# EXAMINING THE EFFECT OF CAMPUS RECREATION LEADER'S LEADERSHIP STYLE ON EMPLOYEE SATISFACTION

# By

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Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate College of the Oklahoma State University in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY May, 2023

# EXAMINING THE EFFECT OF CAMPUS RECREATION LEADER'S LEADERSHIP STYLE ON EMPLOYEE SATISFACTION

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#### **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

To my parents Robert and Jean to whom I owe much. My father worked as a teacher for over 40 years. He was an inspiration to begin this journey. I need to give a huge thank you to my wife Kelly, my sons Trae and Colby, and my daughters Kenley and Emersyn for being so supportive and understanding of my evening classes, late-nights and weekends of end-less writing. Your value to me only grows with age. I love you. Without your support and encouragement, I never would have pursued this journey nor completed it.

To my committee chair, Dr. Lindenmeier, has provided me with direction, encouragement, and support throughout this process. I am forever grateful for your assistance.

To my committee members, Dr. Passmore, Dr. Linsenmeyer, and Dr. Cline have been very essential in challenging me, and helping shape this document into something very impactful to my industry. Thank you!

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Acknowledgements reflect the views of the author and are not endorsed by committee members or Oklahoma State University.

Name: MATTHEW BECK

Date of Degree: MAY, 2023

Title of Study: EXAMINING THE EFFECT OF CAMPUS RECREATION LEADER'S LEADERSHIP STYLE ON EMPLOYEE SATISFACTION

Major Field: HEALTH, LEISURE, AND HUMAN PERFORMANCE

Abstract: The aim of this study was to explore the effect of leadership styles on job satisfaction of Campus Recreation professionals. To investigate the relationship, quantitative research was conducted. The sample of the study included 68 full-time Campus Recreation professionals from the Arkansas, Kansas, Louisiana, Missouri, Nebraska, New Mexico, Oklahoma, and Texas that worked for their current supervisor a minimum of 1- year. Bass and Avolio's (2004) full-range leadership model served as the foundation for the research. The elements of this leadership style include a spectrum of transformational, transactional, and passive/avoidant style which comprised the independent variables for the study. Job satisfaction formed the dependent variable. The short form of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-5X) and Job Satisfaction Survey were used for the measurement of leadership styles and the job satisfaction scales. The study employed the Spearman rank correlation coefficient and multiple regression analysis to assess the bivariate relationship between employee job satisfaction and the elements of the full-range leadership model. The findings of the research indicated there is a significant and positive relationship between the variables of the study. The results of correlation and multiple regression analysis indicated transformational leadership was significantly related to and predicts job satisfaction. Transactional leadership style was significantly positively related to job satisfaction. However, it was not significantly able to predict job satisfaction. Passive-avoidant style was significantly negatively related to job satisfaction. However, it was also not a significant predictor of job satisfaction.

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#### CHAPTER I

#### INTRODUCTION

Leadership is regarded as one of the most important factors that determines the success or failure of an organization (Bass, 1990). Managers using different leadership styles can affect employee job satisfaction, commitment and productivity (Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003). According to Bennis and Nanus (2007), it may be the key factor needed to enhance human resources. How leaders react to problems, resolve crises, reward, and punish followers can all affect organizational culture as well as how they are viewed by their employees (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Effective leaders can move organizations from current to future states, create visions of potential opportunities, and overcome resistance to change (Bennis & Nanus, 2007).

Employee job satisfaction can be an indicator of organizational effectiveness (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Rad and Yarmohammadian (2006) emphasize the need to investigate job satisfaction as seen in the observed relationship between the levels of job dissatisfaction, absenteeism, grievance expression, tardiness, low morale, and high turnover and individuals with low job satisfaction. Surveys from the early 1900s onward (Bergen, 1939), (Kornhauser & Sharp, 1932), (Viteles, 1952) illustrate the importance of a supervisor's leadership in an employee's favorable job satisfaction

(Bass, 1990.) Research does support a positive relationship between job satisfaction and leadership style of a supervisor or organization (Skogstad et al., 2015), specifically transformational leadership style (Rothfelder et al., 2012). According to Nunns and Baker (2002), organization effectiveness in Campus Recreation will improve only when campus recreation leaders examine their own leadership practices. Job satisfaction of Campus Recreation staff influences motivation and performance in delivering quality programs and services. However, if employees are dissatisfied with ineffective leadership, job satisfaction can have a negative impact on employee turnover (Kim & Fernandez, 2017). The findings of this study could be used to improve employee job satisfaction which can positively affect service delivery in the Campus Recreation field.

#### **Statement of the Problem**

According to a recent survey from Microsoft (2022), 41% of the global workforce is likely to consider leaving their current employer within the next year. The US Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that nearly 33 million people left their jobs from April 2021 to December of 2021 (Liu-Lastres et al., 2023). Fifty-nine percent of Gen Z respondents in a 2022 survey expressed dissatisfaction with their current jobs, and more than 50% indicated that they planned to switch jobs within the next year (Liu-Lastres et al., 2023). According to Sull et al. (2022), organizations with reputations for healthy organizational cultures experienced lower than average turnover. A toxic organizational culture is 10.4 times more powerful than compensation in predicting an organization's attrition rate compared with its industry (Sull et al., 2022). According to Gandi (2021), the cost of replacing exiting workers is

one-half to two times the employee's annual salary. Job satisfaction may represent a large component of this issue. The correlation between leadership style and job satisfaction has been studied in a wide variety of fields. Leadership may be the most studied and least understood topic of any social science (Bennis & Nanus, 2007). However, very few of these studies focus on this relationship in the context of Campus Recreation. Unfortunately, many leaders in organizations may not lead well, which may result in poor organizational outcomes. In a study of Fortune 1000 companies, only 8% rated their organization's leadership as excellent (Csoka, 1998). According to Eacott (2011), evidence demonstrates a shortage of leaders who would be ready and qualified for leadership within a higher education context, which includes Campus Recreation.

According to the National Intramural Recreational Sports Association (NIRSA) (2012), almost 4,000 Campus Recreation professionals are affiliated with NIRSA which is the professional association focusing on recreation in higher education settings. Thousands more work in Campus Recreation that are unaffiliated with NIRSA. Campus Recreation exists at 2052 universities and colleges in the United States and Canada. On average, 75% of students at institutions with Campus Recreation programs and services engage with those programs and services (NIRSA, 2012).

#### **Purpose of this Study**

The purpose of the present study is to examine the impact of campus recreation leadership styles of administrators on their employee's job satisfaction.

This study utilized the framework of Bass and Avolio's (1994) Full Range Leadership model (FRL) to examine multiple facets, or styles of leadership with one instrument.

Specific leadership style may influence job satisfaction of full-time employees which may result in higher retention and employee engagement. Employees who feel special are more apt to go beyond expectations for the campus recreation leader who knows them at a personal level (Nunns & Baker, 2002). Job satisfaction represents an individual's feelings about his current role or job in the organization. Robins (2005) study shows that employees with high job satisfaction behave differently from employees with low job satisfaction. According to Spector (1985), employee job satisfaction dimensions include appreciation, communication, co-workers, fringe benefits, job conditions, nature of work, organization itself, organizational policies and procedures, pay and salaries, personal growth, promotion, opportunities, recognition, security and supervision. Camp (1994) reports that low levels of job satisfaction among employees is associated with attendance problems, higher rates of turnover, lack of active participation in job tasks, and psychological withdrawal from work. Yousef (2002) indicated that leaders' behavior is positively correlated to job satisfaction, which places the emphasis on leaders to adopt behaviors that will affect their employees and organizations positively.

#### **Theoretical Framework**

The aim of the study is to test the effect of leadership style (independent variable) on full-time employee job satisfaction (dependent variable). The questionnaires used in this study. These were chosen due to their relation to the purpose of the study. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5X) (Bass & Avolio, 1990) is the

predominate instrument used in human sciences to test a full range of leadership behaviors. The MLQ tests multiple leadership styles on a spectrum. Job satisfaction is an outcome that has been shown to greatly affect how well people work and whether they stay at a job. The Job Satisfaction Survey from Spector (1985) is the only job satisfaction instrument solely created for use in human service industries.

# **Research Questions and Hypothesis**

Research Question: What is the relationship between campus recreation leaders' leadership style score and full-time employee job satisfaction?

• Specific Question 1: What is the relationship between Campus Recreation leaders' transformational leadership style score and full-time employee job satisfaction?

H1<sub>0</sub>: There is no relationship between Campus Recreation leaders' transformational leadership style score and full-employee job satisfaction.
H1<sub>a</sub>: There is a relationship between Campus Recreation leaders' transformational leadership style score and full-time employee job satisfaction.

 Specific Question 2: What is the relationship between Campus Recreation leaders' transactional leadership style score and full-time employee job satisfaction?

H2<sub>0</sub>: There is no relationship between Campus Recreation leaders' transactional leadership style score and full-time employee job satisfaction.

H2<sub>a</sub>: There is a relationship between Campus Recreation leaders' transactional leadership style score and full-time employee job satisfaction.

 Specific Question 3: What is the relationship between Campus Recreation leaders' passive/laissez-faire leadership style score and full-time employee job satisfaction?

> H3<sub>0</sub>: There is no relationship between Campus Recreation leaders' laissezfaire leadership style score and full-time employee job satisfaction. H3<sub>a</sub>: There is a negative relationship between Campus Recreation leaders' laissez-faire leadership style score and employee job satisfaction.

### Assumptions

The assumptions for this study were as follows:

- The employees surveyed could make accurate judgments about their perceived job satisfaction as it relates to the leadership relationship of their respective leader.
- The participants answered the survey questionnaires related to only one leader at a time and responded in a truthful manner. This assumption was an acknowledgement that: (a) individual leaders have their own rules, procedures, and expectations about the areas within Campus Recreation that they serve; and (b) employees may have different perceptions of job satisfaction based on theleaders they work with.
- That individuals who completed the survey met the outlined criteria for completing the survey.
- Equal measurements of validity and reliability were met because no adjustments were made to the survey instruments.

#### Limitations

- The target population sample was taken from was only a cross-section of the United States of America rather than a full population of all Campus Recreation departments in the US and Canada.
- The sample criteria was a limiting factor, as not all individuals invited to participate had worked for their current supervisor at least one-year.
- The data gathered for the study were collected by self-reporting which is subject to bias. Subjects' answers were subjective based on their impressions and individual experience.
- Participants were given a 30-day timeframe to complete the questionnaire, which may have prevented all participants from completing the surveys.
- The study only evaluated leadership behaviors outlined in the Full Range Leadership
   Model rather than other leadership models that are available as well as other
   instruments measuring job satisfaction.

#### **Definitions of Terms**

Active management by exception-active (MBE-A): The leader arranges to actively monitor deviances from standards, mistakes, and errors in the follower's assignments and to take corrective action as necessary (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Contingent reward: The leader assigning or obtaining follower agreement on what needs to be done with promised or actual rewards offered in exchange for satisfactorily carrying out the assignment (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

*Idealized influence:* Leaders behave in ways that allow them to serve as role models for their followers in that they are admired, respected, and trusted. Followers identify with

the leaders and want to emulate them. Leaders are endowed by their followers as having extraordinary capabilities, persistence, and determination. Thus, there are two aspects to idealized influence: the leader's behaviors and the elements that are attributed to the leader by followers and other associates (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Indirect leadership: The influence of a focal leader on the development and performance of those individuals who do not directly report to the leader (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Individualized consideration: Focuses on understanding the needs of each follower and works continuously to get them to develop to their full potential (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

Inspirational motivation: "Leaders behave in ways that motivate and inspire those around them by providing meaning and challenge to their followers' work. Leaders get followers involved in envisioning attractive future states; they create clearly communicated expectations that followers want to meet and demonstrate commitment to goals and a shared vision" (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Intellectual stimulation: Leaders challenge their followers to be innovative by questioning assumptions and old methods to action. (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Job Satisfaction: A multi-dimensional construct and includes satisfaction with coworkers, with supervisors and with work in general (Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003).

Laissez-faire leadership: Necessary decisions and actions are delayed or do not happen at all. Responsibilities of leadership are ignored. The avoidance or absence of leadership

*Leadership:* The focus of group processes, a matter of personality, an matter of inducing compliance, the exercise of influence, a particular behaviors, a form of persuasion, a power relation, a an instrument to achieve goals, a an effect of interaction, a

(Bass & Riggio, 2006).

differentiated role, an initiation of structure, and many combinations of these definitions (Bass, 1990).

Nature of Work: Refers satisfaction with job tasks themselves (Spector, 1994).

Passive management by exception (MBE-P): The leader waits passively for deviances, mistakes, and errors to occur and then takes corrective action (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Supervision: The extent to which an individual is monitored to ensure task completion.

Transactional leadership: A leadership style typified by a focus on supervision and passive management by exception, with heavy emphasis on group performance (Grill et

*Transformational leadership*: A leadership style typified by actions promoting valuable, positive change in followers through inspiration, empathy, and confidence (Grill et al., 2017).

al., 2017).

#### CHAPTER II

#### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

## Leadership

Leadership is found in nearly every aspect of our society, and there is a need for greater understanding of the topic (Bennis & Nanus, 2007). Burns (2010) claims the need for compelling and creative leadership is one of the universal cravings of our time. However, it is one of the least understood phenomena on Earth. Giving one definition of leadership that applies to all settings is a very difficult task (Bass, 1985) as there are many aspects and styles of leadership. Years of analysis has given us more than 850 definitions of leadership (Bennis & Nanus, 2007). Bennis and Nanus (2007) claim that, like love, everyone knows that leadership exists, but no one can adequately define it. Leadership as a concept is multidimensional, making it difficult to provide a universal definition that would apply in all organization types and situations around the world.

