawaz (2010) identified two aspects of idealized influence: the

behavior of the leader and the elements that are attributed to the leader's personality by his followers. Leaders focused on building respect, commitment, and trust from followers through their behavior and actions, sacrificing their own gain for the good of the organization (Shibru & Darshan, 2011). Furthermore, this type of leader took risks, but maintained consistent actions of ethics and conduct (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Inspirational motivation. Leaders used inspirational motivation to gain follower support of a program, idea, or cause. Inspirational leaders challenged followers to attain higher meaning from their work (Bass & Riggio, 2006). The leader inspired followers through communicating a vision enthusiastically and optimistically accepting to followers (Bass, 2008; Shirbu & Darshan, 2011). Once followers understood why they should follow, they accepted the purpose and became inspired to commit themselves fully to the program or cause.

Intellectual stimulation. Intellectually stimulated leaders encouraged creativity and innovation in their followers (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Bodla and Nawaz (2010) described intellectual stimulation as the leader's ability to stimulate creativity and innovation by seeking nontraditional approaches to questions. These leaders questioned norms and challenged existing issues and problems, seeking new ways and alternative solutions to make intelligent decisions. To support creativity, these leaders were seen as empowering, allowing followers to focus on new ideas and take them out of the task-oriented rut (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Bass and Riggio (2006) cited Quinn and Hall's (1983) proposition that leaders stimulate followers using rational, existential, empirical, or ideological thinking. Followers embraced the chance to exercise free-thinking and the empowerment to make decisions.

Individualized consideration. Individualized consideration leaders paid extra attention to each follower's developmental needs, making a personal connection (Bass & Riggio, 2006). These leaders acted as mentors or coaches, listening to followers' concerns and needs on an individual level (Shibru & Darshan, 2011). This personalized consideration and attention created the leader-follower relationship that builds trust and commitment. By personalizing relationships with followers, leaders could better align organizational objectives and mission with follower skills, abilities, and desires (Bodla & Nawaz, 2010).

Transformational leadership rested on the opposite end of the leadership spectrum from transactional leadership in that transformational leadership involved an exchange of attitudes, values, and behaviors between the leader and the follower (Bass, 2008; Yammarino, Spangler, & Dubinsky, 1998). Different from transactional leadership, transformational leadership addressed follower performance and development throughout the leadership process. Comparatively, laissez-faire leadership provided almost no exchange opportunities with followers.

Passive/Avoidant Behavior. Another method of management by exception leadership stressed a passive, more reactive approach. For passive management-by-exception, the leader supervised the followers in an inactive approach and did not get involved until after the follower had issues or failed to meet expectations. When a problem arose, the leader took corrective actions to address the problem and implement punishments against the follower. The transactional leader did not personalize followers' needs or focus on their development, focusing instead on the exchange process (Yukl, 2010).

According to Bass and Riggio (2006), laissez-faire leaders exercised no leadership or "hands-off" leadership, avoid making decisions or motivating followers, and provided limited to no exchange with followers. Laissez-faire leadership was the most inactive and ineffective type of leadership (Bass, 2008). Northouse (2010) referred to it as an absence of leadership that "diverges from transactional leadership and represents behaviors that are non-transactional" (p. 182). Furthermore, this style of leadership created uncertainty, confusion, and dissatisfaction among followers, and has proven to be unproductive because of the nonexistent effort and contact of the leader (Bass).

Situational Leadership Theory. Originally conceived in 1969 as the life-cycle theory of leadership based on previous work by Stogdill and Coons, Hersey and Blanchard (1969) introduced the situational leadership theory claiming different situations demand different kinds of leadership (Awan & Mahmood, 2009; Northouse, 2010). Hersey and Blanchard's theory included four dimensions: task behavior, relationship behavior, follower maturity, and effectiveness. According to Hersey et al.

(2008), different levels of follower maturity directed the level of task structure and relationship support necessary for effective leadership (Lerstrom, 2008).

Northouse (2010) posited that effective leaders must adapt their leadership style to the demands of different situations. Leaders routinely evaluated and assessed the capabilities of followers for a particular task to determine what level of direction or support is necessary to address followers' needs. Bass (2008) claimed that under the situational leadership model, the leader should place less emphasis on structured tasks and more importance on individual consideration. Bass went on to explain that "maturity is defined in terms of subordinates' experience, motivation to achieve, and willingness and ability to accept responsibility" (p. 59). Understanding where followers were on the model pointed to how much directive and supportive behavior would be forthcoming from the leader, directly influencing development of the follower.

Contingency Leadership Theory. Similar to situational leadership, the contingency leadership theory focused on matching leaders to the appropriate situation. Northouse (2010) described Fielder's (1967) contingency leadership theory as how well the leader's style fits the context of the situation. Designed behind military research, Fiedler made generalizations about different leadership styles that matched them against different situational factors (Hill, 1969; Northouse, 2010), including the leader-member relations, task structure, and position power (Justis, 1975).

Considering the different situational factors, Fiedler concluded that contingent leadership styles were either task-oriented or relationship-oriented (Northouse, 2010). He developed the Least Preferred Coworker scale to determine which styles would be most effective in different situations (Hill, 1969; Hoppe, 1970; Northouse; Vroom & Jago,

2007). Justis (1975) concluded that "the level of leadership effectiveness is influenced strongly by the perceived task competency of the leader, the reward dependency of the subordinate upon the leader, and the interaction of these two variables" (p. 166). Hill observed that no one style of leadership is always effective; however, Fiedler's model predicted which one will be more effective as the application of influence varies with every situation.

The difference between situational and contingency leadership theories revolved around the leader. For situational leadership, leaders focused on how the followers will respond or react to a situation given their maturity level, whereas for the contingency theory, the specific situation determined the most effective leadership style. According to McFadden et al. (2005), each theory "highlights a different leadership situation and emphasizes the necessity for the leader to utilize different leadership behaviors depending on situational factors" (p. 73). However, the contingency theory of leadership blended group atmosphere, task structure, and the leader's power position (Hill, 1969). According to Bass (2008), Stogdill believed the leader is a product of the situation and circumstances, not self-made and not a product of personality, drive, or ability.

Summary of Leadership Theories

Van Vugt, Hogan, and Kaiser (2008) concluded that leadership is an evolving answer to the adaptive problem of shared work. They theorized that the collective nature of performance to meet organizational goals is driven by teams of individuals guided by leaders. Based on their own research, Kaiser and Overfield (2010) determined that leader effectiveness does not reflect the individual or group performance; instead, the measure of leadership success was reflective of the individual leadership style and performance.

While most theorists accepted that no one particular leadership style is effective in all situations and to all followers, all theorists acknowledged that some leadership characteristics were necessary, albeit at different points on the same continuum, for effective leadership between leaders and followers (Bass, 2008; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Burns, 1978). The leadership theories revealed several shared qualities and distinct attributes with a natural evolution from authoritative and directive to participative and follower-focused (Bass; Burns).

The overriding philosophy behind transformational leadership joined the qualities of situational and contingency leadership focusing on relationship development between leader and follower, not forgetting the importance of transactional task completion. Furthermore, the follower-focused approach of situational leadership mirrored the influential and inspirational qualities of transformational leadership, emphasizing mutual support, trust, and commitment between the leaders and followers.

While several research studies compared leadership style to organizational performance, a knowledge gap for measuring leadership styles against the follower-oriented performance indicator of job satisfaction on military communities existed. The next section introduced organizational performance, followed by the specific indicator of job satisfaction.

Organizational Performance

Historically, scholars have not agreed on specific criteria that best measures organizational performance and effectiveness (Bolman & Deal, 2008; DeClerk, 2008; Scott & Davis, 2007). The traditional concept of organizational performance has been tied to financial outcome and specific performance indicators (Hersey et al., 2008). Total

quality management, for example, was one mechanism available to organizations to match the organization's purpose against the achievements, aiming for perfection and efficient operations. However, in addition to the specific item or service being measured, the organization's performance covered many areas, such as productivity (both quantity and quality), financial revenues and costs, customer satisfaction, growth, and retention, and employee development and turnover (Kaiser & Overfield, 2010).

Scott and Davis (2007) offered a more focused analysis of organizational effectiveness relative to performance criteria and indicators. Despite multiple criteria offered from various researchers, Scott and Davis concluded that different system models (rational, natural, and open) yield different indicators of organizational effectiveness. Scott and Davis identified three general types of indicators essential to understanding the different criteria: outcomes, processes, and structure. Because resource inputs varied among organizations, *outcomes* focused on detailed elements of resources or objects specific to the organization's environment and situation. *Processes* were also organization specific and tended to be more controllable by the organization allowing better analysis relative to the output. While information made available through processes may be easier to collect and analyze, process measures did not always provide objective outcomes. An organization's *structure* influenced the capacity and capability of the organization to perform effectively.

While an organization's performance indicators measured outcomes against input and processes, organizations were more simply attempting to determine how effective they perform. Snow and Hrebiniak (1980, as cited in Kapucu, Volkov, & Wang, 2011) defined organizational performance "as the effectiveness of an organization in providing

products and services" (p. 397). Similarly, Kaiser and Overfield (2010) clarified that while leadership's purpose is to bring people together and guide them down a common path toward a goal, the result remains about how the group is doing to reach that goal, or in other words their performance. While not quantified on a financial statement, Kaiser and Overfield noted that customer and human resources-based measures are important to the sustainability of current productivity levels and financial performance.

According to Limsila and Ogunlana (2007), the outcomes of leadership performance consisted of three measureable factors: effectiveness, satisfaction, and extra effort. While the first factor was contingent mostly on leader controls, the remaining two factors served as a reflection or outcome of the leader's style and behaviors. Before one could explore the relationship of satisfaction to leadership, it became necessary to understand how individual behaviors drive it. The next section explored how individuals determine their needs and motivations led their behaviors.

Human Behavior and Job Satisfaction

A review of the literature identified the migration from a managerial approach based on human needs and motivations to a composite approach that balanced individual, group, and organization goals and objectives. Wren (2005) believed employees sought fulfillment of their needs through work. He also alleged that management guided organizations to satisfy the needs of employees, yet still working toward effective allocation of resources to accomplish goals. This section presented a historical background leading from individual motivation to organizational performance to job satisfaction, in an effort to illustrate an understanding of how individuals behave and why individuals seek satisfaction.

Historical background. Considered the father of scientific management, Taylor (1911) focused on increasing worker output by "considering people as instruments or machines to be manipulated by their leaders" (Hersey et al., 2008, p. 74). While his administrative theories sought to create more efficiency in work techniques, the emphasis remained on the workers adjusting to management with the needs of the organization central to performance. Despite sharing similar goals to Taylor, Mayo (1933) pursued a cooperative and collaborative approach to industry that considered the joint efforts of workers and management (Wren, 2005). In addition to the best techniques and methods to improve output, Mayo believed management should incorporate a human-relations orientation, focusing on individual needs instead of organizational needs.

According to Hersey et al. (2008), individual goals drive behavior, both consciously and subconsciously. Freud (1950s) posited the effects of the subconscious on human motivation and needs, believing that most desires remain below the surface of the conscious mind (Hersey et al.). Taking the motivational drive to the next level, Dartey-Bassh (2010) cited how Maslow theorized that a hierarchical relationship exists such that basic needs must be at least partially met before an individual pursues higher levels of need. Burke (as cited in Gallos, 2006) posited Maslow's belief that "human motivation can be explained in terms of needs that people experience in varying degrees all the time" (p. 20). Followers' unsatisfied needs influenced how much energy and motivation one imparts to satisfy that need. While several lower needs were met before higher level needs show up, the importance of these needs changed as the individuals develop and goals change (Dartey-Baah, 2010; Hersey et al., 2008).

Douglas McGregor's (1957) Theory X-Theory Y concept expanded Elton Mayo's Hawthorne Studies experiments that dealt with human behaviors and motivation (Wren, 2005). McGregor extended the concept that human nature and behavior were important in determining management style (Wren). Theory X assumed people prefer direction, are not interested in assuming responsibility, and above all want safety. Theory Y assumed people are not lazy or unreliable, instead suggesting that people can be self-directed and creative at work if properly motivated (Hersey et al., 2008), concluding that management is responsible for releasing the potential in individuals. Wren (2005) contended that McGregor's theories were misinterpreted to be extreme opposite distinctions, when, in fact, they were just different beliefs that could help managers determine which strategy is more appropriate. McGregor's theories moved organizational behavior from a human approach to an organizational approach.

While Maslow contended that individuals proceed through his five-level need system as steps along one scale, Herzberg's (1966) approach maintained two different ranges existed (Burke as cited in Gallos, 2006). According to Wren (2005), Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory determined which factors in an employee's work environment led to satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Among the primary "hygiene" factors leading to dissatisfaction encompassed organizational policy, supervision, relationship with supervisors, work conditions, salary, and coworker relationships, compared to factors leading to satisfaction that included achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, advancement, and growth. Conversely, factors that led to positive attitudes, satisfaction, and motivation were termed "motivators," and were considered part of the job content. Some factors leading to satisfaction included achievement, credit

for accomplishments, exciting work, greater job responsibility, and opportunities for job growth and development.

Herzberg saw two human needs portrayed from his research: physiological (money and things) and psychological (achievement and personal growth) (Hersey et al., 2008). Herzberg's research supported the five essential dimensions for measuring job satisfaction: the job itself, pay, promotion opportunities, supervision, and coworkers. He concluded that even with the hygiene factors neutralized, the motivators led people to superior performance (Wren, 2005). By the midpoint of the 20th century, researchers acknowledged an awareness of the employee role in organizational performance; however, several researchers struggled with how to integrate employee needs and motivations with leadership effectiveness that would benefit the leader, the employee, and the organization.