Northouse (2022) defines leadership as "a process where a person has influence upon a group in order to achieve the common goals" (p.6). An essential factor in leadership is the capacity to influence and organize meaning for the group (Bennis & Nanus, 2007). Northouse (2022) argues without influence, leadership does

not exist. Northouse (2022) states leadership does not involve coercion, which is to influence someone to do something against their will. Groups are also required for leadership to occur (Northouse, 2022). Leaders direct their energies toward achieving selective mutual goals with the members of their group (Northouse, 2022).

There are typically two kinds of leadership: assigned leadership and emergent leadership (Northouse, 2022). Northouse (2022) states leadership based upon occupying a position is assigned, whereas individuals who may not have a title or authority but are the most influential members of a group as perceived by others is emergent leadership. According to Northouse (2022), leadership is either a moral process guided by moral values promoting the common good, or it is a neutral process that is not value based promoting the common good.

The study of leadership as a concept is traced back to the ancient pharaohs in Egypt as early as 5000 BC and in the work of Greek philosophers Aristotle and Plato (Bass, 1990). Leadership has evolved over time and been studied at length to find a best way to identify leaders through traits, behaviors, skills, or methods and processes that can influence or affect people or things. There is no clear understanding exists as to what distinguishes effective leaders from ineffective leaders (Bennis & Nanus, 2007).

Leadership is sometimes thought of synonymously with the concept of management. Researchers and organizations have attempted to answer this question for over a century since the industrial revolution where the idea of management first manifested. Northouse (2022) claims management was created to reduce chaos in organizations and help them run more efficiently through planning, organizing, and

controlling processes. Northouse (2022) states management is about order, whereas leadership is about constructive change. Bass and Avolio (1994) claim managers focus on process whereas leaders focus on stimulating others to create a new reality. According to Bennis and Nanus (2007), managers are people who do things right, while leaders are people who do the right things, or effectiveness versus efficiency.

## **Great Man Theory/Trait Theory**

A common leadership question: are leaders born or made? Spector (2016) attributes the speeches of Thomas Carlyle in the 1800s as an origin for the argument of leaders being born with special traits. The *Great Man Theory* of leadership examined common traits of extraordinary male individuals (Spector, 2016). Trait theory represented one of the first attempts to study leadership (Northouse, 2022). According to Zaccaro (2007), the quantitative analysis of leadership dates as far back as 1869 to Galton's *Hereditary Genius*, which like Carlye's speeches, argued that the personal qualities defining effective leadership were naturally endowed, passed from generation to generation. Spector claims the *Great Man Theory* asserts certain men are naturally gifted to be leaders (Spector, 2016). The *Great Man Theory* includes obvious gender bias and was replaced over time by a more general trait-based theory of leadership (Spector, 2016). Historically, society viewed femininity as dependent, submissive, and conforming, causing the perception of women as lacking leadership qualities (Burns, 2010).

Trait theory gained momentum in the 1930s, which expanded on the ideas of the *Great Man Theory*. During this time, scientists studied the characteristics or traits of leaders with research studies, thus forming the theory (Chao & Chang, 2013). In

trait theory, certain individuals are born with special innate traits like personal or physical characteristics that make effective leaders, which differentiate them from non-leaders (Northouse, 2022). Zaccaro (2007) defines leader traits as relatively coherent and integrated patterns of personal characteristics, reflecting a range of individual differences that foster consistent leadership effectiveness across a variety of group and organizational situations. Gehring (2007) states there are limitations in the trait theory such as the subjective judgment in determining who is a *good* or *successful* leader. The lists of possible traits are long, and there is not agreement on the most important. Madanchian et al. (2016) claim the majority of the early leadership theorists presented their findings based on information attained based on experimental observation as an alternative of statistical research. The lack of correlation between traits and successful leaders caused abandonment of the theory in favor of theories looking at skills and behavior (Gehring, 2007).

Trait theory asserts leaders are born with leadership traits rather than made from their experience or environment. The possession of certain traits allows leaders to emerge and perform their roles well, whereas the absence of certain traits may keep an individual from emerging as a leader at all, or performing well even if they do (Judge et al., 2009). According to Judge et al. (2009), leaders are born in the sense that identical twins reared apart share striking similarities in terms of their leadership emergence. Johnson et al. (2004) state that most twin studies have demonstrated moderate to large genetic contributions to most personality dimensions. On average, twin studies show individual differences in personality are approximately 40% heritable, and leader emergence is roughly 24% heritable (Johnson et al., 1998). Twin

studies can serve as very good control subjects in investigating leadership development programs as they control for DNA, but environment cannot be totally controlled as one twin could be exposed to a leadership development program while the other is not (Arvey et al., 2006). Boerma et al. (2017) states historical examples exist to support both a genetic and environmental component to leadership. Johnson et al. (1998) and Johnson et al. (2004) have also shown a significant amount of genetic and environmental factors in leader emergence, proving that leaders are both born and made. Johnson et al. (1998)'s study only evaluated leader role occupancy and did not evaluate leader effectiveness.

Traits continued to be a focus of leadership study into the 1940s. Stogdill (1948) examined 124 different trait studies and identified eight traits that leaders possessed that were different from non-leaders: intelligence, alertness, insight, responsibility, initiative, persistence, self-confidence, and sociability. Stogdill's research (1948) also outlined the most prevalent leadership traits (in order of importance): originality, popularity, sociability, judgement, aggressiveness, desire to excel, humor, cooperativeness, liveliness, and athletic ability. Some consensus has emerged amongst researchers for basic personality traits of all human beings called the *Big Five* (Goldberg, 1990) which are neuroticism, extraversion, openness (intellect), agreeableness, and conscientiousness (dependability). Genetic research suggest that transformational leadership shows a statistically significant positive genetic correlation with aspects of the *Big Five* personality traits model of conscientiousness, extraversion, and openness (Johnson et al., 2004). A 2002 metanalysis of 78 leadership and personality studies found a correlation between

leadership and traits of extraversion, conscientiousness, and openness (Judge et al., 2002).

Early researchers did not consider the interaction between leaders and situations in relation to the leadership discussion (Madanchian et al., 2016).

According to Madanchian et al. (2016), Stogdill (1948) claimed effective leadership is reliant on situation not just the individual's characteristics. This assertion led many leadership researchers to abandon the search for inherent leadership traits. An increased level of research activity into the situation as the determinant of emergent leadership ability began after Stogdill's research (Johnson et al., 1998).

Research has yet to identify one single trait or mix of traits that is found in all leaders (Boerma et al., 2017). However, several studies have linked personality variables and other stable personal attributes to leader effectiveness, providing a substantial empirical foundation for the argument that traits do matter in the prediction of leader effectiveness (Zaccaro, 2007).

Traits have seen somewhat of a resurgence in leadership study (Northouse, 2022). Research has supported the finding that leaders have higher intelligence than non-leaders (Zaccaro et al. 2017). Zaccaro et al. (2018) found evidence that personality traits contribute to leader emergence in groups and leader effectiveness.

A criticism of the trait approach is that it does not outline which traits are best in certain situations or leader behaviors (Northouse, 2022). Northouse (2022) states the strength of the trait approach is that it is the most researched of any leadership approach, and it can help identify individuals for leadership development programs.

The major weakness of the trait approach is that it is too broad, and there is no definitive list of traits for effective leadership (Northouse, 2022).

### Skills Theory

Other theories of leadership focus more on the skills necessary for one to be a successful leader. US companies spend approximately \$14 billion each year on this training, and higher education offers a multitude of degree courses pertaining to leadership suggesting that leadership is a skill that may be learned (Boerma et al., 2017). The skills model of leadership is descriptive in that it describes what a leader should do or learn in order to be effective (Northouse, 2022). According to Northouse (2022), skills are what a leader does as opposed to traits, which are who a leader is.

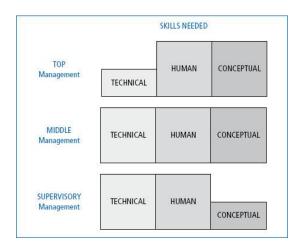
The skills model emerged from an article by Robert Katz in the Harvard Business Review titled "Skills of an Effective Administrator" (Northouse, 2022). Katz created the "Three-Skill Model" which attempted to frame leadership as a skill that could be learned (Northouse, 2022). The Katz "Three Skill Model" identifies three main personal skills necessary for leadership, technical skills, human skills, and conceptual skills, which vary with the level of administrative responsibility (Northouse, 2022).

Northouse (2022) states the importance of certain leadership skills varies depending on where leaders are in the organizational structure in the Katz model (Figure 2.1). An entry-level leader requires a high degree of technical skills to be able to coach those under their leadership as well as a high level of human skills to be able to communicate and train others, whereas lower-level leader would only require a low level of conceptual skills, as they would not be required at that level. A middle-

manager/leader would need to have a moderate to high level of all three skills, as they will need to lead subordinates and work with higher-level managers on the larger vision and strategic planning for the organization. Upper level leaders do not require a high degree of technical skills. Upper level leaders likely will not coach people on how to do a job, but they do need a high degree of human skills to motivate, engage, and relate to their team while also having a high degree of conceptual skill (Northouse, 2022). Upper level leaders are the main strategic planning piece in an organization. However, the upper level leader would need a high level of human skills to be a successful fundraiser, motivator, and public relations person for high-level discussions in state and national politics (Northouse, 2022). Skills develop and a higher level of the skills are needed as leaders move into positions of greater authority placing a large emphasis on skill development as a function of experience in leadership roles (Mumford et al., 2000).

Figure 2.1

Three Skill Model-Robert Katz (Northouse, 2022)



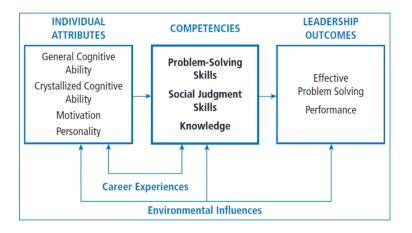
Mumford et al (2000) created a new skill-based model (Fig. 2.2), which has five components: competencies, individual attributes, career experiences, environmental influences, and leadership outcomes. The skills-based-model of Mumford et al. (2000) expanded the major competencies or skills needed for leaders including problem-solving skills, social judgment skills, and domain specific knowledge. Mumford et al. (2000) argued that without domain specific knowledge such as knowledge of people and knowledge of the business, even the most skilled person in the organization would likely be an ineffective leader. According to Northouse (2022), if we claim leaders are shaped by their experiences, it means leaders are not born to be leaders. The skills model claims leaders can develop necessary leadership skills through experience.

The skills model was a positive evolution of leadership study in that it focused on skills that can be developed which makes leadership available to everyone unlike traits (Northouse, 2022). A criticism of the model is that it includes so many components that it is too general and less precise in explaining leadership

effectiveness (Northouse, 2022). The model does have criticisms such as the lack of predictive value and the lack of explanation of how these skills lead to effective leadership performance (Northouse, 2022).

Figure 2.2

Skill-Based Model (Mumford et al., 2000)



# **Behavioral Theory**

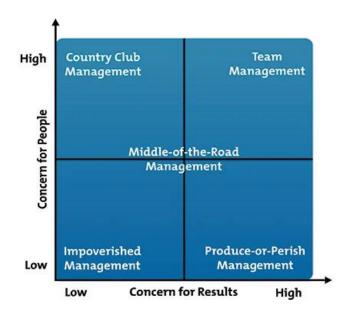
Leadership research began to evolve with similar studies conducted in the late 1940s at the Ohio State University and the University of Michigan and examine what leaders do and how they act rather than traits and skills (Northouse, 2022). Both studies identified two dimensions of leader behaviors, initiating structure (task behavior) and individual consideration (relational behavior) (Johns & Moser, 1989). Johns & Moser (1989) mentioned that the results of the studies demonstrated that the behaviors were not always mutually exclusive as effective leaders often used aspects of both behaviors. The University of Michigan study results showed that supervisors of "high" performing teams tended to be more employee-oriented than the supervisors of "low" teams who were more production oriented (Antonakis, 2001).

The Ohio State studies suggested that leaders exhibiting high consideration and high initiating structure were the most effective (Antonakis, 2001).

Robert Blake and Jane Mouton advanced the work of both studies with the creation of the Leadership Grid (Figure 2.3) in 1964 which focused on concern for production (task behavior) on one axis and concern for people (relational behavior) on the other making up four quadrants or leadership styles (Blake & Mouton, 1964). Leaders with high concern for people and low concern for tasks were labeled as country club leaders. Leaders with high concern for tasks and low concern for people were labeled as authoritarian. Research has shown that leaders with a high-high style (9:9 on the Leadership Grid), labeled team leadership is the most effective form as it results in lower employee turnover, organizational success, and employee satisfaction when compared to the other behaviors (Northouse, 2022). The behavioral approach does not adequately show how leader behaviors are associated with performance outcomes of leaders and their subordinates, and it does not take into account situations and the need to adapt a leadership style (Martin et al., 2012). Leadership styles evolved from the study of leadership behaviors. According to Alonderiene and Majauskaite (2016), a leadership style is characterized by the set of leadership behaviors such as coaching skills and caring for an individual.