Recent developments. Expanding off the overlap between trait and behavior approaches, the advent of situational leadership set the tone for leader-follower engagement. Likert (1945) built on the earlier Michigan leadership studies of effectiveness to discover that broad, empowering supervision tended to yield higher productivity among employees (Hersey et al., 2008). Likert concluded that a balance between human and capital resources was essential for effective management (Hersey et al.). The following paragraphs addressed different models and theories that integrate employee motivation and satisfaction into organizational performance.

Fieldler's (1967) Contingency Theory recommended several parameters that define whether a situation is favorable to leaders: "(1) their personal relations with the members of their group (leader-member relations), (2) the degree of structure in the task

that their group has been assigned to perform (task structure), and (3) the power and authority that their position provides (position power)" (Hersey et al., 2008, pp. 96-97). While this theory has already been discussed under Leadership, its relevance to leader-member relations directly influenced how followers view their satisfaction with leaders. His single scale of leader behavior suggested only one of two possible leader styles: task-oriented or relationship-oriented.

Vroom's (1976) Expectancy Theory proposed that "people are mostly rational decision makers who think about their actions and act in ways that satisfy their needs and help them reach their goals" (Lawler, 1973, as cited in Gallos, 2006, p. 636). This theory helped clarify what motivates people in different aspects of their lives. Because people have different needs, they naturally place different values on rewards. While followers "expect" rewards for work performance, the form of the reward – either intrinsic or extrinsic – further motivated followers to perform. This rationale supported Lawler's performance equation that stated performance depends on both motivation and individual ability (Gallos).

Comparatively, Burke's approach to comprehending human motivation addressed more about the individual behavior than the internal needs (Gallos, 2006). Burke summarized the roots of job satisfaction as moving from a human relations system to more of a needs and rewards-based system. According to Wren (2005), Locke and Latham concluded that money was not the only motivator for employees, but instead was the method by which employees determined how they would satisfy their needs.

Keeping with employee needs, the House-Mitchell (1974) Path-goal Theory dealt with how the leader influences employees to the point the leaders' behavior motivates the

employees' ability to attain personal and work goals (Hersey et al, 2008). Drawing on the Expectancy Model of Motivation and the Ohio State leadership model, leaders exhibiting this theory added structure or missing knowledge to the work situation to increase outcomes and performance for employees. As a result, employee motivation increased, directly contributing to organizational performance and employee satisfaction (Northouse, 2010).

Improving on Herzberg's theory, Hackman and Oldham (1976) created the *job characteristics theory*, based on both the needs and expectancy theories (Gallos, 2006). This model focused on the relationship between job or work design and work satisfaction. They believed that three primary psychological states significantly affect worker satisfaction: experienced meaningfulness of the work itself, experienced responsibility for the work and its outcomes, and knowledge of results or performance feedback (Gallos, 2006). From these states, five core job characteristics were identified showing the quality of work and employee satisfaction: skill variety, task identity, skill significance, autonomy, and feedback from job (Eskildsen & Dahlgaard, 2000).

Supporting the job characteristics theory, Eskildsen and Dahlgaard (2000) contended motivation and satisfaction will increase if work processes are designed to fulfill both the human and mental needs of employees. Eskildsen and Dahlgaard extended the Hackman and Oldham model, positing that the European Foundation of Quality Management (EFQM) Excellence model better demonstrates the direct relationship of people and processes on people results. They further explained how 'policy and strategy' and 'partnerships and resources' have an indirect influence on 'people results,' but that leadership remains the driver behind the model. Updated every

three years, the 2010 Excellence model maintained nine criteria allowing organizations to analyze the cause and effect relationships, broken down between enabling criteria (leadership, strategy, people, partnerships and resources, and processes, products, and services) and results (customer, people, society, and key). Organizations striving to attain similar results used elements of the enabling criteria through organizational performance to engage people and processes toward effectiveness (Zhang & Zheng, 2009).

Originally developed by Graen and Cashman (1975), the leader-member exchange (LMX) theory held that leaders develop separate relationships with each subordinate as both parties jointly define the employee's role (Yukl, 2010). Wren (2005) further explained how the different work groups are based on task relationships, not friendships. Yu and Liang (2004) suggested that the LMX relationships exceed the job expectations in favor of an exchange situation between individuals, more of a social exchange relationship.

Over the years, research has examined how the LMX relates to different variables, including subordinate satisfaction and performance, making validation of the exchange between leader and follower difficult to measure (Yukl, 2010). Yu and Liang (2004) indicated that prior research failed to link LMX and performance directly. However, their proposed model concluded that the LMX relationship is based on individual self-interest with fluctuations between all parties and the organization. More recently, Mardanov, Heischmidt, and Henson (2008) concluded a strong correlation between different exchange methods and employee job satisfaction with supervision. Stringer (2006) concluded that strong relationships between supervisors and employees positively contributed to employees' job satisfaction, both intrinsically and extrinsically.

Summary of Human Behavior and Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction was one of the most studied aspects of organizational behavior (Bass, 2008; Ekaterini, 2010; Gallos, 2006; Porter et al., 1974; Wu, Zhuang, & Wen, 2010) and remained an important performance indicator for organizations. Porter et al. described job satisfaction as the feeling an employee has about his or her job in particular with pay, promotion, supervision, coworkers, or the work itself. Lawler (as cited in Gallos, 2006) concluded that for many, a reward can be attractive as long as there is more of it. Lawler further explained that if people see valued rewards as being tied to a particular performance or behavior, the organization is likely to get more of that behavior.

Behaviors and needs drove motivation, which influences individual performance and eventually job satisfaction. Followers motivated to perform are equally satisfied with their jobs, leading to commitment to the organization (Ismail, Mohamed, Sulaiman, Mohamad, & Yusuf, 2011; Kuvaas; 2006). Committed, satisfied employees demonstrated positive interactions with customers, influencing organizational performance and effectiveness (Emery & Barker, 2007; Liao, Hu, & Chung, 2009; Seidman & McCauley, 2011). In a military environment, the traits of employee satisfaction were equally important to organizational performance. The next section addressed military leadership and its relation to satisfaction.

Military Leadership

The definition for military leadership was very similar to the leadership definitions discussed previously. Rozčenkova and Dimdinš (2010) referenced the Department of the Army (2007) definition of military leadership "as influencing people

by providing purpose, direction, and motivation, while operating to accomplish the mission and improving the organization" (p. 5). The Leader to Leader Institute (2004) summarized leadership to mean that "leaders don't just lead subordinates—you lead other leaders. Even at the lowest level, a soldier is a leader of leaders" (p. 6). Leaders provided purpose, direction, and motivation (Leader to Leader, 2004). Within the Leader to Leader institute (2004), the *Training the Force* stated, "Leader development is the deliberate, continuous, sequential, and progressive process, based on Army values, that develops soldiers and civilians into competent and confident leaders capable of decisive action" (p. 16).

According to Army Doctrine (Department of the Army, 2006), military leaders are trained to lead combat-oriented military missions. While traditional military leadership training implied combat-oriented training and revolves around security maintenance and military conflicts, the lowest level of military training involved day-to-day interactions and assistance, like training foreign military or supporting humanitarian efforts abroad (Rozčenkova & Dimdinš). In a military community, the Commander's mission to take care of soldiers expanded to include their families and civilians. Daniels (2007) concluded as a commander and a follower, the best leaders develop a comprehensive approach to evaluating the different aspects of a given situation, whether in combat or in a military community.

The Service Academies of the United States military provided a quality leadership education like no other academic institution. The United States Military Academy at West Point was "renowned as the world's premier leadership institution" (Weinberger, 2010, p. 1). The core leadership training revolved around the effectiveness of teams.

The philosophy of the United States Noncommissioned Officer and Leadership Schools throughout the Air Force claimed that the first level supervisor must not only be responsible for the performance of his subordinates on-the-job, he must also be responsible for their morale, welfare, and discipline both on and off-the-job (Mark, 1976). "A leaders' job in the Army—or in any organization—was not to make everyone the same but to recognize individual differences and build a cohesive team" (Mark, p. 87).

The customary hierarchical chain of command where the leader teaches the immediate subordinate has evolved to coaching horizontally to maximize effectiveness (Weinberger, 2010). This adapted level of leadership training not only embraced the relationship-oriented nature of transformational leadership, but instilled the disciplined, task-oriented behaviors of transactional leadership. Military doctrine, as expressed in Field Manual 6-22, explicitly named seven core values of overriding importance in leadership: loyalty, duty, respect, selfless service, honor, integrity, and personal courage (Department of the Army, 2006). Hesselbein and Shinseki (2004) remarked that while leadership is the most important quality, it must be continuously developed, refined, and tested against uncertainty, all of which are characteristics of transformational leadership.

Transformational leadership was used during periods when change will occur or new opportunities are being considered (Bass, 2008; Burns, 1978). The Leader to Leader Institute (2004) regarded transformational leadership as a style that "transforms" subordinates by challenging them to rise above their immediate needs and self-interests, which is very similar to Bass and Avolio's (2004) transformational leadership concepts of inspirational motivation and individualized consideration. The Leader to Leader Institute

further highlighted that leaders who rely on transactional style induce short-term commitment from subordinates and discourage risk-taking and innovation. Comparatively, leaders who use a transformational style helped subordinates understand and learn, communicating ideas and reasons behind actions and decisions.

While research has indicated that components within transformational leadership are evident within the military, a gap in current literature existed concerning the relationship of leadership styles and behaviors of military and MWR civilian leaders on MWR employee job satisfaction in a military community. Yukl (2010) declared that no one leadership style is the most effective at addressing customer and employee issues and concerns. In a military community, the directive nature of military leaders favored a task-oriented behavior (United States Military Academy, 2007), compared to a relationship-oriented behaviors that civilian leaders exhibit as service providers to customers and employees (Yukl, 2010). Hesselbein and Shinseki (2004) acknowledged that compared to life and death situations of combat, civilian leaders encounter frequent changes, fierce competition, unknown challenges, and clashes for profit share. Because service delivery for soldiers, civilians, and their families always has been a very high priority for Commanders on military communities, both military and civilian leaders have worked mutually and acknowledged employee satisfaction as a key component to organizational effectiveness.

This study focused on the influence piece of the military leadership definition provided previously. For the military, *influencing* meant getting people, including soldiers, Army civilians, and multinational partners to do what is necessary (Rozčenkova & Dimdinš, 2010). Military leaders set an example with every action taken and word

spoken, on or off duty, communicating purpose, direction, and motivation (Department of the Army, 2006). Similar to Hersey et al.'s (2008) situational leadership, different situations required different leadership styles. Daniels (2007) concluded that a leader who leads from the front, rear, and center emphasizes the relationship between a leader and the followers.

Whether engaged behind enemy lines or holding a town hall meeting on a military community, military leadership styles and behaviors adapted to the situation or the audience for the mutual benefit of the leader, employees, and the organization. The different perspectives on leadership and management influenced how employees react and work to accomplish the military community mission and goals. As employees assumed the primary role of customer service provider on most military communities, their level of job satisfaction directly contributes to the organization's performance.

Conclusions

The history of leadership extended back to the early civilization, offering theories and models that span the continuum of leader and follower involvement (Bass, 2008). Within the past 30 years, the application of transformational leadership has evolved into several theories, including servant, participative, and shared leadership. However, the common theme among these recent theories embraced the foundation of transformational leadership, specifically intrinsic motivation and follower development (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Kuvaas, 2006). Bass's (2008) multidimensional theory of transformational leadership addressed follower performance and development through the entire leadership process. Equally important to the application of transformational leadership was the value of the relationship espoused by Hersey and Blanchard's (1969) Theory of

Situational Leadership claiming that different situations require different leadership styles (Northouse, 2010).

To influence organizational effectiveness, leaders recognized different performance indicators and learned how to adapt their styles and behavior to benefit the organization. Followers played a significant role in organizational performance, as they were typically the closest link to customers (Emery & Barker, 2007). Research has indicated that employee job satisfaction relates to leadership style. As leaders acknowledged and considered their value to the organization, they appealed to follower needs.

Many studies have reported that a leader's behavior or leadership style has influenced employee job satisfaction (Al-Hussami, 2008; Ali, Ali Babar, & Bangash, 2011). However, the question of how different leadership styles influence more effective organizational performance remained. Emery and Barker's (2007) research supported the relationship between job satisfaction and customer service, concluding that transformational leadership factors relate to organizational commitment and ultimately job satisfaction among followers. With different factors associated with transformation leadership, the relationship between leader and employee has developed into mutually beneficial link toward organizational performance.

Burns (1978) acknowledged that leadership is integrated with followers' needs and goals, stressing the interaction between leader-follower toward a common goal or objective. However, Burns pointed out that the leader must take the initiative to make the connection with followers. Burns concluded that regardless of a transactional or transformational leadership relationship, the motives, values, and goals of the leader and

the follower have merged. Followers measured their satisfaction based on different individual maturity levels and needs (Bass, 2008). Despite the different levels, leadership styles and behavior influenced the level of individual performance and ultimately personal satisfaction.