Figure 2.3

Leadership Grid (Blake & Mouton, 1964)



# **Situational Leadership Theory**

Zaccaro (2007) states the situation is a crucial factor to whether someone has the traits, skills, and experience to be effective in that setting. Stogdill (1948) claimed that persons who are leaders in one situation may not necessarily be leaders in other situations. The situation is critical in explaining variance in leadership behavior (Zaccaro, 2007). Zaccaro (2007) states the behaviors leaders should display to perform effectively will vary widely across different situations. Antonakis (2001) states the leadership style should fit the situation, and the function that is to be performed should be directed by taking into consideration the competencies and motivations of the follower. Situational leadership claims there is no single best way in which to lead and to accomplish organizational goals a leader must adapt their behaviors to the specific maturity and development of followers (Dugan, 2017). The

followers who will determine whether the leader is successful by either accepting or rejecting their efforts, it is essential the leader utilize the correct style in the appropriate situation so that the task is performed well leading to satisfied followers (Antonakis, 2001)

Paul Hersey and Ken Blanchard first developed the situational leadership concept in 1969 (Blanchard & Hersey, 1996) with their "Life-Cycle" model. Blanchard et al. (1993) found managers who practiced situational leadership needed to be concerned with both directive and supportive behaviors (Table 2.1) when seeking to successfully lead others. The Hersey & Blanchard (1969)'s situational model connects a leader's style with the individual member's maturity and development level. According to Dugan (2017), enacting the model involves identifying the leader style that best fits the development level of a follower on a given task or situation. The model identified four leadership behaviors: telling (directive), selling (consultative), participating, and delegating. The leadership style used should progress from directing to coaching to delegating over time as the competence and development of the follower increases (Blanchard & Hersey, 1996). The model has had various iterations with the latest being the Situational Leadership II (Blanchard & Hersey, 1996) debuting in 1985. The Situational Leadership II model (Figure 2.4) is very useful in the marketplace and is used by over 400 of the Fortune 500 companies in training programs in some capacity (Northouse, 2022). Papworth et al. (2009) explain in situational leadership the most effective leadership style for that individual is determined by their "readiness level" on a continuum divided into four developmental levels or four leadership style. Blanchard et al. (1993) define

development as the extent to which a person has mastered the skills necessary for the task at hand and has developed a positive attitude toward the task.

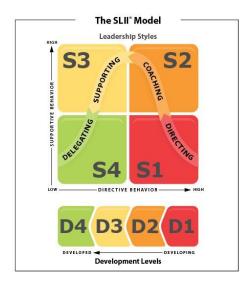
The goal of situational leadership is to help followers to a point of high competence and high commitment where a leader can delegate and not need to provide much oversight. A strength of the model is that it is easy to understand and apply as it is prescriptive and emphasizes leader flexibility and understanding of follower needs (Northouse, 2022). The situational leadership model (Table 2.1) is one of the few leadership models that is prescriptive (tells you what you should do and not do) as opposed to descriptive, and it emphasizes leader flexibility (Northouse, 2022). According to Papworth et al. (2009), a criticism of situational leadership is the lack of critical review of the model. Dugan (2017) claims that researchers question the legitimacy and validity of the model. Another criticism is that the concepts within such as commitment are not clearly defined, and the model does not account for certain demographic considerations such as age, experience, gender, race, etc. (Northouse, 2022).

Table 2.1
Situational Leadership (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969)

Subordinate Independence Level	Directive	Supportive
Very Low	High	Low
Somewhat Low	High	High
Somewhat High	Low	High
Very High	Low	Low

Figure 2.4

Situational Leadership II Model (kenblanchard.com, 2021)



# **Transactional Leadership**

Burns (2010) introduced the idea that leadership is either transactional or transformational. Burns (2010) argued that transactional leadership might be the most used leadership style. According to Bass & Riggio (2006), transactional leadership emphasizes the transaction or exchange that takes place among leaders, colleagues, and followers where the leader discusses with others what is required and specifying the conditions and rewards followers will receive if they fulfill those requirements. Transactional leadership provides motivation for followers to accomplish tasks by offering a clear expectations and a desired set of outcomes (Burns, 2010).

Transactional leaders have influence because it is in the best interest of followers to do what the leader wants (Northouse, 2022). Transactional Leadership is contractual whereby the subordinate requires compensation for compliance, and it can positively

impact employee job satisfaction (Amin et al., 2013). However, Amin et al. (2013) states the positive impact that transactional leadership has on job satisfaction is weak.

Northouse (2022) states that transactional leadership can occur in one of two ways: contingent reward, which is the exchange of rewards for certain results, and management by exception, which is constantly monitoring mistakes or error and taking corrective action when any errors or mistakes happen. Contingent reward focuses on clarifying role and task requirements, and rewarding desired outcomes (Antonakis, 2001). Contingent punishment can contribute to greater effectiveness when it is delivered in response to poor performance or unacceptable behavior with the intention of improving subsequent behavior (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Management-by-exception sanctions can take the form of reprimands, disapproval, penalization, or punishment (Antonakis, 2001).

Bass and Avolio (1993) state job assignments and expectations in transactional leadership are outlined along with conditions of employment, disciplinary codes, and benefits along with short-term commitments. In many instances, transactional leadership can be quite effective depending on the circumstances (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Siddique et al (2011) claims a leader can motivate his employees by providing them with different rewards and benefits and can motivate employees to work and perform to the fullest, by minimizing demotivators, which is transactional in nature. Bass and Riggio (2006) indicate that contingent reward is reasonably effective under most circumstances. According to Bass and Avolio (2004), transactional leadership often fails to work because the leader lacks the necessary reputation or resources to deliver the needed rewards.

Certain aspects of transactional leadership may be counterproductive to overall organization as people may take shortcuts to complete the exchange of a reward for compliance to a task or objective (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Transactional leadership may be appropriate for systematic, routine, or programmed situations (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Bass and Avolio (2004), employees in a transactional leadership situation do exactly what they are told to do, no more, and no less. Quality of efforts may suffer for quantity, which is easier to measure, if not as closely monitored by the leader (Bass & Avolio, 2004). In some situations, management-by-exception may be necessary to use when safety is of concern (Antonakis, 2001).

### Transformational Leadership

Since 1990, more studies have been devoted to the transformational leadership style than to all other major theories of leadership combined (Kovjanic et al., 2012). Bass and Avolio (1994) describe transformational leadership as an expansion of transactional leadership. According to Yukl (2010), transformational leadership theory places an emphasis on the impact a leader's behavior has on followers, rather than the specific traits of the leader. However, heredity may play a role in transformational leadership emergence. As stated by Bass & Avolio (2004), from 25 percent to as much as 50 percent of the variance in MLQ self-rated factor scores can be attributed to heredity as found in a study by McCarthy et al. (1998).

Transformational leadership is inherently different from transactional leadership as leaders show support for follower's health and well-being. Kovjanic et al. (2012) state transformational leaders go beyond social exchange and involve higher psychological needs including needs for competence and affection, which help

develop the potential of their followers and foster their commitment to and effort for the group. Leaders using this approach focus on shifting the values, beliefs and needs of their employees. Northouse (2022) p. 186 defines transformational leadership as "the process whereby a person engages with others and creates a connection that raises the level of motivation and the morality in both the leader and the follower." Transformational leadership adds to the transactional exchange by addressing the follower's sense of self-worth to engage true commitment (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Transformational leaders appear to have more ability to deal with conflict than transactional leaders (Bass, 1990).

According to Bolkan and Goodboy (2010), transformational leadership is positively related to employee creativity (Cheung et al., 2011). Transformational leadership has had positive relationships with follower job satisfaction, satisfaction with the leader, follower motivation, and perceived leader effectiveness in business settings. Burns (2010) describes transformational leader as someone who addresses the needs and motivations of employees as well as promote dramatic changes at individual, group and organizational levels. Transformational leaders promote development in those that they lead because they want to see their subordinates being future leaders (Bass, 1990). This leadership approach is multi-directional and its outcomes mutually benefit all parties involved (Gardner et al, 2005).

Transformational leadership introduces the morality component with a genuine concern for follower's needs and wanting to affect positive change on an organization (Northouse, 2022). This goal of this process is to help followers to achieve their fullest potential (Northouse, 2022).

The components that make up Transformational Leadership were identified by Bass (1985) were derived from interviews with managers and the literature in psychology, sociology, and management. The initial components included individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and charismatic leadership or idealized influence shown (Table 2.2). Research studies in many industries have shown transformational leadership to be more effective and satisfying than transactional leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1994). According to Bass (1990), subordinates of transformational leaders will exert additional effort for those leaders over transactional leaders. The leader must recognize individual's contributions to a team will be influenced by the leader's style (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Table 2.2

Key Aspects of Transformational Leadership (Bass & Avolio, 2004)

Idealized Influence -	Transformational leaders have associates who view them in an idealized way, and as such, these leaders wield much power and influence over their followers. They want to identify with the leaders and their mission. They develop strong feelings about such leaders, in whom they invest much trust and confidence. Transformational leaders arouse and inspire others with whom they work with a vision of what can be accomplished through extra personal effort.
Inspirational Motivation -	Inspirational leaders articulate, in simple ways, shared goals and mutual understanding of what is right and important. They provide visions of what is possible and how to attain them. The question one must ask is, "Whom are they inspiring—themselves or the greater good of their group, unit, organization, and/or community?"
Intellectual Stimulation -	Transformational leaders help others to think about old problems in new ways. They are encouraged to question their own beliefs, assumptions, and values, and, when appropriate, those of the leader, which may be outdated or inappropriate for solving current problems. Associates develop the capacity to solve future problems unforeseen by the leader. A key measure of a leader's effectiveness is how capable their associates are when operating without the leader's presence or direct involvement.
Individualized Consideration -	Understanding and sharing in others' concerns and developmental needs and treating each individual uniquely. In addition, Individualized Consideration represents an attempt on the part of leaders to not only recognize and satisfy their associates' current needs, but also to expand and elevate those needs in an attempt to maximize and develop their full potential.

According to Afshari (2022), leaders portraying idealized influence embrace high compliance with organizational values and encourage employees to exert their highest efforts toward achieving the goals of the organization by modeling the way. Employees that attribute idealized influence to their leaders view those leaders as embodying power, confidence and charisma, and they are more likely to develop a trust, a positive attachment, and commitment to the organization (Afshari, 2022).

Inspirational motivation is concerned with the creation of a vision, developing clear and plausible strategies for attaining the vision and mobilizing commitment to that vision (Linge & Sikalieh, 2019). Organizations that are able to communicate their vision and mission statement to their employees are able to perform better than organizations that do not (Linge & Sikalieh, 2019). Inspirational motivation has been empirically linked to a range of outcomes such as extra effort, ethical behavior, learning orientation, and project success (Densten, 2002). According to Linge &

Sikalieh (2019), several studies have shown there is positive relationship between intrinsic motivation and job satisfaction.

According to Avolio and Bass (1995), the leader displays more individualized consideration by showing general support for the efforts of followers, and by encouraging their autonomy and empowering them to take on more responsibility in line with their growing expertise and interest. The focus of individualized consideration is on recognizing individual differences in needs, elevating them, and developing potential to achieve increasingly higher levels of performance (Avolio & Bass, 1995).

Leaders that emphasize intellectual stimulation encourage followers to remain open to new ideas, think outside the box, and question their own assumptions (Robinson & Boies, 2016). According to Piccolo and Colquitt (2006), leaders who utilize intellectual stimulation by seeking new perspectives and developing new ways to perform job tasks may enhance follower perceptions of variety and autonomy. Leaders that help employees engage in problem-solving activities, suggesting alternative perspectives supports and challenges employees to consider different approaches enhancing employees' problem solving capabilities (Zhou et al., 2012). The leader uses vivid images to communicate clear and explicit messages and symbols where necessary to aid followers in finding solutions to difficult problems (Antonakis, 2001).

According to Bass & Riggio (2006), a critical concern for theories of transformational leadership involve what many refer to as the dark side of charisma—those leaders who use their abilities to inspire and lead followers to destructive,

selfish, and even evil ends. Most often coming to mind are international leaders who wreaked havoc, death, and destruction such as Adolf Hitler, Pol Pot, Josef Stalin, Osama Bin Laden. Bass & Riggio (2006) call these leaders pseudo-transformational. They exhibit many elements of transformational leadership but have personal, exploitative, and self-aggrandizing motives according to Bass & Riggio (2006) such as being unreliable, power-hungry, and manipulative (Toor, 2009). Burns (2010) insisted that transformational leaders had to be morally uplifting. In a transformational leadership culture, there is a sense of purpose and a feeling of family with longer-term commitments from staff (Bass and Avolio, 1993).

Yukl (1999) identified several conceptual weaknesses of transformational leadership including ambiguous constructs, insufficient description of explanatory process, a narrow focus on dyadic processes, omission of some relevant behaviors, insufficient specification of limiting conditions, and a bias toward heroic conceptions of leadership. According to Yukl (1999), the theory also does not identify situations where transformational leadership may be detrimental to followers. A strength of the model is that it is the most widely researched leadership model with substantial evidence from studies that it is an effective form of leadership (Northouse, 2022). Northouse (2022) identified a criticism of the model is that it treats leadership as a trait rather than a behavior that people can learn.