Bass (1996) noted that research with each Military Service has supported "greater effectiveness of transformational leadership in contrast to transactional leadership in generating subordinate extra effort, commitment, satisfaction, and contribution to military readiness" (p. 2). He also concluded that transformational leadership can move followers to exceed expected performance. Bass contended that while transactional leadership works for structure and readiness, transformational leadership enhanced them by helping followers move beyond their own self-interests and increasing their awareness of greater issues.

Although different characteristics involving followers, leaders, and the organization influenced a follower's satisfaction level, research has not been clear on which specific leadership style contributes to the desired satisfaction level. However, research has indicated a positive relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction (Lawler & Porter, 1967). The elements of transformational leadership closely identified with the needs of followers' concerns and acceptance within an organization, stimulating them to be creative and successful in their jobs (Al-Zeaud, Batayneh, & Mohammad, 2011; Amar, Hentrich, & Hlupic, 2009). Lowe and Kroeck (1996) performed 33 independent empirical studies using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) to study the relationships between leadership styles and leadership effectiveness, concluding that a strong connection between all the components of

transformational leadership and subordinate satisfaction with supervision existed. Furthermore, transformational leadership styles and behaviors reduced work stress and raised employees' morale resulting in higher job satisfaction (Tse & Mitchell, 2010).

Summary

The review of the literature on relevant leadership theories and organizational performance provided the necessary foundation for the proposed study. According to the literature, transformation leadership has been associated with job satisfaction (Bass, 2008; Burns, 1978). The literature review confirmed that prior research had examined the relationship between leadership styles and job satisfaction. However, within a military community environment, no research currently existed that addresses the relationship of military and MWR civilian leadership on job satisfaction of MWR civilian employees.

This chapter provided a breakdown of the cyclical elements of leadership, organizational performance, and job satisfaction. Leadership theories alluded to the varying situations that leaders must adapt to when providing guidance and direction to followers (Bass, 2008; Kaiser & Overfield, 2010; Northouse, 2010; Yukl, 2010). Directly relevant to all leadership situations was the relationship between leader and follower, and the role that transformational leadership took to integrate support, trust, and satisfaction.

Research has shown that job satisfaction is an important indicator of organizational performance (Dartey-Baah, 2010; Eskildsen & Dahlgaard, 2010; Hersey et al., 2008; Lawler & Porter, 1967; Wren, 2005, Yukl, 2010). As an important cog in the leadership cycle, individual needs and motivation, the organizational design, or a

combination of both influenced follower satisfaction. However, research has concluded that no particular leadership style influences job satisfaction more than any other leadership style (Hersey et al., 2008).

Chapter 2 presented a review of research literature on leadership, organizational performance, human behavior, and job satisfaction. Military leadership was also examined to demonstrate how it relates to the traditional leadership definition and fits within a military community environment. Chapter 3 provided a description of the research method used to evaluate the relationship leadership styles and behaviors of military and MWR civilian leaders on MWR employee job satisfaction in a military community.

Chapter 3: Method

The purpose of this quantitative correlational research study was to examine the relationship of leadership styles and behaviors of military and MWR civilian leaders on MWR employee job satisfaction in a military community environment. The study evaluated the perceptions of MWR civilian employees about which leadership styles and behaviors influence their job satisfaction. The findings permitted military leaders to modify and implement specific leadership behaviors that support job satisfaction for MWR civilian employees. Chapter 3 included a detailed description of the following sections: research method and design appropriateness, research questions, and population, sampling frame, informed consent, confidentiality, geographic location, data collection, instrumentation, validity and reliability, and data analysis.

Research Method and Design Appropriateness

Research method. The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to investigate the relationship between leadership styles and behaviors of military and MWR civilian leaders on MWR employee job satisfaction in a military community environment. The selected research design was a quantitative correctional research method because the study objective was to collect numerical data of variables, applying statistical measures to evaluate the results. The quantitative method measured different variables seeking relationships between them (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). Qualitative research methods are subjective that rely on words, pictures or other nonnumeric information to examine people in specific situations (Christensen, Johnson, & Turner, 2011). Qualitative research evolves during the study as it explores different phenomena. This type of research would be applicable for understanding certain situations that led to

the creation of theories. Comparatively, quantitative research was used to challenge those theories.

Research design. The quantitative correlational research design was appropriate for this study because all participants work on military communities comprising military leaders, MWR civilian leaders, and MWR civilian employees. An electronic survey for leaders assessed the leadership styles and behaviors of military and MWR civilian leaders. This survey consisted of the Bass and Avolio (2004) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and demographic questions. Another survey for MWR civilian employees gauged their individual job satisfaction and assessed their perceptions about their superior's leadership styles. This composite survey consisted of the MLQ, the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), and demographic questions. The demographic information identified possible differences among participants, including gender, age, length of employment, category of employment, and education background.

The MLQ was a validated, proven survey of leadership styles and behaviors used for self-evaluation and follower-evaluation, often combined in 360 degree leader assessments. Mind Garden, Inc. granted permission to use the MLQ Form 5X Short for the study (Appendix B). The MLQ offered two different forms: a Leader form (Appendix C) and a Rater form (Appendix D). The JSS was a reputable instrument that assesses employee attitudes about the job and aspects of the job (Spector, 1994) (Appendix E). In lieu of granting permission to use his survey scales, Spector only asked for research results to be shared with him.

The electronic survey offered a simple, straightforward approach to gathering data from several sources. Electronic surveys offered a higher response rate, reduced costs,

and faster transmission time for the researcher (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). However, potential drawbacks from online surveying influenced the collected data, including limitations on population because of computer availability or technical problems associated with the survey instrument or hosting website. The research study generated the data necessary to identify possible relationships between leadership styles and employee job satisfaction using correlation and multiple regression analysis.

Multiple variable analysis using correlation and regression analyses provided the method of identifying any relationships between the variables that may exist in the research study (Creswell, 2008). This research study explored the relationship of leadership styles and behaviors of military and MWR civilian leaders on MWR employee job satisfaction in a military community. Bivariate correlations studied two variables as predictors of outcomes (Creswell). Regression analysis would be used to predict the values of the employee job satisfaction (dependent variable) based on the values of the leadership styles and leadership characteristics (independent variables) (Christensen, Johnson, & Turner, 2011).

Research Questions

The research study examined the relationship of leadership styles and behaviors of military and MWR civilian leaders on job satisfaction of MWR civilian employees on U.S. Army communities in Europe.

The following research questions guided the study:

RQ1: To what degree does transformational leadership relate to MWR employee job satisfaction on a military community?

RQ2: To what degree does transactional leadership relate to MWR employee job satisfaction on a military community?

RQ3: To what degree does passive/avoidant leadership behavior relate to MWR employee job satisfaction on a military community?

RQ4: To what degree does the age relate to leadership style and behaviors of military and MWR civilian leaders on a military community?

Hypotheses

The research study tested the following hypotheses:

$H1_0$: A direct relationship between transformational leadership styles and MWR employee job satisfaction does not exist for military and MWR civilian leaders on U.S. Army communities.

$H1_a$: A direct relationship between transformational leadership styles and MWR employee job satisfaction exists for military and MWR civilian leaders on U.S. Army communities.

$H2_0$: A direct relationship between transactional leadership styles and MWR employee job satisfaction does not exist for military and MWR civilian leaders on U.S. Army communities.

$H2_a$: A direct relationship between transactional leadership styles and MWR employee job satisfaction exists for military and MWR civilian leaders on U.S. Army communities.

$H3_0$: A direct relationship between passive/avoidant leadership behavior and MWR employee job satisfaction does not exist for military and MWR civilian leaders on U.S. Army communities.

$H3_a$: A direct relationship between passive/avoidant behavior and MWR employee job satisfaction exists for military and MWR civilian leaders on U.S. Army communities.

$H4_0$: Transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and passive/avoidant behavior do not predict employee job satisfaction on U.S. Army communities.

$H4_a$: Transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and passive/avoidant behavior predict employee job satisfaction on U.S. Army communities.

$H5_0$: A direct relationship between leadership style and age of the leader does not exist for military and MWR civilian leaders on U.S. Army communities.

$H5_a$: A direct relationship between leadership style and age of the leader exists for military and MWR civilian leaders on U.S. Army communities.

Population

Military leaders, MWR civilian leaders, and MWR civilian employees from U.S. Army communities throughout Europe comprised the study population. The military leaders included garrison Commanders, responsible for managing and leading all components of an entire Army garrison. The MWR civilian leaders consisted of anyone who provides a written performance rating to an employee and included directors, division chiefs, and facility managers. Except for the MWR director who typically reports to the deputy garrison Commander, all MWR leaders reported to a higher MWR manager within the MWR directorate. The MWR civilian employees encompassed any MWR civilian employee from all pay classifications (full-time, part-time, and flexible). These employees included line-level employees, shift supervisors, and even managers.

The study focused on the military and MWR civilian leaders who provide direct guidance and oversight for programming and operations on military communities. The number of MWR civilian employees varies on each military community because of the size of the community and mission. In Europe, there were 16 U.S. Army garrisons averaging 20 to 40 leaders each (including Military Commanders and MWR civilian division directors, program managers, and facility managers) and an array of MWR civilian employees.

Sampling Frame

When determining the sample size for a research study, Creswell (2008) suggested selecting as large a sample as possible so the results are reflective of the target population. However, Leedy and Ormrod (2010) disputed the notion that the larger the sample, the better the results. Instead, they advocated the sample size incorporate the specific research situation. Alternatively, they recommended that a larger population would require a smaller percentage of a representative sample, depending on characteristics of the target population.

For the research study, the population consisted of military commanders, MWR civilian leaders, and MWR civilian employees for the U.S. Army in the Europe region. Neuman (2011) suggested that a sampling ratio of 19.2% for a population size of 5,000 people, or a 960 person sample would be a suitable sample size. Applying the above ratio of 19.2% to the Europe region, the estimated population of 1,800 people would render an acceptable sample of approximately 346 people. The respondent pool totaled 381 participants, broken down between 118 MWR employees and 263 military and MWR civilian leaders who work in various MWR positions across the Europe region.

Informed Consent

Prior to taking part in the study, the population from the U.S. Army in Europe received an e-mail invitation outlining the research study (Appendix F). The e-mail from the researcher served as an Informed Consent form, outlining the purpose of the research study, participant time obligation, and the benefit to the organization. Additional items in the informed consent e-mail included information on the age requirement, estimated time obligation, withdraw procedures, and any potential risks to participating in the research study. The regional director for U.S. Army Installation Management Command Europe gave permission to use the military e-mail network to distribute the survey request to specific garrisons (Appendix G).

Participation in the research study was voluntary and completing the survey was anonymous with no retention of Internet protocol addresses or any information associating participants with specific survey responses. If a subject chose to participate, he or she clicked on the appropriate survey link, acknowledging their consent to participate.

Confidentiality

Participants had one opportunity in the initial e-mail invitation to be reassured that their responses would remain confidential. A link to each survey was included in the invitation to all potential participants distributed electronically through an e-mail address list for each U.S. Army community in Europe. The researcher retained all research documentation for a period of three years, after which time any electronic files and databases holding results were deleted.

The Internet-based survey administrator, SurveyMonkey, hosted the survey instrument and collected survey responses from participants. SurveyMonkey.com maintained a privacy policy ensuring the privacy and confidentiality for data collected, limiting access to the survey application and associated tools for the researcher through an account login process. The researcher was the owner of the survey instrument and any data collected from the surveys. Settings within the survey instrument allowed the researcher to limit participant information to Internet protocol addresses associated with individual computers, restricting completion to one survey per computer address.

Geographic Location

The location for the quantitative correlational research study was U.S. Army communities throughout Europe, including the garrisons in Italy, Germany, Belgium, and the Netherlands. Each military community provided a different level of MWR programming for military members, civilians, and their families. All participants for this research study worked for MWR or held a leadership position over MWR civilian employees.

Data Collection

The military leaders, MWR civilian leaders, and MWR civilian employees consenting to take part in the research study completed one of two electronic surveys, based on their position, accessible by a website link provided in an e-mail invitation to participate (Appendix F) from the researcher. This e-mail contained a brief description of the research study, withdraw procedures, a link to each survey (Leader and Employee), and contact information for the researcher. The average time to complete the Leader Survey was approximately 20 minutes. The average time to complete the Employee

Survey was approximately 30 minutes. After the survey period from May 25, 2012 through July 31, 2012 concluded, the researcher accessed the data for further analysis.

The rationale for using the MLQ and JSS in the research study included the simplicity and direct application of the instruments. The MLQ instrument allowed leaders and employees to self-assess and rate leaders, respectively. Employees also answered questions related to their job satisfaction using the JSS. Each leader and employee also submitted demographic information, including gender, age, length of employment, category of employment, and education background.

Instrumentation

The researcher used two different electronic surveys: the Leader Survey and the Employee Survey. Adapted from the MLQ Leader form, the Leader Survey asked participating leaders to respond to questions regarding their leadership styles and behaviors (Appendix H). Adapted from the MLQ Rater form, the Employee Survey asked participating employees to respond to questions regarding the leadership styles and behaviors of their leaders and grade their own level of job satisfaction (Appendix I). Also included in each survey instrument were demographic questions, including gender, age, length of employment, category of employment, and education background (Appendix J).