Bass & Riggio (2006) state extensive evidence supports that transformational leaders have more satisfied followers than non-transformational leaders, and transformational leadership is more effective than transactional leadership. According to Northouse (2022), research suggests that employees do not think transactional

leaders are as capable as transformational leaders of building trust and mutually beneficial relationships. According to Bass & Riggio (2006), two meta-analyses showed very high average correlations (ranging from .51 to .81) between all of the components of transformational leadership and measures of follower satisfaction. Antonakis (2001) transformational leadership as a theory appears to be compatible with a variety of managerial functions, and useful in a broad range of situations and across many levels of analysis that were absent from previous leadership theories.

## **Full-Range Leadership Model**

The full range leadership model depicts the whole range of leadership behaviors which comprise styles ranging from non-leadership, laissez-fair, to the transformational style (Kirkbride, 2006). The full range leadership model does not describe a continuum of bad leadership to good leadership. Different situations require different leadership behaviors to be employed by a leader, and a leader will employ different leadership behaviors for those situations. According to Dugan (2017), the full range model suggests that all leaders will engage in all nine behaviors of the model to varying degrees and do not utilize only one style of leadership or set of leader behaviors. The full range model of leadership consists of the four components of transformational leadership including, idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration, the dimensions of transactional leadership which are contingent reward, management by exception (active and passive), as well as laissez-faire leadership or non-leader behaviors (Figures 2.5 & 2.6) (Kirkbride, 1995). In the full range leadership model, idealized influence is further broken down into attitudes and behaviors. Idealized

influence-behavior refers to leaders' behavior and their actions, whereas idealized influence-attributed refers to the way leaders are perceived by followers/employees.

Figure 2.5

Full-Range Leadership Model 1 (Kirkbride, 1995)

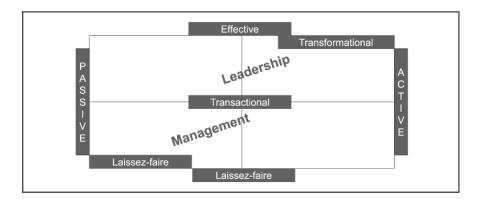
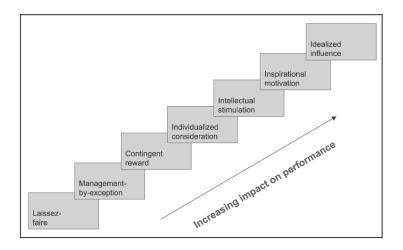


Figure 2.6

Full-Range Leadership Model 2(Kirkbride, 1995)



Burns (2010) stated that transformational leadership and transactional leadership are at opposite ends of a spectrum. According to Bass and Riggio (2006), a fundamental attribute of the full range leadership model is that every leader displays each style to some varying degree. Bass and Avolio (1994) expanded this idea to

include non-leader behaviors called laissez-faire as claimed that every leader displays each style in the full range leadership model (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) to some degree. Bass and Riggio (2006) state that active, and even passive, management-by-exception can work depending on the situation and circumstances.

Laissez-faire behavior has been found to be the least satisfying and effective management style (Bass, 1990). Gardner, et al (2005), claims that leaders or managers utilizing laissez faire behavior offer very little guidance, complete freedom for followers to make decisions. Leaders or managers who utilize laissez-faire behaviors are often perceived as detached and reserved, which can lead to a lack of direction within the organization (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Researchers have found that the passive-avoidant style leads to the lowest productivity among employees (Burns, 2010, Yukl, 2010). According to Bass (1990), the unwillingness of the leader utilizing laissez-faire behaviors to accept responsibility, give directions; provide support have been consistently negatively related to productivity, satisfaction, and cohesiveness. According to Bass & Riggio (2006), passive management-by-exception (MBE-P) is likely to correlate with laissez-faire behaviors, but the leader who frequently displays MBE-P will corrects followers; the leader utilizing laissez-faire behaviors does not. Management-by-exception is a less productive form of leadership as it can create anxiety, hostility or guilt in followers (Antonakis, 2001). Antonakis (2001) cited the results of several studies that show management-by-exceptionpassive is positively correlated to laissez-faire leadership. Management-by-exception (passive) was moved from a transactional leadership dimension to laissez-faire

dimension during a refinement of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Avolio & Bass, 2004), and is now called passive-avoidant style. Passive-avoidant style is considered a non-leadership style (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

A person with an optimal leadership profile infrequently displays passive-avoidant leadership style, and they display successively higher frequencies of the transactional leadership styles of MBE-A, and CR and displays the transformational components most frequently (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Bass & Riggio (2006) also claim a poorly performing leader tends toward inactivity and ineffectiveness, exhibiting passive-avoidant leadership most frequently and the transformational components least frequently. According to Kirkbride (2006), one of the key strengths of the full range leadership model it acknowledges that leaders are will use varying styles ranging from the laissez-fair through transactional to transformational.

Transformational leadership can be learned using a development process utilizing a combination of 360-degree feedback using the MLQ, structured workshops, and one-to-one coaching sessions (Kirkbride, 2006). A criticism of the Full-Range Model is the omission of task-oriented behavior that has been associated with effective leadership such as setting task based goals and role clarification (Yukl, 1999).

#### **Servant Leadership**

Robert Greenleaf is typically credited as the originator of the concept (Northouse, 2022) in his work "the Servant as Leader. Greenleaf (1977) credit's Herman Hess' book *Journey to the East* as the inspiration behind the theory. However, the leader as a servant has historical origins back to biblical days and the

person of Jesus as well as the writings of ancient Chinese philosophers such as Lao Tzu and Greek philosophers such as Aristotle (Ingram, 2016).

Servant leadership is a more difficult construct to define than previous leadership models. According to Van Dierendonck (2011), there is no consensus definition of servant leadership. The main premise of servant leadership is putting the needs of followers first over the leader's own self-interest by focusing directly on recognizing followers' contributions and helping them reach their potential (Northouse, 2022).

Ingram (2016) claims servant leadership differs from other leadership models in that it surfaces out of the leader's principles, values, and beliefs which form the servant leader's motivation and behavior. Van Dierendonck (2011) claims servant leadership and its people-centered, ethical approach may be what current organizations need now. The servant leader's ultimate goal is serving the needs of rather than the ultimate well-being of the organization (Greenleaf, 1977). Ingram (2016) identified a list of characteristics of servant leaders to include listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, commitment to the growth of people, and building community.

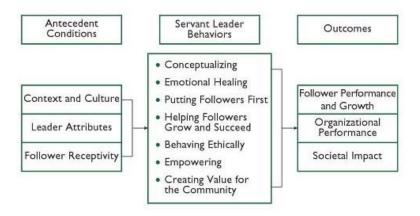
The concept of servant leadership is very similar to more traditional leadership models such as traits, and behavioral theories (Ingram, 2016). Van Dierondonck (2011) states the greatest difference between servant leadership and transformational leadership is that servant leadership focuses on humility, authenticity, and interpersonal acceptance, which are not explicitly apparent in transformational leadership. Servant leadership is highly correlated with positive job

satisfaction (Öner, 2012, Northouse, 2022). The model of servant leadership consists of antecedent conditions such as the context of the situation, leader traits or attributes, and the receptivity of the follower as well as servant leader behaviors, and outcomes such as follower or organizational performance (Figure 2.7).

Northouse (2022) claims some followers may not be receptive or show a desire for servant leadership and equate servant leadership with micromanagement. With this style, there is a potential risk for managers to allow themselves to be manipulated by followers (Van Dierondonck, 2011). According to Northouse (2022), cultures with low humane orientation may present a problem for a servant leadership style to be used. A main criticism of the model is a lack of reliable and validated instrument that targets the key dimensions of servant leadership behavior (Van Dierondonck, 2011). It is not clear how servant leadership leads to organizational change (Northouse, 2022). According to Northouse (2022), despite 20 years of research on servant leadership there are still questions regarding the robustness of its theoretical framework.

Figure 2.7

Model of Servant Leadership (van Dierendonck, 2011)



## **Strengths-Based Leadership**

The strengths-based leadership style emerged in the 1960's due to the work of Dr. Donald Clifton and the Gallop Research Organization that focuses on the strengths of a leader as opposed to focus on a well-rounded leadership approach (Rath, 2008). Dugan (2017) states the two key steps of strengths-based leadership are knowing one's own strengths and maximizing teams. According to Rath (2008), if one spends their life trying to be good at everything, they will never be great at anything. Strengths-based leadership is related to traits leadership theory.

A strength is defined as an attribute that accounts for successful performance in an area (Northouse, 2022). Northouse (2022) states that talents are like traits in that they are relatively stable throughout life. Talents develop into strengths through additional knowledge and skill development, and practice (Northouse, 2022). Rath (2008) claims effective leaders surround themselves the right people and build on their strengths.

In this leadership style, leaders assess their own strengths along with those of their team using an assessment created by Dr. Clifton and Gallop, the Clifton Strengths Finder (CSF) (Rath, 2008). The StrengthsFinder consists of 34 strength themes that sort into four domains- Executing, Influencing, Relationship Building, and Strategic Thinking (Rath, 2008). The leader using the assessment results places followers in roles that take advantage of their strengths building teams with complementing strengths (Rath, 2007). An inventory of character strengths was also created by Peterson and Seligman called the Values in Action Classification (VIA)

which includes 24 strengths under six basic virtues (wisdom & knowledge, courage, humanity, justice, temperance, and transcendence) (Northouse, 2022).

A national Gallop research study has shown that people who are able to work daily in their areas of strengths are more actively engaged in their positions and show higher job satisfaction overall (Rath, 2007). According to Sorensen (2014), onequarter (25%) of American workers indicated that they were "ignored" with 40% of those employees stating they were actively disengaged in their jobs. Unfortunately, the study also demonstrated that negative attention or criticism is preferred to no attention at all from leaders as disengagement was half of the group that was ignored by leaders. This highlights the desire of people to have their leaders simply acknowledge them as it has a huge impact. 61% of individuals that agreed their supervisors focused on their strengths were actively engaged in their role with 38% not engaged, and only 1% saying they were actively disengaged (Sorensen, 2014). The Gallop study also demonstrated that a strengths-based approach leads to improved health and wellness outcomes in that they are less likely to report experiencing worry, stress, anger, sadness, or physical pain during the previous day (Sorensen, 2014).

A strength of the model is that it is widely popular with organizations and used in hiring practices. There are books on the subject and many organizational surveys used to collect information outlining the effectiveness of the model for outcomes such as employee engagement, citizenship behaviors, and lower turnover of employees that use the model (Rath, 2008). However, a major criticism of strengths-based leadership is that most of the books, surveys, and general research on the

subject has been conducted and published by Gallop who also provide the instrument rather than academic journals (Dugan, 2017). Dugan (2017) also suggests that the Clifton Strengths Finder assessment has low reliability. The model does not outline an ideal top leadership strength.

## **Leadership and Job Satisfaction in Campus Recreation**

In a study of Big 10 and MAC Conference Campus Recreation Directors, programs led by high transformational leaders possessed significantly stronger, positive cultures than the campus recreation programs administered by low transformational leaders (Weese, 1995). Weese (1995) found that programs that were all geographically housed in one building allowing the leader more frequent interaction and opportunities to impart influence. This finding puts directors of larger institutions with multiple facilities and greater numbers of staff at a greater challenge in leadership of staff.

According to Ball et. al. (2008), the top characteristics that a campus recreational director should have are the following: commitment and integrity, communication skills, budget management, personnel management, and adaptability to change. According to Madsen (2012), postsecondary institutions are struggling to find qualified, effective leaders to move into key administrative positions. One of the main reasons for this lack of qualified leaders is a lack of leadership development programs for staff and faculty. University faculty and staff tend to be placed into positions of leadership based upon expertise in rather than their ability to lead and manage others (Hempsall, 2014). Weess (2010) claims it is safe to say that the approaches employed in many directors in campus recreation programs align with an

outdated concept of leadership and must study and apply the most recent developments in leadership to advance their programs.

Creating a highly committed work force eager and willing to take on challenges is a goal of campus recreation directors (London, 2000). London (2000) further states the task of the campus recreation director is to establish a vision that addresses the needs and values of the followers, while also developing a positive change in the organization. If campus recreation professionals continue to treat their subordinates as individuals, and not merely cogs in the wheel, this transformational leadership may rub off on the followers (London, 2000). DeMichele (1998) states if Directors determine what factors motivate their personnel, they will be in a better position to create a climate designed to promote greater job satisfaction.

Research conducted by Stier et al. (2010) suggest that employees working within a campus recreation department are generally highly satisfied; however, the higher an individual's job title equates to a higher level of satisfaction. Stier et al. (2010) demonstrated in their study of Campus Recreation professionals that less experienced employees revealed less job satisfaction than more experienced employees. They must recognize the influence they can have on the organizational climate and the job satisfaction levels of program coordinators in their organization (DeMichele, 1998).

#### **Job Satisfaction**

According to Spector (1997), job satisfaction is the most studied variable in organizational research. Job satisfaction is defined as the positive feelings and attitudes employees have towards their jobs (Armstrong, 2003). Job satisfaction is an

indicator of the treatment one receives in their role and their emotional and physiological well-being (Spector, 1997). Luthans (2008) defines employee satisfaction as employees' perceptions of how well their jobs provide the things they view as being important in their lives.

The reason employee satisfaction is critical in organization is because it has an influence on the employee and organization's performance (Leimbach, 2006). The relationship between job satisfaction and performance has been researched in a variety of settings. Job satisfaction is directly linked to absenteeism and staff turnover, and it has a profound impact on the productivity and the effectiveness of the services of an organization (Tsounis & Sarafis, 2018). Many studies have found that a positive relationship existed between job satisfaction and performance (Pushpakumari, 2008). The level of individual job satisfaction may affect their physical and mental health, the working environment and efficiency with social and economic development (Ayden et al., 2013). A study by Pushpakumari (2008), demonstrated a significant impact of job satisfaction on performance and showed that employees with higher job satisfaction have less turnover.

The majority of people spend between one and two-thirds of their time awake in the workplace, it has a major impact on employee psychological wellbeing at home, affecting many aspects of his/her everyday life (Tsounis & Sarafis, 2018). The well-being aspect of job satisfaction is linked to Maslow's (1943) hierarchy or needs, physiological, safety, love, 'esteem, and self-actualization. Maslow (1943) claimed that people are motivated by the desire to achieve or maintain the various conditions upon which these basic satisfactions rest. Herzberg et al. (1959) argued that there are

separate sets of factors that cause either job satisfaction or job dissatisfaction. Herzberg et al. (1959) identified motivational aspects that increase job satisfaction including the opportunity to advance, recognition for work accomplishments, and the job content itself. However, hygiene factors decreased job satisfaction such as interpersonal relationships, salary, organizational policy, supervision, and working conditions (Herzberg et al., 1959). Rad and Yarmohammadian (2006) expanded the factors that influence employee job satisfaction including: salaries, fringe benefits, achievement, autonomy, recognition, communication, working conditions, job importance, co-workers, degree of professionalism, organizational climate, interpersonal relationships, working for a reputable agency, supervisory support, job security, workplace flexibility, working within a team environment and genetic factors.

According to Seashore & Tabor (1975), the internal organization environment influences employee job satisfaction, which includes organizational climate, leadership types and personnel relationships. Clarity, work environment, and employees' evaluation of managers are three elements that play a real role in creating job satisfaction (Stier et al., 2010). High morale and job satisfaction among employees is a definite result of leadership approaches and styles (Shamir, 2011).

Voon et al. (2011) show low job satisfaction is highly related to employee turnover. Rad and Yarmohammadian (2006) and Stier et al. (2010) claim low job satisfaction is associated with working with tensions within role expectations, role ambiguity, role conflict, feelings of overload, co-worker relationships, and organizational factors such as lack of participation in policy making decisions.

# **Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire**

According to Bass and Riggio (2006), the most widely accepted instrument to measure transformational leadership is the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), which assesses the full range of leadership behaviors (transformational to transactional to passive-avoidant). Research on transformational leadership, including the use of the MLQ, has taken place in every continent and in nearly every industrialized nation (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Since its creation (Bass, 1985), the MLQ has appeared in over 6,000 publications. The MLQ is administered to the subordinates of a leader who rate how frequently the leader uses each type of behavior (Yukl, 1999). A sample of the MLQ questions and the leader behavior associated with the question is listed (Table 2.3) below.

There is substantial evidence that transformational leadership, particularly as measured by the MLQ, correlates significantly with measures of leadership effectiveness (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Antonakis (2001) states there is evidence transformational constructs and contingent reward are positive predictors of effectiveness, and the passive constructs are negative predictors.

According to Bass & Riggio (2006), there are two forms of the MLQ, the leader form and the rater form. The leader form has the leader rate the frequency of their own leader behavior. Bass & Riggio (2006) state that research has shown that self-ratings of one's own leader behavior are prone to bias. The MLQ rater form requires associates of leaders (usually supervisees or direct reports) to rate the frequency of their leader's transactional and transformational leadership behavior using 5-point ratings scales, with anchors ranging from 0 = Not at all to 4 = Not

Frequently, if not always (Bass & Riggio, 2006). The leadership style with highest average is selected as the dominant leadership style. The rater form of the MLQ (5x) is the more important form of the two as it is more objective and accurately reflects a leader's true behavior, and it is the more used of the two forms (Bass & Riggio, 2006). The current version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (5X) contains 36 standardized items, 4 items assessing each of the nine leadership dimensions associated with the full range leadership model (Bass & Riggio, 2006). All MLQ scales have demonstrated good to excellent internal consistency, with alpha coefficients above the .80 level for all MLQ scales (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Test-retest reliability coefficients for the MLQ correlations are high (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

According to Kasemaa & Suviste (2020), there is a gap in the literature in terms of investigating alternative approaches of transformational leadership and comparing them with the MLQ to understand how they may be related to each other and whether they really measure the same concept of leadership. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire is statistically significantly and better than other transformational leadership models at predicting outcome variables like satisfaction with leader, effectiveness, and extra effort (Kasemaa & Suviste, 2020). Several other leadership instruments assess dimensions related to transformational leadership, although they have not been labeled explicitly as such (Bass & Riggio, 2006). One such measure that is widely used in leadership development programs is Kouzes and Posner's (2002) Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) based upon their Leadership Challenge book. Given the popularity of the Kouzes and Posner model in leadership

development programs, this measure is widely used in practice but more rarely used in published empirical research (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

The MLQ, in its various forms, has been subjected to extensive factor analyses to examine both the model of transformational leadership, the larger full range leadership model (FRLM), as well as the question of whether the MLQ adequately measures these constructs (Bass & Riggio, 2006). The hierarchy of correlations in individual studies that is found in the correlation of the MLQ components with effectiveness is usually charisma-inspiration, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration > contingent reward > active managing-by-exception > passive managing-by-exception > laissez-faire leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006). There is substantial evidence that transformational leadership, particularly as measured by the MLQ, correlates significantly with measures of leadership effectiveness (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

The range of ineffective and effective leadership behaviors in the MLQ is typically much broader than other leadership surveys commonly in use making it more suitable for administration at all levels of organizations and across different types of organizations (Bass & Avolio, 2004). The full-range model, the basis for the MLQ, links each leadership style to expected performance outcome, which has been shown through hundreds of prior studies (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

Table 2.3

Sample Items from the MLQ (5X) (Bass & Riggio, 2006)

Factor	Sample Item	
Idealized influence (Attributed)	My leader instills pride in me for being associated with him or her.	

Idealized influence (Behavior)	My leader specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.	
Inspirational Motivation	My leader articulates a compelling vision of the future.	
Intellectual Stimulation	My leader seeks differing perspectives when solving problems.	
Individualized Consideration	My leader spends time teaching and coaching.	
Contingent Reward	My leader makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved.	
Management-by-exception (Active)	My leader focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, Exceptions, and deviations from standards.	
Management-by-exception (Passive)	My leader shows that he or she is a firm believer in "If It ain't broke, don't fix it."	
Laissez-faire	My leader delays responding to urgent requests.	

# Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)

The job satisfaction survey (JSS) was developed by Paul Spector to fill a need to accurately assess job satisfaction in human services (Spector, 1985). Although the JSS was originally developed for use in human service organizations, it is applicable to a wide range of organization types in both public and private sector (Tsounis & Sarasis, 2018). To date, the JSS remains the only job satisfaction instrument for the human services industry (Li & Huang, 2017). The JSS is the most commonly used instrument used to assess job satisfaction of employees (Spector, 1997).

The JSS assesses nine of the most common facets of job satisfaction: pay, promotion, supervision, benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication as well as assessing overall job satisfaction using 36 total items (Spector, 1985). Each facet of job satisfaction is assessed with four categories, and a total score is computed from all items. To identify the satisfaction level, an average across all 36 items is taken. Reverse coding

is usually utilized in case of negatively worded questions before calculating the average.

Spector's original study (1985) indicated that the JSS had satisfactory reliability, with a reliability score of 0.91 for the whole scale, reliability scores over 0.70 for all but two subscales, and a test-retest (after 18 months) correlation coefficient of 0.71 (Li & Huang, 2017). In a study of 35 common instruments used to measure job satisfaction, only 7 instruments met the research criteria for validity and reliability, and the JSS was one of them (Van Saane, 2003).

#### **Summation**

Leadership is an important predictor and plays a central role in job satisfaction (Rad and Yarmohammadian, 2006). Modern day workers are better-educated and more articulate and no longer need to be commanded and led in the same way as the past (Walumbwa and Lawler, 2003). According to Bass (1990), numerous field studies have shown job satisfaction to be higher when there was psychological closeness between the leader and the led. Bass (1990) also stated that workers felt more satisfied when supervisors understood them and helped them when they had problems. The correlations between having a transformational leader and being satisfied with one's job are substantial (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Research has indicated the right leadership style may improve employee job satisfaction and employee retention as there exists a positive relationship between morale, job satisfaction, and motivation on the type of leadership (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2015) (Yusuf, 2008). Aydin et al. (2013) suggest transactional leadership style positively affects job satisfaction as well, although to a smaller degree than

transformational one. Bass & Riggio (2006) claim the connection between transformational leadership and follower satisfaction is substantial. Building on follower trust and promoting follower self-esteem and self-efficacy create more satisfied followers, generally, and followers who are more satisfied with the quality of their leadership than the followers of non-transformational leaders (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Walumbwa and Lawler (2003) claim no one leadership style is ideal for every situation. This claim supports a leader utilizing a range of styles such as the full-range leadership model depending on the situation and the group.

Although other leadership styles exist, transformational and transactional leadership are the most studied. As the research supports, a leader will use a range of styles depending on the group and the situation. The only model that accounts for all those factors is the full-range leadership model measured by the MLQ (5X) which is also the most used instrument to study leadership. As the review of the literature demonstrated, the MLQ is also the most reliable and valid leadership instrument in which to use when assessing transformational leadership.

As the twin studies referred to in the review of literature demonstrated, nearly a quarter of leadership emergence is based upon heredity or personality traits one is born with and the remaining leadership emergence coming from behaviors learned from experience and the environment. Antonakis (2001) states genetic predisposition plays a role in leadership development, but it is to a large degree a function of life experiences and heavily influenced by upbringing. Leadership capabilities can be enhanced by skills training interventions in adult life (Antonakis, 2001).

Transformational leadership is one of the few leadership styles that incorporates aspects of both traits, skills, and learned leadership behaviors.

#### CHAPTER III

#### **METHODOLOGY**

The purpose of the present study is to examine the impact of Campus Recreation leadership styles of administrators on their employee's job satisfaction. The three leadership styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) that comprise the full-range leadership model were used as independent variables and job satisfaction was used as the dependent variable. The study utilized a quantitative correlation approach and a logistic regression analysis to determine the strength of the relationships between the variables. The study utilized two instruments in the form of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) 5X and the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) to collect data about leadership style of Campus Recreation leaders and job satisfaction of their employees. Each of these instruments uses a Likert-type scale. In addition, the questionnaire included demographic and job-related questions to collect relevant information. An ordinal scale, such as the five-point Likert scale used for the MLQ Rater Form and the six-point Likert scale used for the JSS, provided information about the respondent's experience, and also the order in which they occurred. For example, a lower score on the individual consideration questions

indicated less demonstration of behaviors for that style. To increase the score on a certain scale, the individual would need to do more of the behaviors associated with that scale. The JSS was reversed scored on negatively worded questions.

The population targeted for this study consisted of Campus Recreation professionals, employed full-time by a Campus Recreation department at various institutions throughout the mid-western states of Arkansas, Kansas, Louisiana, Missouri, Nebraska, New Mexico, Oklahoma, and Texas. The researcher used a convenience (nonprobability) sample of volunteer participants for this study. The researcher had access to an e-mail database containing the contact information for all Campus Recreation employees at all institutions with Campus Recreation programs in the states listed in the study. The researcher protected the identities and confidentiality of all research participants by not asking for demographic information such as institution name, specific age, or specific years of experience and rather collected ranges. Confidentiality was maintained throughout by ensuring that any data collected could not be linked back to any participants by name or team leaders. Upon completion of this research study, all information referring to any of the participant was destroyed.

#### **Statement of the Problem**

No studies currently exist examining leadership style and job satisfaction of full-time campus recreation employees, and there are only limited studies related to either leadership or job satisfaction in the Campus Recreation field. The value of this research lies in the lack of research. The review of the literature related to leadership in general, leadership styles, and job satisfaction outlined several important aspects of

leadership styles and how those positively or negatively impact employee job satisfaction. The study utilized Bass and Avolio's (1994) Full Range Leadership model (FRLM) due to the literature outlining the need for a leader to utilize different leader behaviors based upon the group and the situation to determine frequency of leader behaviors or style.

# **Research Design and Methodology**

This study examined the relationship between leadership styles and employee job satisfaction in a Campus Recreation department using the population of the employees in Campus Recreation departments in the mid-west in the states of Arkansas, Kansas, Louisiana, Missouri, Nebraska New Mexico, Oklahoma, and Texas in the United States. In this quantitative survey, the relationship between the independent variable of leadership style and the dependent variable of employee job satisfaction was tested. The study employed a correlation approach and multiple regression analysis to determine the strength of the relationship of the variables. The research questionnaire used to measure the leadership style and frequency of leadership behaviors of the Campus Recreation leader by the full-time employees of the direct supervisor using the rater form of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-5x). The correlation of different leadership styles is accounted for by the MLQ 5X (Bass, 2014). The MLQ 5x (Bass & Avolio, 2004) provided Campus Recreation employees an instrument to report their perceptions of their department heads daily leadership practices. The dependent variable was Campus Recreation full-time employee job satisfaction. The Job Satisfaction Survey (Appendix C) measured the degree of job satisfaction experienced by Campus Recreation employees. The JSS

(Spector, 1994) reported the results of measured job satisfaction variables provided by Campus Recreation within their departments. All instruments in this study were administered via Qualtrics.