MLQ. Originally developed in 1985, the Bass and Avolio (2004) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) measured leadership behaviors and styles ranging from passive to transactional to transformational. The Leader Survey (Leader Form – Form 5X Short) (Bass & Avolio, 2004) consisted of 45 items that identify and measured the nine leadership behavior styles and the three follower outcome factors. The subjects

completing the form used a five-point Likert-type scale with responses, including *not at all, once in a while, sometimes, fairly often*, or *frequently, if not always*. The Employee Survey considered subordinates' evaluations (MLQ Rater Form – Form 5X Short) of supervisor leadership behaviors and subordinates' rating of job satisfaction to discover possible relationships.

JSS. Developed in 1994, the Spector Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) was a 36-item questionnaire that assessed employee attitudes about the job and aspects of the job covering nine areas. Each facet was associated with four items, and a total score was computed from all 36 items. The facets included pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication. The rating scale for each question ranged from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree," and questions were written in both directions.

Demographic information. The research study collected demographic information to identify different relationships. For the research study, the demographic information included gender, age, length of employment, category of employment, and education background. Appendix J provided an image of the demographic questions that will be included in each survey.

Validity and Reliability

Validity showed the accuracy of the instruments, scales, and results of a research study (Kimberlin & Winterstein, 2008). Reliability implied a consistency and stability, and dependability of the research study, instrumentation, and results (Bannigan & Watson, 2009). Both the MLQ and JSS scales provided internal validity and reliability to

the research study (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003; Bass & Avolio, 2004; Spector, 1994).

Internal validity. Internal validity occurred when the design and collected data allowed the research to reach accurate conclusions about relationships within the data (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). To maintain the internal validity of a research study, the research considered all precautions to remove other explanations for the observed results. Relative to the possible relationship between leadership styles and employee job satisfaction, the researcher preserved the confidence that any conclusions will be validated from the collected data. Researchers have supported the validation of the MLQ instrument to measure multi-dimensional leadership (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 2004; Kanste, Kaariainen, & Kyngas, 2007). Research from Terranova and Henning (2011) supported the validation of the JSS instrument.

External validity. External validity occurred when the study's results can be generalized beyond the study sample to a greater population or context (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). Three common strategies to improve the external validity included creating a real-life experiment, representative sample, and replicated studies in a different setting. The intent behind this research study was to use a representative sample within the Europe region that may be applicable to other military communities worldwide. The mix between military, MWR civilian leaders, and MWR civilian employees reflected a standard organizational structure for all Army garrisons, based on programs being offered. Bass and Avolio (2004), Alonso, Saboya, and Guirado (2010), and Kirkbride (2006) supported the MLQ instrument's external validity and generalizability.

Reliability. Reliability involved the consistency with which a measuring instrument yields a certain result when the entity being measured has not changed (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). The research from Bass and Avolio (2004) supported the reliability of the MLQ instrument. The initial normative data from 1999 showed reliability for six sub-factors ranging from .64 to .92 for all internal consistency elements above .70 for all scales except active management-by-exception (Bass & Avolio). Furthermore, in 2003 a confirmatory factor analysis was used to test a nine-factor model, which offered the best fit among different models. The JSS instrument has demonstrated consistent reliability (coefficient alpha) scores above .73 for each facet, except operating procedures (.62) and coworkers (.60), and .91 for all facets (Spector, 1994; Spector, Zaft, Chen, & Frese, 2000).

Data Analysis

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2010), research required logical analysis built on hypotheses and deductive reasoning. Creswell (2008) explained that data analysis will describe the results from a population. The purpose of the quantitative correlational study was to explore the relationship of leadership styles and behaviors of military and MWR civilian leaders on job satisfaction of MWR civilian employees.

The Internet-based survey administrators (SurveyMonkey) collected data from each participant in the research study. Once complete, the researcher downloaded the data into Microsoft Excel® Analysis Toolkit for descriptive and inferential statistical analyses. The descriptive analysis indicated tendencies in the data to include mean, mode, median, standard deviation, variance, and range for all variables. Inferential

analysis considered two or more groups on the independent variable in terms of the dependent variable.

Multiple correlation and regression analyses provided the method to comprehend any relationships that may exist in the research study. Initially, the study explored the relationship of leadership styles and behaviors of military and MWR civilian leaders on MWR employee job satisfaction in a military community. The correlational analysis indicated the direction and relationship between variables (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). However, Leedy and Ormrod indicated that correlated data does not necessarily indicate causation. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient has been an effective method to analyze data from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Cemaloğlu, 2007; Kanste, Miettunen, & Kyngäs, 2007; Shibru & Darshan, 2011; Stordeur, D'hoore, & Vandenberghe, 2001).

Regression analysis illustrated the influence of leadership styles on employee job satisfaction. Multiple regression analysis examined the relationships of several independent variables against a dependent variable (Creswell, 2008; Stordeur, D'hoore, & Vandenberghe, 2001). The independent variables for this study included leadership styles and behaviors identified in the Bass and Avolio (2004) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, comprised of idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individual consideration, contingent reward, management by exception – active, management by exception – passive, and laissez-faire. The dependent variable for this study included different components of job satisfaction as outlined in Spector's (1994) Job Satisfaction Survey, including pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits,

contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication.

Summary

A quantitative correlational research method evaluated the relationships of leadership styles and behaviors between military and MWR civilian leaders in U.S. Army communities in Europe. It also explored how these leadership styles and behaviors relate to job satisfaction of MWR civilian employees on U.S. Army communities. The quantitative research method used variables to identify relationships and general tendencies from a population (Creswell, 2008; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010).

Chapter 3 provided an overview of the methodology for the current quantitative study that evaluated the leadership styles and behaviors between military and MWR civilian leaders as well as how these styles and behaviors influence job satisfaction of MWR civilian employees on U.S. Army communities in Europe. Chapter 3 presented different aspects of the research study to include research method and design appropriateness, research questions, population, sampling frame, informed consent, confidentiality, geographic location, data collection, instrumentation, validity and reliability, and data analysis.

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this correlational research study was to examine the relationship of leadership styles and behaviors of military and MWR civilian leaders on MWR employee job satisfaction in a military community. Three hundred eighty-one participants voluntarily completed either a Leader survey consisting of the MLQ survey or Employee survey consisting of the MLQ and JSS survey. The MLQ survey was used to measure leadership styles and behaviors (independent variables) of military and MWR civilian leaders, while the JSS survey measured employee job satisfaction (dependent variable) of MWR civilians. All participants also completed a demographic questionnaire. This research provided the U.S. Army with a better understanding of leadership styles between military leaders and MWR civilian leaders and their influence on employee job satisfaction in a military community.

The purpose of this chapter was to present the results of the research using a descriptive format. The results were divided into different sections, including a review of the research process, the demographic analysis, and a presentation of the findings. Chapter 4 includes the data collection findings and the statistical analysis of the four research questions and corresponding hypotheses developed from each question.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The research study examined four research questions that address the relationship of leadership styles and behaviors of military and MWR civilian leaders on U.S. Army communities in Europe. The study evaluated three questions that focused on the likelihood that transformational leadership predicted employee job satisfaction, transactional leadership predicted employee job satisfaction, and passive/avoidant

behavior predicted employee job satisfaction. The study also evaluated the likelihood that age influenced leadership styles and behaviors of military leaders and MWR civilian leaders.

The hypotheses provided the foundation on which the leadership styles and behaviors of military leaders and MWR civilian leaders could be evaluated. Hypothesis 1 evaluated the relationship between transformational leadership styles and employee job satisfaction as demonstrated by military and MWR civilian leaders. Hypothesis 2 evaluated the relationship between transactional leadership styles and employee job satisfaction as demonstrated by military and MWR civilian leaders. Hypothesis 3 evaluated the relationship between passive/avoidant behavior and employee job satisfaction as demonstrated by military and MWR civilian leaders. Hypothesis 4 evaluated whether transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and passive/avoidant behavior predicted employee job satisfaction. Hypothesis 5 evaluated the relationship between leadership styles of military leaders and MWR civilian leaders with the length of time in their current leadership position.

Research Process

Instrumentation. Two survey instruments were utilized to gather data about leadership styles and behaviors as well as job satisfaction. The Leader survey consisted of two sections: the MLQ (Appendix H) and demographic questions (Appendix J). The Employee survey consisted of three sections: the MLQ (Appendix I), JSS (Appendix E), and demographic questions (Appendix J).

MLQ. The MLQ (Bass & Avolio, 2004) provided leaders to assess their own leadership styles and followers to assess the leadership styles of their supervisors. This

instrument was used to define the independent variables (leadership). The participants completing the survey used a five-point Likert-type scale with responses, including *not at all* (0), *once in a while* (1), *sometimes* (2), *fairly often* (3), or *frequently, if not always* (4).

The MLQ consisted of three independent variables: transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and passive/avoidant behaviors. The transformational score was comprised of Idealized Influence (Attributes and Behaviors), Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individual Consideration. This score was calculated on a scale of 0 – 4 and consisted of an average of questions 2, 6, 8, 9, 10, 13, 14, 15, 18, 19, 21, 23, 25, 26, 29, 30, 31, 32, and 34. Lower scores indicated a less involved, inspiring boss who lacks stimulation and motivation to lead others. Comparatively, higher scores indicated a better level of confidence and power through engagement and mentoring. The transactional score was comprised of Contingent Reward and Management by Exception – Active behaviors. This score was also calculated on a scale of 0 – 4 and consisted of the average of questions 1, 4, 11, 16, 22, 24, 27, and 35. Lower scores indicated an unengaged leader who lacks clear guidance, while higher scores indicated specific information on performance goals and expectations.

The passive/avoidant behavior score was comprised of Management by Exception – Passive and Laissez-Faire behaviors. This score was also calculated on a scale of 0 – 4 and consisted of the average of questions 3, 5, 7, 12, 17, 20, 28, and 33. Lower scores indicated an engaged leader, compared to higher scores that reflected leaders who wait for things to fail before engaging, avoid making decisions, or delay getting involved.

Table 1

Variable Scales with Descriptions and Cronbach's Alpha (N = 381)

Scale	Description	Item number	α
Transformational	Idealized influence Inspirational motivation Intellectual stimulation Individualized consideration	Mean of 2, 6, 8,10, 13, 14, 15, 18, 19, 21, 23, 25, 26, 29, 30, 31, 32, 34	.75
Transactional	Contingent reward Management by exception – Active	Mean of 1, 4, 11, 16, 22, 24, 27, 35	.73
Passive/Avoidant	Management by exception – Passive Laissez-faire	Mean of 3, 5, 7, 12, 17, 20, 28, 33	.79

JSS. The JSS (Spector, 1994) allowed employees to assess their attitudes about the job and aspects of the job across nine different facets. This instrument defined the dependent variable of the study (job satisfaction). The participants completing the Employee survey used a six-point Likert-type scale with responses, including *disagree very much* (1), *disagree moderately* (2), *disagree slightly* (3), *agree slightly* (4), *agree moderately* (5), or *agree very much* (6).

The different elements included Pay, Promotion, Supervision, Fringe Benefits, Contingency Reward, Operating Conditions, Coworkers, Nature of Work, and Communication. The score was calculated on a scale of 1-6. However, the negatively worded questions (2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 19, 21, 23, 24, 26, 29, 31, 32, 34, and 36) were reverse scored (1 = 6, 2 = 5, 3, = 4, 4, = 3, 5 = 2, and 6 = 1). Responses to each subscale were initially added together by individual facet, and then together for a total satisfaction score.

Table 2

Variable Scales with Descriptions and Cronbach's Alpha (n = 118)

Scale	Description	Item number	α
Pay	Pay and remuneration	Sum of 1, 10, 19, 28	.75
Promotion	Promotion opportunities	Sum of 2, 11, 20, 33	.73
Supervision	Immediate supervisor	Sum of 3, 12, 21, 30	.82
Fringe Benefits	Monetary and nonmonetary fringe benefits	Sum of 4, 13, 22, 29	.73
Contingent Rewards	Appreciation, recognition, and rewards for good work	Sum of 5, 14, 23, 32	.76
Operating Conditions	Operating policies and procedures	Sum of 6, 15, 24, 31	.62
Coworkers	People you work with	Sum of 7, 16, 25, 34	.60
Nature of Work	Job tasks themselves	Sum of 8, 17, 27, 35	.78
Communication	Communication within the organization	Sum of 9, 18, 26, 36	.71
Total Satisfaction	Total of all facets	Sum of all items, 1 – 36	.79

Demographic information. The research study collected different demographic information from each survey allowing multiple analysis points. Specifically for this research study, the data included gender, age, length of time in current position, method of employment, and education level. The demographic questions for each survey were listed in Appendix J.

Data Collection. The military leaders, MWR civilian leaders, and MWR civilian employees choosing to participate in the research study completed one of two electronic

surveys, accessible via a website link provided in an e-mail invitation to participate from the researcher. This e-mail contained a brief description of the research study and an informed consent declaration. By clicking on either website link, the participant acknowledged their consent to take part in the research study. The average time to complete the Leader survey was 20 minutes, while the average time to complete the Employee survey was 30 minutes. Following the two-month survey period, the researcher accessed the survey data for subsequent analysis.

During the survey period, 392 leaders and employees responded to either of the surveys using SurveyMonkey. Eleven respondents did not complete some combination of the MLQ, JSS, or demographic questions, and their results were omitted from the research study. For this study, 381 records were retained for analysis, representing a 21.2% response rate. From Chapter 3, a sample size of at least 346 people was identified as a suitable sample size (Neuman, 2011).

The total sample between the two surveys provided a reasonable representation of the MWR leaders and civilians from the European region. However, the Employee Survey results may not be sufficiently representative of MWR civilian employees, represented by only 30 percent of the overall sample, possibly indicating less access, insufficient time to complete the survey, or lack of interest in the study. The data analysis that follows was organized into three sections: demographic analysis, descriptive analysis, and hypotheses analysis.

Data Analysis

Survey data was retrieved from the Internet-based survey administrator SurveyMonkey and downloaded into Microsoft Excel® worksheets. Upon review of the

data, responses from 11 participants were omitted due to incomplete responses. All parametric tests were performed at a 95% level of significance for this research study.

The leadership behavior variables associated with the MLQ were scored on a more broad level (transformational, transactional, and passive/avoidant) than the eight individual leadership behaviors. While each leadership variable presented a more refined measure of that leadership trait, the broad leadership behavior assessment offered a more holistic approach to leadership tendencies and preferences as demonstrated in a military community. The mean scores for each leadership level were calculated using Microsoft Excel on each survey. The data were then loaded into Microsoft Excel® Analysis Toolkit for descriptive and inferential statistical analysis.

Demographic analysis. The demographic questions for each survey were identical except for the inclusion of military leaders as an employment choice within the Leader survey. Each survey gathered demographic information asking five questions. Appendix K presented all demographic information, separated between the Leader survey and Employee survey.

For the Leader survey, 263 people responded with females composing the majority of participants (144 participants, 54.8%). The age of the leader participants averaged in the upper end of the 30 to 39 age group with 46.4% falling within the 40 to 49 age group. The majority of participants (180 participants, 68.5%) had been employed within the same position for more than two years. MWR civilian employees comprised more than 95% of respondents (251 participants). Eight respondents held the position of military leader, comprising only 3% of respondents. Four respondents were Local

National employees. Seventy-three percent of respondents held a college degree or higher (192 participants).

For the Employee survey, 118 people responded with females comprising the majority of participants (65 participants, 55.1%). Participants aged 18 to 29 comprised 31.4% of the respondents, followed closely by the 30 to 39 segment at 29.7%. The majority of respondents (68 participants, 57.6%) indicated working within their current position for more than two years. Less than half of all respondents had obtained any formal college degree or higher with 35.6% possessing a college degree and 9.3% holding a graduate degree.

Descriptive analysis. The descriptive analysis described the central tendency and variability of the same data. The mean and median described the central tendency, while the standard deviation described the variability of the three primary variables of full-range leadership (transformational, transactional, and passive/avoidant) and the nine facets of employee job satisfaction. Because different surveys for both leaders and employees were administered, the descriptive statistics were presented separately.

The leadership styles of transformational, transactional, and passive/avoidant comprised the independent variables for the research study. The leadership behaviors were measured through leader responses on the MLQ Leader form (Leader Survey) and the employee responses on the MLQ Rater Form (Employee Survey). Prior to looking at the descriptive analysis of each survey, the independent variables within the MLQ were compared to determine the relationship between the data.

As shown in Table 3, the transformational leadership mean scores were 3.16 from the Leader Survey as compared to the mean of 2.25 from the Employee Survey,

indicating that the leaders self-rated themselves as being more transformational than the employees' ratings of them. The transactional leadership mean scores were closer for the two samples with the leaders scoring themselves at 2.75 and the employees scoring their leaders at 2.24. Last, the passive/avoidant behavior mean scores illustrated the leaders scoring themselves at 0.74 while the employees rated them at 1.55, indicating a less hands-off perception of leadership. All of the t-tests indicated that the mean scores were significantly different.

Table 3

t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Unequal Variances

Transformational	Leader	Employee
Mean	3.16	2.25
Variance	0.07	0.68
Observations	263	118
df	128	
t Stat	11.70	
P (*T* <=*t*) one-tail	0.00	
t critical one-tail	1.66	
P (*T*<=*t*) two-tail	0.00	
t critical two-tail	1.98	

Transactional	Leader	Employee
Mean	2.75	2.24
Variance	0.13	0.29
Observations	263	118
df	165	
t Stat	9.55	
P (*T* <=*t*) one-tail	0.00	
t critical one-tail	1.65	
P (*T*<=*t*) two-tail	0.00	
t critical two-tail	1.97	

Passive/Avoidant	Leader	Employee
Mean	0.74	1.55
Variance	0.09	0.67
Observations	263	118
df	131	
t Stat	-10.35	
P (*T* <=*t*) one-tail	0.00	
t critical one-tail	1.66	
P (*T*<=*t*) two-tail	0.00	
t critical two-tail	1.98	

The Leader survey was based on the MLQ Leader Form 5x-short form and utilized a Likert-type scale using numerical measurements for *not at all* (0), *once in a while* (1), *sometimes* (2), *fairly often* (3), and *frequently, if not always* (4). Table 4 presented the leadership styles from the leader survey. The transformational leadership style and passive/avoidant behaviors were positively skewed, proposing a strong presence among military and MWR civilian leaders. Even with a positive distribution, the passive/avoidant behavior ranged hovered close to the *once in a while* factor. Conversely, the mean for transactional behaviors indicated a milder presence for these leadership behaviors, ranging from *sometimes* to *fairly often*.

Table 4

Summary of Descriptive Analysis – Leader Survey

Variable	*n*	Mean	Median	Mode	Standard Deviation	Sample Range
Transformational	263	3.16	3.00	3.00	0.61	0 – 4
Transactional	263	2.75	3.00	3.00	1.13	0 – 4
Passive/Avoidant	263	0.74	1.00	0.00	1.34	0 – 4

The Employee survey was developed with both the MLQ Rater Form 5x-short form and the Spector Job Satisfaction Survey. Table 5 presents the descriptive statistics for the Employee survey. The job satisfaction survey also utilized a Likert-type scale with *disagree very much* (1), *disagree moderately* (2), *disagree slightly* (3), *agree slightly* (4), *agree moderately* (5), and *agree very much* (6) as the factors. Negative questions were reverse coded before analysis was performed. Checking the histograms and plots

for the independent variables, both transformational and transactional styles were positively skewed, indicating a strong presence of these behaviors within the employees' leaders. The passive/avoidant style was negatively skewed, showing a slightly lower presence of this behavior.

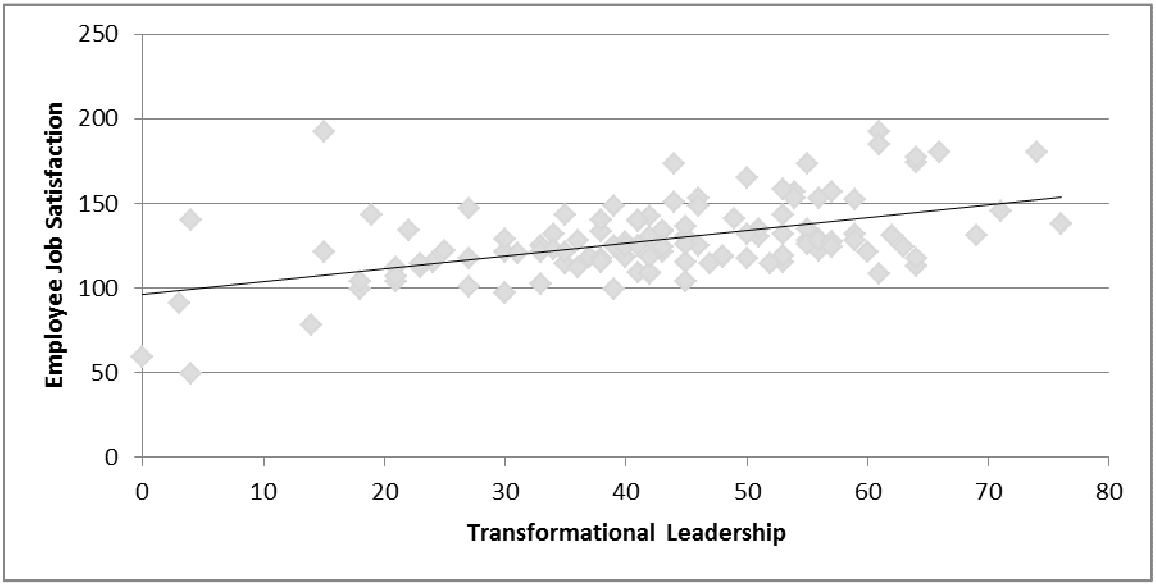

Figure 1. Transformational leadership scatter diagram.

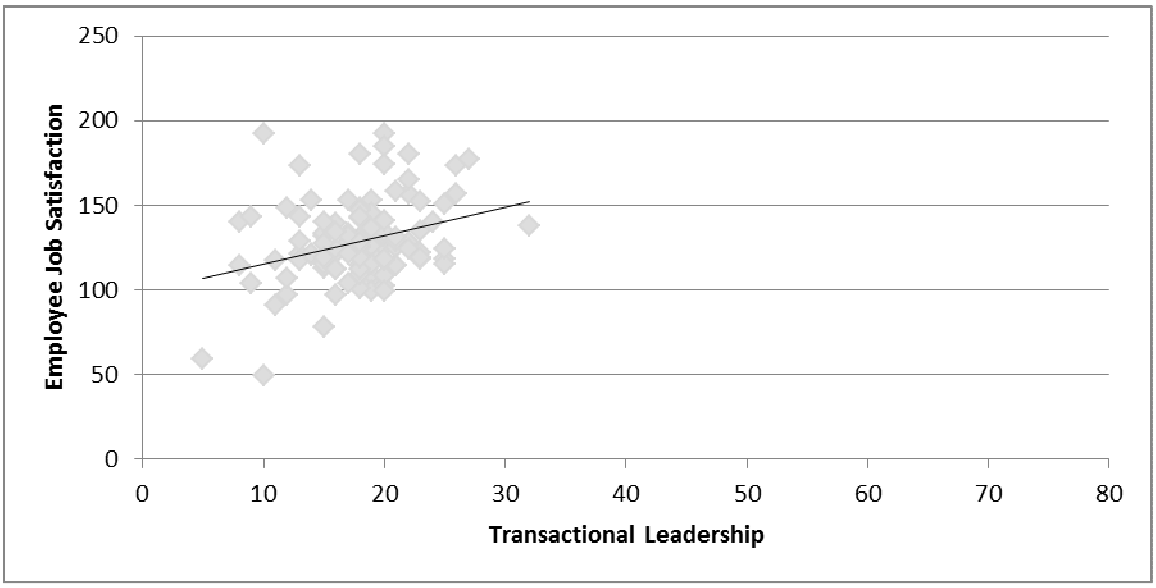

Figure 2. Transactional leadership scatter diagram.

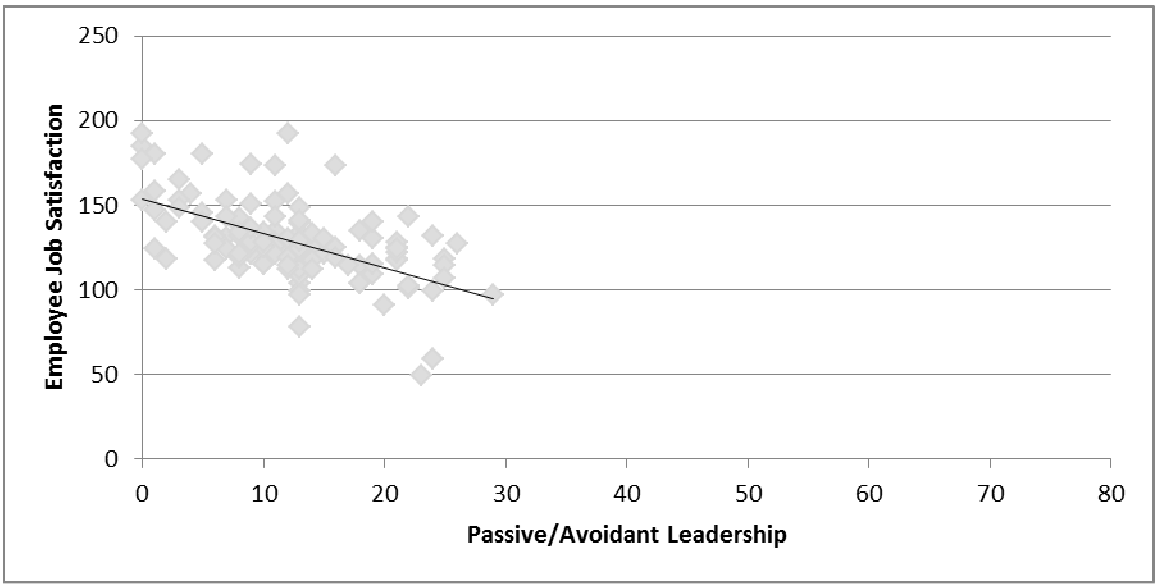

Figure 3. Passive/Avoidant scatter diagram.

Spector (1994) interpreted the scores of 4 to 12 as being dissatisfied, 12 to 16 as ambivalent, and 16 to 24 as satisfied. MWR civilian employees showed satisfaction with Nature of Work with Fringe Benefits and Promotion very close to satisfied. Except for Promotion, the remaining facets fell clearly within the ambivalent range. Within the job satisfaction survey portion of the Employee survey, Pay exhibited a slightly negative skew in the dissatisfaction segment.