Both instruments, MLQ 5x (Bass & Avolio, 2004), and JSS (Spector, 1985), were chosen because they have demonstrated satisfactory validity and reliability. Reliability refers to the consistency in which a measuring instrument measures what it is intending to measure (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2009). Validity is concerned with what a measure is supposed to measure and how well it does so (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2009).

The MLQ 5X is a 45-item instrument that considers nine leadership behaviors and three outcomes of leadership behaviors for 12 subscales. The MLQ 5x contains 12 subscales. Determination of the scores of each leadership style required the average of the subscales across each leadership style. Each of these subscales in the MLQ 5X consisted of four questions. The average score for the four questions of each subscale is the score for that subscale on the model. The following subscales to measure transformational leadership: (a) idealized attributes, (b) idealized behaviors, (c) inspirational motivation, (d) intellectual stimulation, and (e) individualized consideration (Bass & Avolio, 2004). The transactional leadership score was determined by averaging the scores of the following MLQ 5x subscales: (a) contingent rewards, and (b) management by exception (active). The average across the two items equated to the score for transactional leadership. The final management style considered was passive-avoidant style as measured by the (a) management by exception (passive), and (b) laissez-faire subscales. For each respondent, these scores determined an average score for transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant

leadership styles. A higher score indicated the style used most frequently. The most frequently used style score is how the leader was labeled with a specific leadership style. The Cronbach alpha produced alpha = 0.86 for the original MLQ 5x (Bass & Avolio, 2004). The 45-item MLQ 5x questionnaire is rated on a 5-point Likert scale where 0 = not at all, 1 = once in a while 2 = sometimes, 3 = fairly often, and 4 = frequently if not always (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

The constructs detail the MLQ related questions for transformational leadership:

- 1. Idealized influence (attributed): MLQ Questions 10, 18, 21, 25, represents transformational leadership.
- 2. Idealized influence (behavior): MLQ Questions 6, 14, 23, 34, represents transformational leadership.
- 3. Individualized consideration: MLQ Questions 15, 19, 29, 31, represents transformational leadership.
- 4. Intellectual stimulation: MLQ Questions 2, 8, 30, 32, represent transformational leadership.
- 5. Inspirational motivation: MLQ Questions 9, 13, 26, 36, represent transformational leadership.

The Job Satisfaction Survey (Spector, 1985) is an instrument with a validity coefficient of 0.61 to 0.80 for each of the subdomains of the questionnaire (Spector, 1985). The JSS (Spector, 1985) consists of 36 items with six choices for each item that with four other possible responses between those extremes (1: Disagree very much; 2: Disagree moderately; 3: Disagree slightly; 4: Agree slightly; 5: Agree

moderately; and 6: Agree strongly. The minimum Total Job Satisfaction score that can be received is 36, and the maximum score is 216. Questions 1, 10, 19, and 28 of the JSS represented pay. Questions 2, 11, 20, and 33 represented promotion. Questions 12, 21, and 30 represented supervision. Questions 4, 13, 22, and 29 represented fringe benefits. Questions 5, 14, 23, and 32 represented contingent rewards. Questions 6, 15, 24, and 31 represented operating procedures. Questions 7, 16, 25, and 34 represented feelings about coworkers. Questions 8, 17, 27, and 35 represented nature of work. Questions 9, 18, 26, and 36 represented organizational communication. Total satisfaction was a sum of questions 1-36. Negatively worded questions were reverse scored which were the following: 2, 4, 5, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 19, 21, 23, 24, 26, 29, 31, 32, 34, and 36. Spector (1997) outlined ranges to interpret the overall job satisfaction from the total score as follows: 36-108 indicating dissatisfaction, 109-144 indicating ambivalence, and 145-216 indicating satisfaction.

Demographic questions were added to the questionnaire to collect information related to years of experience, age, years working in current position and for current supervisor, and position title. Collected data was loaded into SPSS (version 28) for analysis. Correlational research design was suitable for this study because it identified the extent of the relationship between variables using statistical data (Babbie, 2010). A correlation coefficient measures the extent to which two variables change in conjunction with one another, strength and direction.

The study design is quantitative survey methodology rather than qualitative in order to test specific hypotheses. The research questions in this study inquired about the relationship between Campus Recreation leaders' leadership style and the job

satisfaction of full-time employees within their departments. The study examined the significance of transformational, transactional leadership and non-leadership styles in the job satisfaction of Campus Recreation employees and their intent to remain in their departments and in the field of Campus Recreation.

Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 28 was used for data analysis. Spearman's rank correlation, a nonparametric statistic, was used to examine the bivariate relationship between the leadership style scores of Campus Recreation leaders (three predictor variables) and job satisfaction (criterion variable) of their full-time employees. Nonparametric tests are useful with smaller sample sizes (Agresti & Finlay, 2014). Non-parametric statistics require only a few assumptions and are considered easier to apply than parametric methods that must meet several assumptions. The Spearman rank correlation test does not carry any assumptions about the distribution of the data and is the appropriate because the three predictor and criterion variables represented ordinal data.

Multiple linear regression was conducted to test the relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction. Multiple linear regression is used to predict the outcome of a variable based on the value of two or more independent variables. The goals of multiple regression are primarily predictive with little to no emphasis given to understanding or explaining underlying relations between the variables (Venter & Maxwell, 2000). Multiple regression research measures the variability in the dependent variable accounted for by the independent variable (Venter & Maxwell, 2000). The frequencies, percentage, mean, and standard deviation were computed for the items, styles, and total of the scales; they were also used to describe the

demographic factors. The use of the regression analysis requires that certain assumptions be satisfied (Flatt & Jacobs, 2019).

Assumptions of regression analysis include the following:

- 1. Data scores in the sample represent a random sample from the population under study.
- 2. The distribution of means of the sample represents a normal distribution.
- 3. The variances of the different groups studied are very similar.
- 4. The relationship between dependent and independent variables are linear.

## **Population**

The population of the study consisted of Campus Recreation professionals, employed full-time by a Campus Recreation department at various institutions in the United States of America in the following states: Arkansas, Kansas, Louisiana, Missouri, Nebraska, New Mexico, Oklahoma, and Texas. Campus Recreation departments exist at many collegiate campuses providing recreation and wellness services to students, faculty, staff, and at some institutions the community. The inclusion criteria for the participants were: (a) full-time employees working in a position within a campus recreation department at the position of Coordinator or above, (b) having at least one-year of experience in their current position, and (c) working under the direct or indirect supervision of a Campus Recreation leader for at least one-year. These criteria were used to ensure that participating employees were under the leadership of their current Campus Recreation leader for a minimum of one year for an appropriate level of exposure to the leadership of the leader. The target population for this study consisted of professionals located in Arkansas, Kansas,

Louisiana, Missouri, Nebraska, New Mexico, Oklahoma, and Texas with approximately 1,600 Campus Recreation full-time professionals. The contact information for each potential respondent was located on each institution's website. A spreadsheet with the name, position, and email address was compiled for all members of the target population. A sample of 215 participants were randomly selected to participate using a random table of numbers. Participants responded to an online questionnaire and surveys using Qualtrics that examined the leadership style of the Campus Recreation leaders.

A power analysis was conducted to determine the sample size needed for this study. Power of a hypothesis test is the probability that the test will correctly accept the alternative hypothesis. A standard value for power is 0.8 or 80% meaning there is a 20% chance of a Type II error occurring. A higher power value is a positive outcome (Faul et al., 2013). As the sample size increases, the statistical power increases as well since the closer the sample size is to the actual population size the more likely the observed or extracted measures will reflect the actual population parameters (Nolan & Heinzen, 2012). Power analysis using G\* Power (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2013) indicated that for study with a Power of 0.80. The researcher required a minimum of 67 participants out of the eligible sample population. The effect size calculated for this study was a medium effect size of 0.3.

After receiving IRB approval on December 5, 2022 (Appendix B), the researcher recruited eligible participants using an online invitation via email (Appendix E) and an informed consent letter to signify willingness to participate in the study. Participation in the study was voluntary. Participants could withdraw at any

stage of the study. To protect the participant's privacy, the questionnaire did not contain names, addresses, employer's name or address, or e-mail addresses. The email invitation to participate contained a link to the online questionnaire. The researcher used codes from completed questionnaires to record data and to protect the confidentiality of the participants, and the questionnaire itself did not record institution names, gender, specific age, or any other criteria that would allow respondents to be identified. The responses were confidential as the researcher was the only person with access to the survey results. After a four-week data collection window, the study data were exported from Qualtrics into Microsoft Excel and from there into SPSS for analysis. The results of the both instruments MLQ 5x and JSS were manually scored by the researcher and inputted into Microsoft Excel and then SPSS for analysis.

#### **CHAPTER IV**

#### **FINDINGS**

The purpose of this study was to examine the impact of leadership style on the job satisfaction of full-time Campus Recreation professionals. The findings from this study will provide insights into leadership practices within Campus Recreation, which has the potential to improve employee job satisfaction, which may help reduce employee turnover and increase retention of staff.

#### **Response Rate**

An electronic invitation to participate was sent to target population Campus Recreation professionals from the states of Arkansas, Kansas, Louisiana, Missouri, Nebraska, New Mexico, Oklahoma, and Texas. After IRB approval, the researcher randomly invited 215 prospective participants within the target population via email to participate. After accepting the invitation, 68 individuals met the criteria for and completed the survey completing the sample. This study of Campus Recreation professionals' leadership styles impact on job satisfaction a response rate of 31.6%. All participants completed the entire questionnaire. A G\*Power analysis calculated a

sample size of 67 to properly support the statistical test. From the target population, 68 responses were obtained to meet the required sample size for the test.

# **Demographics**

Participants under the first section of the questionnaire were asked four demographic questions designed to obtain a more comprehensive picture of the study population, which are listed below.

Which category below includes your age?

- 18-29
- 30-39
- 40-49
- 50+

What level does your current position fall in your organizational?

- Coordinator/Entry-Level
- Assistant Director/Mid-Level Manager
- Associate Director/Upper-Level Manager
- Director/Executive-Department Head

What is your educational level?

- No College Degree or Associates Degree
- Bachelor's Degree
- Master's Degree
- Doctorate Degree

What is the number of years reporting to your current direct supervisor?

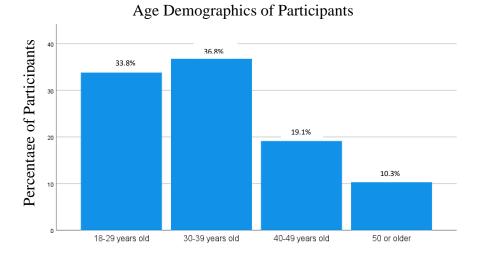
- 1-2 years
- 3-5 years
- Over 5 years

Frequency tables (Figure 4.1 and Tables 4.1, 4.2, 4.3) show the overall trend of the respondent data. Of the sample, 23 (33.8%) participants reported being 18-29 years old, 25 (36.8%) reported being 30-39 years old, 13 (19.1%) reported being 40-

49 years old, and 7 (10.3%) reported being 50 or older. Only one (1.5%) respondent reported having earned a Doctoral degree, while 64 (94.1%) received a Master's degree, 2 (2.9%) reported a Bachelor's degree only, and one (1.5%) reported having no degree or an Associate's degree. Seventeen (25%) participants reported a position of Coordinator/entry-level; 29 (42.6%) Assistant Director/mid-level professional; 14 (20.6%) Associate Director/upper-level administrator; and 8 (11.8%) as Director/department head. Of the sample, twenty-nine (42.6%) reported having one-to-two years under their current supervisor; 20 (29.4%) with three-five years, and 19 (27.9%) with over five years reporting to their current supervisor.

Figure 4.1

Age Demographics of Participants (N = 68)



Age Range of Participants

Note: Participants answered according to the following age ranges: 18-29, 30-39, 40-49, and 50+.

Table 4.1  $Education \ Level \ Demographics \ of \ Participants \ (N=68)$ 

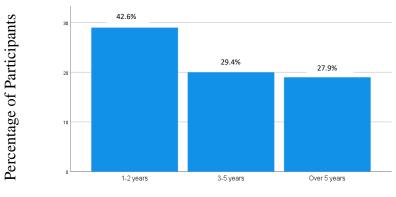
<b>Education Level</b>	Frequency	Percent
No degree or Associates degree	1	1.5%
Bachelor's degree	2	2.9%
Master's degree	64	94.1%
Doctorate degree	1	1.5%

Table 4.2  $Organizational\ Position\ Level\ Demographics\ of\ Participants\ (N=68)$ 

Org Position/Level	Frequency	Percent
Coordinator/entry level	17	25%
Assistant director/mid-level	29	42.6%
Associate director/upper-level	14	20.6%
Director/executive-department head	8	11.8%

Figure 4.2 Years Reporting to Current Supervisor Demographics of Participants (N=68)

Frequency of Participants Years Reporting to Current Supervisor



Years Under Supervision

Note: Participants answered the question, "What is the number of years reporting to your current direct supervisor?" The following ranges were used: 1-2 years, 3-5 years, and over 5 years.

The mean and median described the central tendency, while the standard deviation described the variability of the three primary variables of full-range leadership model including the spectrum of styles transformational, transactional, and passive/avoidant leadership and the nine facets of employee job satisfaction found in the Job Satisfaction Survey. The 45-item MLQ 5x was administered as part of the study to evaluate the frequency of leadership or non-leadership behaviors of the respondent's current supervisor. The descriptive statistics of frequency and percent of total sample of job satisfaction level is displayed below (Table 4.3). The descriptive statistics of mean and standard deviations of the leadership styles and subscales were calculated and displayed in a matrix (Table 4.4). The descriptive statistics of mean and standard deviations of job satisfaction total score and subscales of the JSS were calculated and displayed in a matrix (Table 4.5). The results highlighted below (Table 4.6) transformational leadership rated as the highest perceived style (M = 2.5,

SD=.876) by score, followed by transactional leadership (M = 2.17, SD = .548), and Passive/Avoidant style (M = 1.34, SD = .649). The overall job satisfaction for this sample (M = 133.5, SD = 25.39) indicates the average of respondents are ambivalent about their overall job satisfaction, expressing neither satisfaction nor dissatisfaction.

Table 4.3

Job Satisfaction Level of Participants (N = 68)

Job Satisfaction Level	Frequency	Percent
Dissatisfied	14	20.6%
Ambivalent	29	42.6%
Satisfied	25	36.8%

Table 4.4

Leadership Style Descriptive Statistics (N = 68)

Scale	Min	Max	M	SD
Transformational leadership	.50	3.80	2.5	.876
Idealized influence (attributed)	.75	4.00	2.64	.913
Idealized influence (behavior)	.00	4.00	2.5	1.05
Inspirational motivation	.50	4.00	2.5	.934
Intellectual stimulation	.00	4.00	2.29	.931
Individualized consideration	.75	4.00	2.48	.947
Transactional leadership	1.25	3.50	2.17	.548
Contingent reward	.25	4.00	2.42	.855
Management-by-exception (active)	.25	4.00	1.91	.809
Passive/Avoidant style	.25	2.75	1.34	.649
Management-by-exception (passive)	.25	3.75	1.63	.698

*Laissez-faire* .00 2.75 1.05 .784

Note: The 45-item MLQ 5x questionnaire is rated on a 5-point Likert scale where 0 = not at all, 1 = once in a while 2 = sometimes, 3 = fairly often, and 4 = frequently if not always (Bass & Avolio, 2004)

Table 4.5

Job Satisfaction Subscale Descriptive Statistics (N = 68)

Scale	Min	Max	M	SD
Pay	1.00	5.50	2.85	1.27
Promotion	1.00	4.25	2.51	.889
Supervision	1.50	6.00	4.56	1.28
Benefits	1.25	6.00	3.85	.974
Rewards	1.00	6.00	3.37	1.17
Procedures	1.75	5.25	3.48	.879
Coworkers	2.25	6.00	4.46	.845
Nature of Work	1.00	6.00	4.53	1.06
Communication	1.25	6.00	3.87	1.19
Job satisfaction score	82	190	133.53	25.39

Note: The 36-item JSS is rated on a 6-point Likert scale where 1 = disagree very much, 2 = disagree moderately, 3 = disagree slightly, 4 = agree slightly, 5 = agree moderately, and 6 = agree very much (Spector, 1985).

The 36-item Job Satisfaction Survey was also used as part of the study to determine the total job satisfaction score of respondents. Of the sample, 14 (20.6%) scored as dissatisfied, 29 (42.6%) scored as ambivalent, and 25 (36.8%) scored as satisfied (Table 2.3).

## **Research Question**

What is the relationship between campus recreation leader's leadership style and full-time employee job satisfaction? The specific questions, null and alternative hypotheses were as follows:

Specific Question 1: What is the relationship between Campus Recreation leader's transformational leadership style score and full-time employee job satisfaction?

- H<sub>10</sub>: There is no relationship between Campus Recreation leader's transformational leadership style score and full-employee job satisfaction.
- H1<sub>a</sub>: There is a relationship between Campus Recreation leader's transformational leadership style score and full-time employee job satisfaction.

Specific Question 2: What is the relationship between Campus Recreation leader's transactional leadership style score and full-time employee job satisfaction?

- H2<sub>0</sub>: There is no relationship between Campus Recreation leader's transactional leadership style score and full-time employee job satisfaction.
- H2<sub>a</sub>: There is a significant relationship between Campus Recreation leader's transactional leadership style score and full-time employee job satisfaction.

Specific Question 3: What is the relationship between Campus Recreation leader's passive-avoidant leadership style score and full-time employee job satisfaction?

- H3<sub>0</sub>: There is no relationship between Campus Recreation leader's passive-avoidant leadership style score and full-time employee job satisfaction.
- H3<sub>a</sub>: There is a negative relationship between Campus Recreation leader's passive-avoidant leadership style score and employee job satisfaction.

## **Testing the Research Questions**

To test the research hypothesis, a Spearman rank correlation was conducted to examine the strength and direction of the relationship between the variables of total

job satisfaction score and transformational leadership score, and multiple regression analysis to test if transactional leadership style significantly predicted Campus Recreation professional's job satisfaction. The determination to use this nonparametric test was made based on the violation of normality noted for both of these variables based on the results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests of normality. To ensure that there was no multicollinearity present in the model, the Spearman rho coefficient was calculated to examine the relationship between the predictors of transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and passive/avoidant style (Table 4.6). A weak relationship is represented by a correlational coefficient that falls between  $r_s = .10$  to .29 or  $r_s = -.10$  to -.29; a medium relationship is between  $r_s = .30$  to .49 or  $r_s = -.30$  to -.49; and a strong relationship will have a correlational coefficient between  $r_s = .50$  to 1.0 or  $r_s = -.50$  to -1.0.

### Results

The results of the Spearman Rank Correlation are listed in Table 4.6. There was a statistically significant positive strong correlation between the dependent variable job satisfaction and transformational leadership ( $r_s = .539$ , p<.001). The strength and direction of the relationship indicated that increases in the scores of transformational leadership style were associated with increases in scores of job satisfaction, and conversely, lower transformational leadership scores were associated with lower job satisfaction scores. There was a significant indirect weak correlation between the dependent variable job satisfaction and the independent variables of transactional leadership ( $r_s = -.251$ , p<.05) and indirect medium correlation with passive-avoidant style ( $r_s = -.408$ , p<.001). The strength and direction of the relationship indicated that increases

in the scores of transactional or passive-avoidant leadership style were associated with decreases in scores of job satisfaction, and conversely, lower transactional or passive-avoidant style leadership scores were associated with higher job satisfaction scores. There was a statistically significant positive strong correlation between transformational leadership and transactional leadership ( $r_s = .578, p < .001$ ).

Table 4.6

Spearman Rank Coefficients for Leadership Styles & Job Satisfaction (N = 68)

Variable	1	2	3	4
1. Total Job Satisfaction	1	.539**	.251*	408**
2. Transformational leadership	.539**	1	.578**	676**
3. Transactional leadership	.251*	.578**	1	280*
4. Passive/Avoidant style	408**	676**	280*	1

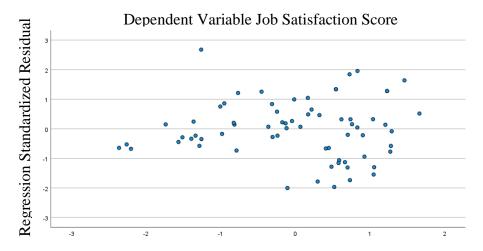
Note: \*p<.05 \*\*p<.01

The strength and direction of the relationship indicated that increases in the scores of transformational leadership style were associated with increases in scores of transactional leadership, and conversely, lower transformational leadership scores were associated with lower transactional leadership scores. According to Bass & Avolio (2004), both transactional and transformational leadership represents active, positive forms of leadership explaining their strong relationship to each other. There was a statistically significant indirect weak correlation between the transactional leadership with passive/avoidant style ( $r_s = -.280$ , p < .05). The strength and direction of the relationship indicated that increases in the scores of transactional leadership style were associated with decreases in scores of passive-avoidant style, and conversely, lower transactional leadership scores were associated with higher passive-

avoidant style scores. There was a statistically significant indirect strong correlation between the independent variables of transformational leadership and passive/avoidant style ( $r_s = -.676$ , p < .001). The strength and direction of the relationship indicated that increases in the scores of transformational leadership style were associated with decreases in scores of passive-avoidant style, and conversely, lower transformational leadership scores were associated with higher passiveavoidant style scores. The strong correlation coefficient for transformational leadership and passive-avoidant style ( $r_s = -.676$ ) suggested that the assumption of multicollinearity may be violated due to the moderate significant correlation between transformational leadership and passive/avoidant style. However, the variance inflation factor (VIF) scores for all three predictors were less than 5 meaning all three may be included in the model (transformational VIF = 2.78, transactional VIF = 1.44, and passive/avoidant VIF = 2.16) without threatening the integrity of the model. A Durbin-Watson statistic was calculated to assess the assumption that the values of the residuals are independent, which suggested that this assumption was not violated (1.85). A scatterplot of the regression residual against the predicted value to assess the assumption that the variance of the residuals was constant (homoscedasticity) (Figure 4.1). Homoscedasticity refers to the extent to which the variance is consistent for all values of each of the study variables. The plot reveals points that are scattered randomly about the centerline, indicating the assumptions of linearity and equal variances were met.

Figure 4.3

Scatterplot of the regression residual against the predicted value (homoscedasticity)

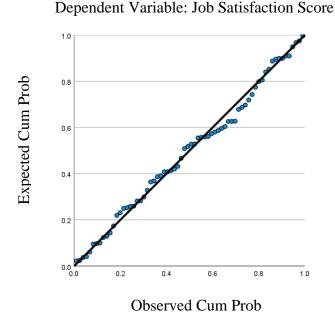


Regression Standardized Predicted Value

A P-P plot of standardized residuals (Figure 4.4) was created to assess the assumption that the values of the residuals are normally distributed. The plot did not indicate a violation of this assumption (Figure 4.4).

Figure 4.4

P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residuals



Cook's Distance values were calculated to ensure that no influential cases were biasing the model. All values were below 1, suggesting that no cases were biasing the model. Thus, it can be concluded that the assumptions for regression had been satisfied.

The regression model (Tables 4.7, 4.8, 4.9) used included transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and passive/avoidant style as predictors of job satisfaction. The results of the regression indicated the leadership styles of the full-range leadership model explained 41.6% of the variance in job satisfaction ( $R^2 = .416$ , F(3,64) = 15.21, p<.001).

Table 4.7

Multiple Regression Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	<b>Durbin-Watson</b>
1	.645	.416	.389	19.853	1.850

Note: Predictors: (Constant), Passive/Avoidant, Transactional, Transformational: Dependent Variable: Satisfaction Score

Table 4.8

Test of Between Subjects

Me Sig	odel g.	Sum of Squares		df	Mean Square	F
1	Regression	17978.986	3	5992.99	5 15.21	<.001b
	Residual	25223.955	64	394.124		
	Total	43202.941	67			

Note: Dependent Variable: Satisfaction Score: Predictors: (Constant), Passive-Avoidant, Transactional, Transformational

Evaluating the unique contributions of each leadership style, the results (Table 4.9) show that transformational leadership ( $\beta$  = .74, t = 4.61, p <.001) significantly predicted job satisfaction. However, transactional leadership ( $\beta$ =-.13, t=-1.14, p = .260) and passive/avoidant style ( $\beta$ = .05, t = .33, p = .740) did not significantly predict job satisfaction. According to the regression test, for every 1.0 unit increase in transformational leadership score, job satisfaction score will increase by 21.30 units. Transformational leadership style was found to be the highest predictor of job satisfaction (p <.001). Transactional leadership (p = .260) and passive/avoidant style (p = .740) were not significant predictors of job satisfaction.

The dependent variable of total job satisfaction had a statistically significant strong positive correlation with the independent variable of transformational

leadership ( $r_s = .539$ , p < .001). The strength and direction of the relationship indicated that increases in the scores of transformational leadership style were associated with significant increases in scores of job satisfaction.

The results of the regression analysis (Table 4.7, 4.8, 4.9) suggested that there was a statistically significantly positive relationship between job satisfaction and transformational leadership style and that transformational leadership is a significant predictor of job satisfaction (F(3, 66) = 15.21, p< 0.001). As the p-value was less than 0.05, the null hypothesis (H1<sub>0</sub>) was rejected.

Table 4.9

Coefficients

Model		В	SE	β	t	p
1	(Constant)	90.92	16.31		5.57	<.001
	Transformational	21.29	4.62	.74	4.61	<.001
	Transactional	-6.03	5.31	13	-1.14	.260
	Passive/Avoidant	1.83	5.49	.05	.33	.740

Note: Dependent variable: Satisfaction Score

The results of the Spearman rank correlation (Table 4.6) suggested that there was a statistically significantly positive relationship between job satisfaction and transactional leadership style ( $r_s = .251$ , p<.05). However, the results of the multiple regression analysis suggested that transactional leadership is not a significant predictor of job satisfaction ( $\beta = -.13$ , t = -1.14, p = .260). As the p-value was less than 0.05 in the correlation, the nulled hypothesis (H2<sub>0</sub>) was rejected. A conclusion

can be made that there is a weak relationship between transactional leadership style and job satisfaction.

The dependent variable of total job satisfaction had a statistically significant medium negative correlation with the independent variable of passive-avoidant style ( $r_s = -.408$ , p < .001). The strength and direction of the relationship indicated that increases in the scores of passive-avoidant style were associated with decreases in scores of job satisfaction. However, the results of the regression analysis (Table 4.8) suggested that there passive-avoidant style is not a significant predictor of job satisfaction (F(3, 66) = 15.21, p = 0.740). As the p-value was less than .001, the null hypothesis (H3<sub>0</sub>) was rejected as there is a relationship between increases in passive-avoidant style and decreases in job satisfaction. However, the degree of change may not be linear or may be affected in the model by other variables such as transformational leadership, which displayed a strong correlation with passive-avoidant style. Chapter 5 presents and interprets the statistical data results from chapter 4, and includes discussions of the findings, the implications, recommendations and suggestions for the future.