Table 5
Summary of Descriptive Analysis – Employee Survey

Variable	*n*	Mean	Median	Mode	Standard Deviation	Sample Range
Leadership Behaviors						
Transformational	118	2.25	2.00	3.00	1.16	0 – 4
Transactional	118	2.24	2.00	3.00	1.15	0 – 4
Passive/Avoidant	118	1.55	2.00	1.00	1.27	0 – 4
Job Satisfaction						
Pay	118	12.81	13.00	13.00	3.80	4 – 24
Promotion	118	11.65	11.00	11.00	3.77	4 – 24
Supervision	118	15.76	15.50	16.00	4.70	4 – 24
Fringe Benefits	118	15.87	15.00	15.00	3.48	4 – 24
Contingent Rewards	118	13.47	13.00	15.00	3.56	4 – 24
Operating Procedures	118	13.53	13.00	13.00	3.25	4 – 24
Coworkers	118	14.72	14.00	14.00	4.06	4 – 24
Nature of Work	118	16.51	16.00	14.00	4.14	4 – 24
Communication	118	13.99	13.00	13.00	2.74	4 – 24
Total Satisfaction	118	128.31	125.50	121.00	23.31	36 – 216

Hypotheses analysis. A total of 381 responses between the two surveys were considered to test the hypotheses. The hypotheses results are presented according to each research question and corresponding hypothesis. The testing for Hypotheses 1 through 3 included the calculation of Pearson's Product Moment Correlation, as presented in Table 6. Hypothesis 1 examined the relationship between transformational leadership and employee job satisfaction. Hypothesis 2 examined the relationship between transactional leadership and employee job satisfaction. Hypothesis 3 examined the relationship between passive/avoidant behavior and employee job satisfaction. For each hypothesis,

the .05 significance level ($p < .05$) served as the rejection level for the null hypothesis. Salkind (2009) interpreted the relationship between variables as very weak if the correlation fell between 0.0 and 0.2, weak between $r = 0.2$ and $r = 0.4$, moderate between $r = 0.4$ and $r = 0.6$, strong between $r = 0.6$ and $r = 0.8$, and very strong between $r = 0.8$ and $r = 1.0$.

Table 6

Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient – Employee Survey (n = 118)

Variable	1	2	3
1. Job Satisfaction			
2. Transformational	0.505		
3. Transactional	0.306	0.643	
4. Passive/Avoidant	-0.571	-0.371	-0.161

Note. All correlations significant at the $p < .01$ level

Hypothesis 1. The first hypothesis examined the relationship between transformational leadership and employee job satisfaction. A Pearson's Product Moment Correlation analysis was performed to investigate the bivariate relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction. The analysis was statistically significant ($r = 0.505$, $p < .01$), indicating a fairly strong positive relationship between the two variables. There is sufficient evidence to indicate a relationship does exist between employee job satisfaction and the transformational leadership tendencies of military and MWR civilian leaders. Therefore, rejecting Null Hypothesis 1 was appropriate for the relationship between transformational leadership and employee job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2. The second hypothesis examined the relationship between transactional leadership and employee job satisfaction. A Pearson's Product Moment Correlation analysis was performed to investigate the bivariate relationship between transactional leadership and job satisfaction. The analysis were statistically significant ($r = 0.306$, $p < .01$), indicating a weak positive relationship between the two variables. There is sufficient evidence to indicate a weak relationship does exist between employee job satisfaction and the transactional leadership tendencies of military and MWR civilian leaders. Therefore, rejecting Null Hypothesis 2 was appropriate for the relationship between transactional leadership and employee job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3. The third hypothesis examined the relationship between passive/avoidant behaviors and employee job satisfaction. A Pearson's Product Moment Correlation analysis was performed to investigate the bivariate relationship between passive/avoidant behavior and job satisfaction. The analysis were statistically significant ($r = -0.571$, $p < .01$), indicating a moderately strong inverse relationship between the two variables. There is sufficient evidence to indicate that as passive/avoidant behavior of military and MWR civilian leaders decreased (e.g., leaders became more engaged with employees), employee job satisfaction increased. Therefore, rejecting the Null Hypothesis 3 was appropriate for the relationship between passive/avoidant behavior and employee job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 4. A multiple regression analysis with the dependent variable of Job Satisfaction and the three independent variable predictors of transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and passive/avoidant behavior was performed using Microsoft Excel® Analysis Toolpak. The regression model in Table 7 indicated at least one

predictor was statistically significant [F (3, 114) = 28.14, $p < 0.0005$] with an $R^2 = .43$, accounting for 43% of variance in the dependent variable of employee job satisfaction from the independent variables of leadership style. The Significance F of 0.000 indicated that a greater probability that the output was highly significant. The regression analysis was further validated by a normal distribution with no established pattern or residuals around zero.

Table 7

ANOVA for Employee Job Satisfaction with MLQ elements (n = 118)

	df	*SS*	*MS*	*F*	Significance *F*
Regression	3	27050.883	9016.961	28.144	0.000
Residual	114	36524.516	320.390		
Total	117	63575.398			

The ANOVA results of the regression were presented in Table 8, illustrating the model coefficients, standard errors, t-statistics, and corresponding significant values for the each of the predictor variables. Transformational leadership was statistically significant for the employee job satisfaction outcome with a Pearson r coefficient of 0.505 in Table 6 and a coefficient of 0.478. The p value of 0.002 was less than the alpha (0.05), concluding a significant relationship between transformational leadership and employee job satisfaction. For transactional leadership, the Pearson r coefficient of 0.306 in Table 6 indicated a weaker relationship, further supported by the lower coefficient of 0.148. However, the p-value of 0.771 was higher than the alpha (0.05) indicated that the output was highly random, and not significantly significant. For passive/avoidant

behavior, the Pearson *r* coefficient of -0.571 indicated an inverse relationship between passive/avoidant behavior and job satisfaction in Table 6. The coefficient of -1.586 indicated a similar relationship, yet retained a *p*-value of 0.000, supporting a significant relationship between the variables.

The composite analysis between employee job satisfaction and the independent variables of leadership styles within the MLQ predicted different levels of significance. Employee job satisfaction would increase 0.478 on average for every unit increase in transformational leadership. Employee job satisfaction would also increase 1.586 on average for every unit of decrease in passive/avoidant behavior. As previously illustrated, transactional leadership had a weak relationship with employee job satisfaction, indicated by the positive change of 0.148 on average for every unit of increase in transactional leadership. With a constant of 124.861, employee job satisfaction fell on the lower side of the ambivalent scale. The resulting relationship among the variables pointed to a greater influence of transformational leadership and passive/avoidant behavior on job satisfaction than transactional leadership.

Table 8

Multiple Regression Results for Employee Job Satisfaction Regressed on MLQ (n = 118)

Variable	Coefficients	Standard Error	*t*	Significance
Transformational	0.478	0.148	3.239	0.002
Transactional	0.148	0.508	0.291	0.771
Passive/Avoidant	-1.586	0.273	-5.813	0.000
Constant	124.861	8.485	14.715	0.000

Hypothesis 5. The fifth hypothesis examined the relationship between transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and passive/avoidant behavior and the age of the leader. A Pearson's Product Moment Correlation analysis was performed to investigate the bivariate relationship between each leadership style and the age of the leader. Table 9 presented the results. The analysis for each set of variables was not statistically significant ($r = 0.064$ for transformational and age, $r = -0.090$ for transactional and age, and $r = -0.066$ for passive/avoidant and age, $p < .01$), indicating no correlation between these sets of variables. Because each r value fell close to 0, the correlation between each leadership style and age of the leader was not considered significant. There was insufficient evidence to indicate any relationship does exist between transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and passive/avoidant behavior of military and MWR civilian leaders and the age of each leader. Therefore, not rejecting the Null Hypothesis 5 was appropriate for the relationship between each leadership style and the age of the leader.

Table 9

Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient – Leader Survey (n = 263)

Variable	1	2	3
1. Age of the Leader			
2. Transformational	0.064		
3. Transactional	-0.090	0.518	
4. Passive/Avoidant	-0.066	0.026	0.153

Note. All correlations significant as the $p < .01$ level

Summary

Chapter 4 began a restatement of the research study's purpose and summary of participation between leaders and employees. Following a recap of the research questions and hypotheses, the research process and brief description of the survey instrumentation were reviewed. After a summary of the data collection process, the demographic analysis separately outlined the Leader Survey and Employee Survey participants.

Following the demographic analysis, a descriptive analysis was performed using Microsoft Excel® Analysis Toolkit. This analysis evaluated the central tendencies and variability of the data from both surveys. Additionally, a t-test analysis was performed against both samples, comparing the self-assessed and rater-assessed leadership styles and behaviors. The leaders assessed themselves higher in transformational and transactional leadership, but lower in passive/avoidant behavior than the employees' assessment of the leaders.

Last, an inferential analysis was performed using Pearson's Product Moment Correlation and multiple regression analysis to evaluate the four statistical hypotheses for this research study. All analyses were performed using the Microsoft Excel® Analysis Toolkit with a 95% level of significance. The findings for each hypothesis follow.

$H1_a$: A direct relationship between transformational leadership styles and MWR employee job satisfaction does exist for military and MWR civilian leaders on U.S. Army communities. A statistically significant relationship was found between transformational leadership and employee job satisfaction. Therefore, the Null Hypothesis 1 is rejected.

$H2_a$: A direct relationship between transactional leadership styles and MWR employee job satisfaction does exist for military and MWR civilian leaders on U.S. Army communities. A statistically significant relationship indicating a weak relationship was found between transactional leadership and employee job satisfaction. Therefore, the Null Hypothesis 2 is rejected.

$H3_a$: A direct relationship between passive/avoidant behavior and MWR employee job satisfaction does exist for military and MWR civilian leaders on U.S. Army communities. A statistically significant relationship was found between passive/avoidant behavior and employee job satisfaction. Therefore, the Null Hypothesis 3 is rejected.

$H4_a$: Transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and passive/avoidant behavior predict employee job satisfaction on U.S. Army communities. A statistically significant relationship was found among transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and passive/avoidant behavior and employee job satisfaction. Therefore, the Null Hypothesis 4 is rejected.

$H5_0$: A direct relationship between leadership style and age of the leader does not exist for military and MWR civilian leaders on U.S. Army communities. There was insufficient evidence to indicate any relationship between transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and passive/avoidant behavior and age of military and MWR civilian leaders on a military community. Therefore, the Null Hypothesis 5 is not rejected.

The relationship between leadership and employee job satisfaction was generally significant on military communities. The regression analysis results supported the composite relationship between the dependent variable of employee job satisfaction and

independent variables of transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and passive/avoidant behavior. The Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient and multiple regression results led to the rejection of the first four null hypotheses. Hypothesis 5 lacked statistical significance of age and leadership style.

A post-hoc power analysis was performed on the variables to identify if sufficient statistical power exists to detect relationships (Miles, n.d). The analysis for the Employee Survey (Appendix L) reinforced the results from Hypotheses 1 through 3, indicating the existence of a sufficient relationship and appropriate use of Pearson's Product Moment Correction Coefficient. Comparatively, the analysis for the Leader Survey (Appendix L) supported not rejecting the Null Hypothesis 5, indicated by the weak relationship between variables. Despite comprising nearly 70 percent of the entire sample ($N = 381$), an increased sample size may increase the power of the test.

Chapter 5 concludes the research with a brief discussion of the data analysis and findings. Implications from the findings are addressed with respect to both leadership and leadership within a military community environment. The chapter closes with recommendations for leadership and considerations for future studies.

Chapter 5: Conclusions and Recommendations

Military communities reflect small, self-contained cities that rely primarily on their own resources to support residents and customers. On most military communities, MWR provides different services and programs to support military, civilians, and their families. Being one of the largest employers on each military community, MWR experiences a greater share of customer exchanges. As such, MWR employee job satisfaction is directly reflective of the community's performance and commitment to its customers. The general problem explored how different leadership styles and behaviors exhibited by military and civilian leaders create confusion and mixed signals among employees.

The prior chapter illustrated the different research analyses utilized to conduct the research and offered findings relative to each hypothesis. Chapter 5 presented the research study process, conclusions, implications, and recommendations. Implications and recommendations reached beyond to present study to consider the global influence of the relationship between leadership and job satisfaction.

Research Study Process

The purpose of the quantitative research study was to examine the relationship between the leadership styles and behaviors of military and MWR civilian leaders on MWR employee job satisfaction in a military community. The research study utilized the Spector (1994) Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) as the instrument to assess employee job satisfaction (dependent variable). For the independent variables of transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and passive/avoidant behavior, the Bass and Avolio

(2004) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) was used to measure leadership styles and behavior.

The correlational research study examined the influence that military and MWR civilian leadership has on MWR civilian employee job satisfaction. The population consisted of military leaders, MWR civilian leaders, and MWR civilian employees working on U.S. Army garrisons in Europe. The intent of the study was to learn about leadership styles and behaviors on military communities to determine to what degree particular leadership styles influence employee job satisfaction.

Two electronic surveys assessed the perceptions of leaders as well as the employees' perceptions of their leaders and their own job satisfaction. The Leader Survey included the MLQ and demographic questions. The Employee Survey combined the MLQ, the JSS, and demographic questions. The survey data returned a combined 381 responses, from which the data was imported into Microsoft Excel® Analysis Toolkit to perform correlation and multiple regression analyses.

As this study focused on leadership on military communities, its findings beyond the gates may not be applicable. The participant response rate of nearly 20% indicated that leaders and employees understood the survey questions. However, their answers may not adequately reflect their comprehensive experience as leaders or employees, possibly rendering the findings insignificant. The results offered strong perceptions of how employees viewed their leaders, indicating to what degree different leadership styles contributed to their job satisfaction.

The research study addressed four questions focusing on the relationship between leadership styles and behaviors and employee job satisfaction in a military community.

The study also examined the likelihood that a leader's age influences their leadership style. The hypotheses of the research study established the foundation on which leadership styles of military and MWR civilian leaders and the job satisfaction of MWR civilian employees were evaluated. Hypotheses 1 through 3 evaluated the relationship between transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and passive/avoidant behavior respectively and employee job satisfaction. Hypothesis 4 evaluated the likelihood that different leadership styles would predict employee job satisfaction. Hypothesis 5 evaluated the relationship between leadership style and the age of the leader for military and MWR civilian leaders.

Conclusions

The purpose of the research study was to examine the relationship between different leadership styles and employee job satisfaction in a military community environment. After collecting data from two different survey instruments, multiple statistical methods were employed to evaluate the resulting data. Conclusions relevant to the hypotheses were presented separately in the following sections.

Hypothesis 1. The results pertaining to the first hypothesis indicated that transformational leadership has a relationship with employee job satisfaction. The statistically strong relationship suggested that employee satisfaction increases significantly when leaders mirror a transformational leadership style and behavior. While lower scores reflected a leader who lacks the inspiration and motivation to lead others, higher scores reflected an engaged leader who exudes confidence and power through coaching and mentoring.

The results indicated an organizational culture within MWR where leaders and followers engage directly and indirectly toward effectiveness. Bass and Avolio (1994) concluded that the actions and behaviors of transformational leadership influence followers. From the study, MWR employee perception of his or her leaders supported this influence, as evidenced by both a strong *r* value of 0.505 and a mean score of 2.25 (between *sometimes* and *fairly often*), skewed toward *sometimes*.

Hypothesis 2. The results for the second hypothesis suggested a statistically significant albeit weak relationship between transactional leadership and job satisfaction. The relationship between these two variables pointed to a weak to moderate influence. A lower score indicated a leader who lacks guidance, while a higher score suggested a very structured leader who focuses on performance goals and expectations.

The results indicated MWR employees are acting on their own with minimal direction from leaders. Not to be confused with delegation or empowerment, transactional leaders tended to exude a personal agenda centered on their own goals. The instrument did not specifically distinguish between the different elements within the transactional questions, leaving the interpretation open for further examination. The mean score for transactional questions fell between *sometimes* and *fairly often*, with a mean score of 2.24 skewed toward *sometimes.*

Hypothesis 3. The results of this hypothesis suggested a statistically significant indirect relationship between passive/avoidant behavior and job satisfaction. Lower scores indicated an engaged leader, while higher scores indicated a leader who waits for things to fail before getting involved. The inverse relationship between these variables pointed to higher satisfaction from leaders empowering employees to perform their job.

However, once things went wrong and leaders reacted negatively, employees' satisfaction fell, a direct result of absent leadership.

The results supported a leadership approach where leaders are not actively engaged with followers, unless forced to intervene. The strong indirect result (r = -0.571) illustrated that followers do not require MWR leaders assistance, mirroring an empowered approach to managing the program and activities. The low mean (M = 1.55) also supported the active engagement between leader and follower.

Hypothesis 4. The results for this hypothesis indicated that at least one leadership element was significant when predicting employee job satisfaction. The independent variables of transformational leadership and passive/avoidant behavior returned a significant result while transactional leadership yielded an insignificant result. These combined results closely validated the findings from Hypothesis 1 and 3. Further, the weaker result from transactional leadership in this hypothesis and Hypothesis 2 validated the existence of a weaker relationship of transactional leadership when predicting employee job satisfaction.

The results supported a situational approach to leadership where the application of full-range leadership elements varies depending on the circumstances. However, these results illustrated that transformational leadership and passive/avoidant behaviors play a more prominent role in employee job satisfaction than transactional leadership. These tendencies did not necessarily diminish the role or importance of transactional leadership behaviors, like defining expectations or administering corrective actions. The comprehensive execution of full-range leadership yielded both direct and indirect levels of employee job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 5. The results from the fifth hypothesis suggested no relationship between the age of leader and their perception of their leadership style. The age intervals for the leaders were equal, but did not demonstrate the importance of specific ages within each interval. With the relationship values falling around 0, not rejecting the null hypothesis was the only appropriate conclusion.

Implications

Limited empirical research examined the relationship between transformational leadership and employee job satisfaction on military communities. One prior study (Harding, 2007) addressed how U.S. Army civilian leadership training and development influences leadership style. This study required the leaders to self-assess themselves without the corresponding feedback from their employees.

Specific to the military community environment, this research study employed multiple statistical analysis models to examine the relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction. The results validated that different leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and passive/avoidant) influenced employee job satisfaction in some capacity on military communities. The implications of the study's findings were further broken out below.

Implications to leadership within military communities. Military communities most closely reflect small, self-contained towns managed by an array of military and civilian leaders. Despite a military-centric orientation, U.S. Army garrisons cooperatively have drawn from the leadership experience of both the military and civilian workforce. As evidenced in the regression analysis, MWR employees perceived both a strong transformational leadership element and hands off aspect from their leaders. This

perception allowed MWR employees to provide more empowered personal customer experiences in most programs. Further, the findings suggested that MWR employees were capable of interpreting different leadership messages yet successfully applied them to task or mission at hand.

A second implication of this research involved the level of leadership training MWR civilian leaders have received, grooming them to coach and mentor employees more effectively. MWR leaders and employees received customer-service training, equipping them with better interaction skills for all service situations. Using the appropriate training across the leader-follower relationship, military and MWR leaders engaged employees beyond the task-oriented nature of most work. This follower-oriented approach to work was further supported in the very low transactional leadership scores. This balance between task and relationship-oriented behavior reflected the leadership philosophy offered in Chapter 2 that reinforced transformational and situational qualities of leadership.

The third implication suggested strong evidence that leadership styles and behaviors may influence organizational performance. Even though the results of the fourth research question were inconclusive, the findings suggested that some level of leadership training and development for the military and MWR civilian leaders contributed to MWR employee job satisfaction. The U.S. Army may benefit from developing a more comprehensive leadership training program for both military and civilians that builds from current leadership knowledge yet grows leaders' skills and abilities beyond the military community experience.

Implications to leadership. The findings from the different analyses have provided quantifiable support of different leadership style effectiveness, which may contribute to the overall body of leadership knowledge. The significant relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction may assist Department of Defense leaders to take a more involved role in community leadership development for both military and civilians.

This study has validated the relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction within one segment of the military community environment. Even though different segments of a military community exist, each group provided some form of customer service to another individual, either internally or externally to the organization. As customers' needs changed, the requirement for effective leadership remained paramount to effective organizational performance. A challenge for leaders on military communities has been the overemphasis on task completion as opposed to the satisfaction of both employees and customers. A task-oriented approach reflected transactional leadership qualities, which attach rewards and recognition for goal achievement (Bass & Avolio, 2004). The other key element of transactional leadership required the leader to focus on results, keeping an eye on deviations and mistakes, or in terms of the garrison operations, failure to make required deadline.

From a holistic view, this study confirmed the rationale that leadership is situational, requiring leaders to apply different principles of Bass and Avolio's (2004) full-range leadership theory. The regression analysis that compared the core elements of this theory (transformational, transactional, and passive/avoidant) against job satisfaction clearly indicated varying degrees of job satisfaction, depending on the leadership style.

In a customer service environment, a transformational leader who also empowers employees offered the best opportunity for employee job satisfaction and organizational effectiveness.

Recommendations

The research study examined four questions concerning the relationship between leadership and job satisfaction. The three core elements of full-range leadership individually showed varying levels of correlation. However, when studied together, the findings swayed toward a direct relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction and an inverse relationship between passive/avoidant behavior and job satisfaction. The relationship between transactional leadership and job satisfaction was weak in one analysis and insignificant in another, concluding that transactional leadership was not a reliable predictor of job satisfaction.

From these findings, a primary recommendation for military community leadership would involve training all leaders in the elements of transformational leadership. Developing a leadership class that leverages the five elements of transformational leadership would bridge the training gap between the basic civilian education system classes and senior service college programs. Currently, no civilian leadership class exists that fosters coaching and mentoring of subordinates. Further, not every civilian aspires to hold a Senior Executive Service position, and a program devoted to leading from the middle or upper middle would enhance the skills and abilities of these critical managers. Last, a progressive leadership training program would allow managers to merge book knowledge and practical application, essentially honing their leadership style to influence the mission execution across the Department of Defense.

In addition to personal and professional leadership development, enhanced leadership skills positively influenced employee job satisfaction. Creating a cooperative work environment that builds on the leader-follower relationship offers a constructive method to influencing satisfaction levels and ultimately organizational performance. The individual qualities of transformational leadership encourage building an awareness of team performance (Bass & Avolio, 2004) and active participation across all organizational relationships (Zinni & Koltz, 2009).

The natural sequence for leadership training requires leaders to implement the learned attributes and behaviors. This inclusive approach to leadership development requires leaders first to learn about leadership and self-analyze their style and behaviors. An employee assessment of the leader, similar to either a 360-degree assessment or the Rater form of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, offers an upward look at leadership. Leaders can more effectively match the organization's goals and expectations against their own skills and abilities identified from the leader assessments. Once identified, the leader can cross-reference the three leadership elements – self-analysis, other analysis, and organizational goals – to integrate the findings into a leadership application plan.

An equally important but often forgotten phase of leadership development involves growth and succession. Up to this point, the recommended actions associated with this study revolved around level 3 managers aspiring to grow to the next level. Military and civilian leaders should look beyond level 4 leadership where organizational vision and strategy direct actions of others (Collins, 2001). However, organizational culture guides military and civilian leaders down different career paths. While the

military structure successfully charts leadership training and practice for all ranks, the civilian career plans offer limited leadership training opportunities with no clear path to attaining level 5 leadership. More important than ever before, leadership within the military community context should develop a civilian leadership succession plan that publicly identifies the next pool of leaders and enhances their skills and abilities through training and practical experience.

The findings from the study provide an awareness of the importance between leadership and job satisfaction. As an important component of organizational performance on military communities, effective leadership plays a strong role in predicting employee satisfaction. The primary role of garrison leadership comprises serving military, civilians, and family members. Thus, the relationship between leaders and employees must be nurtured and emphasized to achieve job satisfaction and performance effectiveness.

Recommendations for Future Research

The results of this research study indicated a relationship between leadership and job satisfaction on a military community. The initial recommendation would require a replication of the current study using a larger sample of military communities around the world and across the different military services. This study comprised a sample of military and MWR civilian leaders and MWR employees within the European region. A larger sample that included other overseas and United States-based military communities would provide further support for refined leadership training.

With additional military communities, a future study could consider the difference in leadership styles between military leaders and civilian leaders on military

communities. Typically, only one military member is assigned as Installation or Garrison Commander. Expanding the study population to all military communities would create a statistically valid population of community military and civilian leaders. This potential comparison could further lead to refining what leadership training and education would best benefit both military and civilian leaders.

The data resulting from the demographic questionnaire did not return any statistically significant results relative to the Leader survey. The research study did not investigate the demographics of employees with respect to their perception of leadership style. The third recommendation involves using a larger sample of leaders to determine if a leader's age or education would predict a particular leadership style. The diverse workforce around the world could provide some unique perspectives of their leaders' style and effectiveness.

A final recommendation could involve comparing leaders and employees by military community to examine leadership styles at the garrison or installation level. Each military community theoretically employs a different element of the overall national security strategy, and thus the mission and support requirements could be vastly different. This additional study could also involve a mixed-method where qualitative interviews would help identify specific leadership styles and behaviors (Creswell, 2008).

Summary

Military communities offer a unique environment reflective of small, self-contained cities. For overseas communities, military, civilians, and family members strongly rely on programs and services offered within each fence line as reminders of

home. As such, the role that military and civilian leaders play to offer a "touch of home" places higher pressure on the employee to provide exceptional customer service.

The expectation to provide quality service is directly reflected in the leadership styles and behaviors these leaders exhibit. Employees who deliver excellent service hold the key to customer satisfaction as well as their own personal job satisfaction, which further reflects of their leaders' styles and behaviors.

The present study demonstrated a direct relationship between employee job satisfaction and leadership. Even though the connection between employee and leader interaction did not translate into effective organizational performance across all military communities, the implementation of full-range leadership contributed to effective leadership in different situations. However, transformational leadership was a better predictor to job satisfaction than transactional leadership and passive/avoidant behavior (Bass, 1996).

Leaders who institute a full-range leadership style imparted positive influence over employees in any industry (Bass & Avolio, 2004). However, leaders must remain cognizant that different situations require different leadership styles (Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 2008). A leadership toolkit that encompasses various leadership practices and components offers the best opportunity for leaders to integrate behaviors into operations, leveraging relationships with followers and working toward organizational effectiveness.

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Appendix A: Documentation Matrix

Research Materials	Number of Resources Used in the Study	Category of Title Searches
Peer-reviewed and scholarly articles	94	Full-range leadership, job satisfaction, transformational leadership, organizational effectiveness, military leadership
Books	29	Leadership, transformational leadership, organizational performance, organizational behavior
Journals	9	Leadership styles, organizational performance, military leadership
Total	132	

Appendix B: Permission to use Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)

mind garden

www.mindgarden.com

To whom it may concern,

This letter is to grant permission for the above named person to use the following copyright material;

Instrument: ***Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire***

Authors: ***Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass***

Copyright: ***1995 by Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass***

for his/her thesis research.

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

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

Sincerely,

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

Appendix C: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) – Leader Form

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

My Name: _____ Date: _____

Organization ID #: _____ Leader ID #: _____

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

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

Use the following rating scale:

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

1.	I provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts	0	1	2	3	4
2.	I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate	0	1	2	3	4
3.	I fail to interfere until problems become serious	0	1	2	3	4
4.	I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards	0	1	2	3	4

Appendix D: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) – Rater Form

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

Appendix E: Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)

	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 (1) · Disagree moderately (2) · Disagree slightly (3) · Agree slightly (4) · Agree moderately (5) · Agree very much (6)
1	I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	1 2 3 4 5 6
2	There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.	1 2 3 4 5 6
3	My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.	1 2 3 4 5 6
4	I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.	1 2 3 4 5 6
5	When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.	1 2 3 4 5 6
6	Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.	1 2 3 4 5 6
7	I like the people I work with.	1 2 3 4 5 6
8	I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.	1 2 3 4 5 6
9	Communications seem good within this organization.	1 2 3 4 5 6
10	Raises are too few and far between.	1 2 3 4 5 6
11	Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.	1 2 3 4 5 6
12	My supervisor is unfair to me.	1 2 3 4 5 6
13	The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.	1 2 3 4 5 6
14	I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.	1 2 3 4 5 6
15	My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.	1 2 3 4 5 6
16	I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.	1 2 3 4 5 6
17	I like doing the things I do at work.	1 2 3 4 5 6
18	The goals of this organization are not clear to me.	1 2 3 4 5 6

	PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT. 	Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
19	I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	The benefit package we have is equitable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	There are few rewards for those who work here.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	I have too much to do at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	I enjoy my coworkers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	There are benefits we do not have which we should have.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	I like my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	I have too much paperwork.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33	I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34	There is too much bickering and fighting at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35	My job is enjoyable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36	Work assignments are not fully explained.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix F: Invitation to Participate E-mail

UNIVERSITY OF PHOENIX

INVITATION TO PARTICPATE

Dear Participant:

My name is Peter Craig and I am a student at the University of Phoenix working on a doctoral degree in management of organizational leadership. I am conducting a research study entitled **The Relationship between Leadership and Employee Job Satisfaction in a Military Community**. The purpose of the research study is to evaluate the relationship of leadership behaviors and styles on employee job satisfaction in U.S. Army communities in Europe.

Your participation will involve responding to one of the two surveys, depending on whether you are a leader or an employee. The Leader Survey consists of 50 questions, including 45 leader questions designed to be a self-rating survey about your leadership styles, plus five demographic questions. This survey should take approximately 25-30 minutes to complete. The Employee Survey consists of three parts totaling 86 questions: (a) the same 45 leader questions, answered as though you would be rating the leadership style of your supervisor, (b) a 36-question job satisfaction survey, gauging your personal feelings about your job satisfaction in your present position, and (c) five demographic questions. This survey should take approximately 35-40 minutes to complete. If you are both a leader and an employee, you are invited to complete both surveys. You can decide to be a part of this study or not. Once you start, you can withdraw from the study at any time without any penalty or loss of benefits. The results of the research study may be published but your identity will remain confidential and your name will not be made known to any outside party.

In this research, there are no foreseeable risks to you.

Although there may be no direct benefit to you, a possible benefit from your being part of this study may provide information on employee job satisfaction that has the potential to reduce employee turnover or improve organizational performance on military communities. The information from this study may provide insight into which leadership styles influence job satisfaction for MWR employees within U.S. Army communities in Europe. With this knowledge, military and MWR leaders may develop an environment that cultivates job satisfaction and commitment. Military and MWR leaders may also adapt training and development programs for supervisors and employees that foster satisfaction within military communities.

If you have any questions about the research study, please call me at or e-mail me at . For questions about your rights as a study participant, or any concerns or complaints, please contact the University of Phoenix Institutional Review Board via email at IRB@phoenix.edu.

As a participant in this study, you should understand the following:

1. You may decide not to be part of this study or you may want to withdraw from the study at any time. If you want to withdraw, you can do so without any problems.

2. Your identity will be kept confidential.

3. Peter Craig, the researcher, has fully explained the nature of the research study and has answered all of your questions and concerns.

4. If interviews are done, they may be recorded. If they are recorded, you must give permission for the researcher, Peter Craig, to record the interviews. You understand that the information from the recorded interviews may be transcribed. The researcher will develop a way to code the data to assure that your name is protected.

5. Data will be kept in a secure and locked area. The data will be kept for three years, and then destroyed.

6. The results of this study may be published.

By clicking on either of the survey links below, you agree that you understand the nature of the study, the possible risks to you as a participant, and how your identity will be kept confidential. When you click one of the links, this means that you are 18 years old or older and that you give your permission to volunteer as a participant in the study that is described here.

Leader Survey link: www.surveymonkey.com/s/Leader_Survey2012

Employee Survey link: www.surveymonkey.com/s/Employee2012

As Department of Army employees, I need to stress that since participation in this research study is voluntary and unofficial, you should complete the survey outside of official duty hours (i.e., during a lunch break, before/after work, at home, etc.).

If you have any questions concerning the research study, please contact me using any of the means listed below.

Very Respectfully,

Peter

Peter Craig
Family and MWR Business Programs

University of Phoenix E-mail:

Appendix G: Permission to use Premises, Name, and/or Subjects – U.S. Army

UNIVERSITY OF PHOENIX

PERMISSION TO USE PREMISES, NAME, AND/OR SUBJECTS
(Facility, Organization, University, Institution, or Association)

Installation Management Command Europe

Check any that apply:

☒ I hereby authorize Peter Craig, student of University of Phoenix, to use the premises to conduct a study entitled the relationship between leadership and Employee Job Satisfaction in a military community.

☒ I hereby authorize Peter Craig, student of University of Phoenix, to recruit subjects for participation in a conduct a study entitled the relationship between leadership and Employee Job Satisfaction in a military community.

☒ I hereby authorize Peter Craig, student of University of Phoenix, to use the name of the facility, organization, university, institution, or association identified above when publishing results from the study entitled the relationship between leadership and Employee Job Satisfaction in a military community.

Kathleen Y. Marin
KATHLEEN Y. MARIN
Director

JAN 11 2012
Date

Installation Management Command Europe

Heidelberg, Germany

Facilities:
All U.S. Army Garrisons within the European Region.

U.S. Army Garrison (USAG) Addresses in Europe:

Commander, USAG Ansbach, Unit 28614, APO AE 09177-8614

Commander, USAG Baden-Württemberg, Unit 29237, APO AE 09102

Commander, USAG Bamberg, Unit 27535, APO AE 09139-7535

Commander, USAG Baumholder, Unit 23746, Box 3, APO AE 09034-3746

Commander, USAG Benelux, Unit 21419, APO AE 09708-1419

Commander, USAG Brussels, Unit 8100, Box 1, APO AE 09714

Commander, USAG Garmisch, Unit 24515, APO AE 09053-4515

Commander, USAG Grafenwöhr, Unit 28130, APO AE 09114-8130

Commander, USAG Hohenfels, Unit 28216, APO AE 09173-8216

Commander, USAG Kaiserslautern, Unit 23152, APO AE 09227-3152

Commander, USAG Livorno, Unit 31301, Box 1, APO AE 09613-1301

Commander, USAG Schinnen, Unit 21602, APO AE 09703-1602

Commander, USAG Schweinfurt, CMR 457, APO AE 09033-0457

Commander, USAG Stuttgart, Unit 30401, APO AE 09107-0401

Commander, USAG Vicenza, Unit 31401, Box 80, APO AE 09630-1401

Commander, USAG Wiesbaden, Unit 29623, APO AE 09096-9623

DEPARTMENT OF THE ARMY
UNITED STATES ARMY INSTALLATION MANAGEMENT COMMAND
EUROPE REGION
UNIT 29353, BOX 200
APO AE 09014-0200

IMEU-MWR-B

JAN 11 2012

MEMORANDUM FOR Peter Craig, Family and Morale, Welfare, and Recreation Division, United States Army Installation Management Command, Europe Region, Unit 29064, APO AE 09136-9064

SUBJECT: Request for Approval To Use U.S. Army E-Mail for Doctoral Dissertation Research

I approve your request to use U.S. Army e-mail for your doctoral dissertation research to send survey links to a specific sample of employees from each U.S. Army garrison in Europe.

Kathleen Y. Marin

KATHLEEN Y. MARIN
Director

Appendix H: Leader Survey

Section I: Leadership Behavior

This 45-item questionnaire describes your leadership style as you perceive it. Judge how frequently each statement fits you and your style. The word "others" may mean your peers, clients, direct reports, supervisors, and/or all of these individuals.

Please answer all questions on the answer sheet. It an item is irrelevant, or if you are unable or do not know the answer, please click the N/A button.

1. Leadership Behavior

	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always	N/A
1. I provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
2. I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
3. I fail to interfere until problems become serious.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
4. I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
5. I avoid getting involved when important issues arise	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

Appendix I: Employee Survey

Section I: Leadership Behavior

This 45-item questionnaire describes the leadership style of your immediate supervisor as you perceive it. Judge how frequently each statement fits the person you are describing.

Please answer all questions on the answer sheet. It an item is irrelevant, or if you are unable or do not know the answer, please click the N/A button.

1. Leadership Behavior

	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always	N/A
1. Provide me with assistance in exchange for my efforts.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
2. Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
3. Fails to interfere until problems become serious.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
4. Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards.	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
5. Avoids getting involved when important issues arise	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

Appendix J: Demographic Information Questions for Research Survey

Leader

Section II: Demographic Information

Please click on the appropriate box. The data collected for this survey will remain strictly confidential.

1. What is your gender?

- ◯ Male
- ◯ Female

2. What is your age?

- ◯ 18-29
- ◯ 30-39
- ◯ 40-49
- ◯ 50-59
- ◯ Older than 59

3. How long have you been in your current position?

- ◯ Less than 6 months
- ◯ 6 months to a year
- ◯ 1 year to 2 years
- ◯ 2 years to 5 years
- ◯ More than 5 years

4. How are you employed with the U.S. Army?

- ◯ U.S. Military
- ◯ DOD Civilian
- ◯ Local National
- ◯ Contractor
- ◯ Other

5. What is your highest level of education?

- ◯ Less than a high school diploma
- ◯ High school diploma
- ◯ Some college
- ◯ College degree
- ◯ Graduate degree

Employee

Section III: Demographic Information

Please click on the appropriate box. The data collected for this survey will remain strictly confidential.

1. What is your gender?

- ◯ Male
- ◯ Female

2. What is your age?

- ◯ 18-29
- ◯ 30-39
- ◯ 40-49
- ◯ 50-59
- ◯ Older than 59

3. How long have you been in your current position?

- ◯ Less than 6 months
- ◯ 6 months to a year
- ◯ 1 year to 2 years
- ◯ 2 years to 5 years
- ◯ More than 5 years

4. How are you employed with the U.S. Army?

- ◯ U.S. Citizen
- ◯ Local National
- ◯ Contractor
- ◯ Other

5. What is your highest level of education?

- ◯ Less than a high school diploma
- ◯ High school diploma
- ◯ Some college
- ◯ College degree
- ◯ Graduate degree

Appendix K: Frequency Counts and Percentages of Demographic Variables

Leader Survey Variables	Frequency	Percent
Gender		
Male	119	45.2
Female	144	54.8
Age		
18-29	14	5.3
30-39	66	25.1
40-49	122	46.4
50-59	54	20.5
Older than 59	7	2.7
Length of time in position		
Less than 6 months	3	1.1
6 months to a year	16	6.1
1 year to 2 years	64	24.3
2 years to 5 years	117	44.5
More than 5 years	63	24.0
Method of Employment		
U.S. Military	8	3.0
U.S. Citizen	251	95.4
Local National	4	1.5
Contractor	0	0
Other	0	0
Education Level		
High school diploma	19	7.2
Some college	52	19.8
College degree	172	65.4
Graduate degree	20	7.6

Employee Survey Variables	Frequency	Percent
Gender		
Male	53	44.9
Female	65	55.1
Age		
18-29	37	31.4
30-39	35	29.7
40-49	27	22.9
50-59	13	11.0
Older than 59	6	5.1
Length of time in position		
Less than 6 months	9	7.6
6 months to a year	20	16.9
1 year to 2 years	21	17.8
2 years to 5 years	38	32.2
More than 5 years	30	25.4
Method of Employment		
U.S. Citizen	116	98.3
Local National	2	1.7
Contractor	0	0
Other	0	0
Education Level		
Less than a high school diploma	0	0
High school diploma	22	18.6
Some college	43	36.4
College degree	42	35.6
Graduate degree	11	9.3

Appendix L: Post Hoc Power Analysis

Post Hoc Power Analysis – Employee Survey (n = 118)

Variable	1	2	3
1. Job Satisfaction			
2. Transformational	0.9998		
3. Transactional	0.8382	1.000	
4. Passive/Avoidant	1.000	0.0189	0.2836

Note. All correlations significant at the $p < .01$ level

Post Hoc Power Analysis – Leader Survey (n = 263)

Variable	1	2	3
1. Age of the Leader			
2. Transformational	0.119		
3. Transactional	0.202	1.000	
4. Passive/Avoidant	0.116	0.060	0.534

Note. All correlations significant as the $p < .01$ level