### CHAPTER V

## **DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS**

This chapter presents a discussion of the results of the study as well as includes a summary of the study. Limitations for the study are identified and recommendations for future research are presented. This study was designed to examine the perceived effects of leadership style on the job satisfaction of full-time Campus Recreation professionals. The research question that directed the study was: "What is the relationship between campus recreation leader's leadership style and full-time employee job satisfaction?"

## **Discussion of Specific Question 1**

Specific Question 1: What is the relationship between Campus Recreation leader's transformational leadership style score and full-time employee job satisfaction?

The null hypothesis for specific question 1 stated there is no relationship between Campus Recreation leader's transformational leadership style score and full-employee job satisfaction. The alternate hypothesis for specific question 1 stated there is a relationship between Campus Recreation leader's transformational leadership style score and full-time employee job satisfaction.

In response to specific question 1: "What is the relationship between Campus Recreation leader's transformational leadership style score and full-time employee job satisfaction?" The results of the Spearman rank correlation ( $r_s$ =.636, p<.001), and multiple regression analysis transformational leadership ( $\beta$ =.74, t= 4.61, p<.001) contributed significantly to the model. The data suggested a statistically significant, strong, and positive relationship exists between Campus Recreation leader's transformational leadership style and job satisfaction of full-time employees and the null hypothesis of no relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction was rejected. Theoretically, the data implied that transformational leadership may contribute significantly to Campus Recreation professional's job satisfaction. The research findings support the claims of Bass and Riggio (2006) that the correlations between having a transformational leader and being satisfied with one's job are substantial.

## **Discussion of Specific Question 2**

Specific Question 2: What is the relationship between Campus Recreation leader's transactional leadership style score and full-time employee job satisfaction?

The null hypothesis for specific question 2 stated there is no relationship between Campus Recreation leader's transactional leadership style score and full-time employee job satisfaction. The alternate hypothesis for specific question 2 stated there is a significant relationship between Campus Recreation leader's transactional leadership style score and full-time employee job satisfaction.

In response to specific question 2: "What is the relationship between a leader's transactional leadership style score and full-time Campus Recreation employee job

satisfaction?" The results of the Spearman rank correlation ( $r_s$  = .251, p < .05), and multiple regression analysis (F(3, 64) = 15.21, p = .260) suggested there is strong statistical correlation between Campus Recreation leader's transactional leadership style and job satisfaction of full-time employees. and the null hypothesis of no relationship between transactional leadership and job satisfaction was rejected. However, transactional leadership in the regression analysis proved not to be a significant predictor of job satisfaction. Theoretically, the data implied that transactional leadership may contribute positively to Campus Recreation professionals' job satisfaction. The findings support the claim of Amin et al. (2013) that transactional leadership may positively impact employee job satisfaction. However, Amin et al. (2013) also states the positive impact that transactional leadership has on job satisfaction is a weak one which the research findings also support.

## **Discussion of Specific Question 3**

Specific Question 3: What is the relationship between Campus Recreation leader's passive-avoidant leadership style score and full-time employee job satisfaction?

The null hypothesis for specific question 3 stated there is no relationship between Campus Recreation leader's passive-avoidant leadership style score and full-time employee job satisfaction. The alternate hypothesis for specific question 3 stated there is a negative relationship between Campus Recreation leader's passive-avoidant leadership style score and employee job satisfaction.

In response to specific question 2: "What is the relationship between a leader's passive-avoidant style score and full-time Campus Recreation employee job satisfaction?" The results of the Spearman rank correlation ( $r_s$  = -.411, p <.001), and multiple regression analysis (F(3, 64) = 15.21, p = .740) suggested a statistically significant correlation and negative relationship between Campus Recreation leader's passive-avoidant leadership style and job satisfaction of full-time employees. The null hypothesis of no relationship between passive-avoidant leadership and job satisfaction was rejected. Theoretically, the data implied that passive-avoidant leadership may negatively contribute significantly to Campus Recreation professional's job satisfaction and those non-leadership behaviors should be avoided by leaders.

#### Limitations

There are several important limitations that should be considered when interpreting the results of this study. The respondents in this study rated their supervisor's leadership behaviors based upon their own experiences which may be prone to bias. The sample was taken from a cross-section of states rather than a larger sampling of states. The survey was sent in early December which may have affected the response rate due to several professionals being out of the office for holiday vacations. The survey criteria may have been a limiting factor. It was not possible to screen invitations to ensure all of those who were sent the invitation to participate met the criteria. The study also only evaluated leadership behaviors outlined in the Full Range Leadership Model rather than other leadership models that are available as well as other instruments measuring job satisfaction.

#### **Conclusions and Recommendations**

The objective of this study was to examine whether there was a relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction in Campus Recreation professionals. The descriptive MLQ findings, the leadership style that scored the highest in order of frequency was transformational leadership (M = 2.5), transactional leadership (M = 2.5) 2.17), and passive-avoidant (M = 1.34). The findings support the claims of Bass & Riggio (2006) transformational leaders have more satisfied followers than nontransformational leaders. The most frequently used leadership behavior identified by the MLQ was idealized influence (attributed) (M = 2.64, SD = .913) and the least used behavior being laissez-faire (M = 1.05, SD = .784). The results of the Spearman rank correlation showed that there was a significant correlation between all the leadership styles and overall job satisfaction. There was a statistically significant relationship between all three leadership styles and job satisfaction. These findings support the claim by Yousef (2002) that indicated leaders' behavior is positively correlated to job satisfaction. Conversely, the non-leadership behaviors of passiveavoidant style were negatively related to job satisfaction.

The multiple regression model which included all three styles of the full-range leadership model tested by the MLQ 5x demonstrated that leadership style does have a positive significant relationship with job satisfaction ( $R^2 = .416$ , F(3, 64) = 15.21, p<.001). The results of the regression analysis support the claim of Rad and Yarmohammadian (2006) that leadership is an important predictor in job satisfaction of employees. Leadership style explained 41.6% of the variance in job satisfaction in the model used in this study which was statistically significant ( $R^2 = .416$ , F(3, 64) = .416).

15.21, p<.001). However, only transformational leadership within the model was a significant predictor of job satisfaction ( $\beta$  = .74, t=4.61, p<.001). Passive-avoidant was significantly negatively correlated with job satisfaction ( $r_s$  = -411, p<.001). It is recommended that Campus Recreation leaders utilize transformational leadership behaviors more than transactional behavior, and passive-avoidant leadership behaviors should be avoided to positively affect job satisfaction of those that they lead.

The job satisfaction scores (M = 133.53, SD = 25.39) do not support the claim of Stier et al. (2010) which claims employees working within a campus recreation department are generally highly satisfied. Over 42% of the total respondents were scored as ambivalent and an overall mean score of 133.53, which is also rated as "ambivalent" on the job satisfaction, survey scoring. Only 36.8% (n = 25) of total respondents (N = 68) were scored as "satisfied" with their current job situation.

## **Implications**

The information presented by this study may help to prepare Campus

Recreation leaders with effective leadership styles that create an environment that

may sustain positive job satisfaction for the people they lead. Pushpakumari (2008)

study demonstrated a significant impact of job satisfaction on performance and

showed that employees with higher job satisfaction have less turnover which has

large implications for the field of Campus Recreation in a post-COVID-19 world

where positions remain unfilled and departments are having to do more with fewer

people. It will inform scholars, policy makers, practitioners, and other stakeholders of

the leadership styles supporting job satisfaction in the Campus Recreation field. This study addressed the gap in the literature by analyzing the effects of perceived leadership style of Campus Recreation leaders with their full-time employee's job satisfaction. The findings from this research study could serve as a reference document to leaders, supervisors, and department heads to improve the Campus Recreation department culture, reduce turnover, and increase retention of staff.

The findings demonstrate that Campus Recreation departments should invest in leadership training programs focusing on behaviors such as the 4 (I's) (Table 2.2) that make up transformational leadership style.

#### **Future Research**

This quantitative research concentrated on the effect of leadership behaviors on employee job satisfaction in the field of Campus Recreation. The research did not consider other organizational outcome variables such as employee engagement and performance on the job. The findings of the regression analysis showed that leadership style contributes to 41.6% of the variance in job satisfaction which is significant ( $R^2 = .416$ , F(3, 64) = 15.21, p<.001). However, 58.4% of the variance in job satisfaction comes from other factors. Factors such as pay and opportunities for promotion were part of the job satisfaction model. However, based upon the descriptive statistics, opportunities for promotions (M = 2.51) and pay (M = 2.85) may be the biggest factors in the satisfaction of employees within this field. Typically, individuals who work in the field of Campus Recreation either must leave their current role and university to move to a higher-level position or apply for the position as part of a national search as promoting internally is not a common practice.

Typically, in Campus Recreation the individual that occupies the position above an employee would have to leave to create any opportunity for promotion in many cases. Also, higher education salaries are behind those of corporate or municipal recreation especially considering most jobs in Campus Recreation are Master's degree preferred or required of the job. In the sample, 95.6% of respondents (n = 65) had a Master's degree or above for education.

Job satisfaction factors of supervision (M = 4.56, SD = 1.28) and nature of work (M = 4.53, SD = 1.06) were the highest mean scores of the subscales of the JSS. Respondents of the study reported a relatively high satisfaction with their current supervisor and the nature of work they perform. Campus Recreation professionals generally report that they work in the field of Campus Recreation because they enjoy what they do especially working with students. The score of supervision may be skewed because of general likeability of the supervisor. An employee may personally like a supervisor but not be motivated by their leadership style.

The study only focused on full-time professional Campus Recreation staff members. Future studies can expand on this research by focusing on the impact of leadership style on the job satisfaction of student employees.

Future studies can increase this research's findings by viewing one or more of the variables specified above to analyze its net impact on employees working in the Campus Recreation field as well as expanding the sample area to encompass a larger portion of the total Campus Recreation population

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# **APPENDICES**

# APPENDIX A

## Approval for use of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (5x)

For use by Matt Beck only. Received from Mind Garden, Inc. on November 9, 2022



## www.mindgarden.com

To Whom It May Concern,

The above-named person has made a license purchase from Mind Garden, Inc. and has permission to administer the following copyrighted instrument up to that quantity purchased:

#### **Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire**

The three sample items only from this instrument as specified below may be included in your thesis or dissertation. Any other use must receive prior written permission from Mind Garden. The entire instrument may not be included or reproduced at any time in any other published material. Please understand that disclosing more than we have authorized will compromise the integrity and value of the test.

Citation of the instrument must include the applicable copyright statement listed below. Sample Items:

As a leader ....

I talk optimistically about the future. I spend time teaching and coaching. I avoid making decisions.

The person I am rating....

Talks optimistically about the future. Spends time teaching and coaching. Avoids making decisions

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Sincerely.

Robert Most

Mind Garden, Inc. www.mindgarden.com

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# APPENDIX B

### Oklahoma State University Institutional Review Board Approval



 Date:
 12/05/2022

 Application Number:
 IRB-22-508

Proposal Title: EXAMINING THE EFFECT OF CAMPUS RECREATION LEADER'S LEADERSHIP STYLE ON

EMPLOYEE SATISFACTION

Principal Investigator: Matt Beck

Co-Investigator(s):

Faculty Adviser: Donna Lindenmeier Project

Coordinator:

Research Assistant(s):

Processed as: Exempt

**Exempt Category:** 

#### Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved

The IRB application referenced above has been approved. It is the judgment of the reviewers that the rights and welfare of individuals who may be asked to participate in this study will be respected, and that the research will be conducted in a manner consistent with the IRB requirements as outlined in 45CFR46.

This study meets criteria in the Revised Common Rule, as well as, one or more of the circumstances for which continuing review is not required. As Principal Investigator of this research, you will be required to submit a status report to the IRB triennially.

The final versions of any recruitment, consent and assent documents bearing the IRB approval stamp are available for download from IRBManager. These are the versions that must be used during the study.

As Principal Investigator, it is your responsibility to do the following:

- Conduct this study exactly as it has been approved. Any modifications to the research protocol must be approved by the IRB. Protocol modifications requiring approval may include changes to the title, PI, adviser, other research personnel, funding status or sponsor, subject population composition or size, recruitment, inclusion/exclusion criteria, research site, research procedures and consent/assent process or forms.
- Submit a request for continuation if the study extends beyond the approval period. This continuation must receive IRB review and approval before the research can continue.
- 3. Report any unanticipated and/or adverse events to the IRB Office promptly.
- Notify the IRB office when your research project is complete or when you are no longer affiliated with Oklahoma State University.

Please note that approved protocols are subject to monitoring by the IRB and that the IRB office has the authority to inspect research records associated with this protocol at any time. If you have questions about the IRB procedures or need any assistance from the Board, please contact the IRB Office at 405-744- 3377 or irb@okstate.edu.

Sincerely,

Oklahoma State University IRB

# APPENDIX C

# Job Satisfaction Survey & Approval for Use Spector (1985)

	Special (1703)	
	JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY  Paul E. Spector Department of Psychology University of South Florida  Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved.  PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION	ry much oderately ghtly tly rrately much
	ABOUT IT.	Disagree very much Disagree moderately Agree slightly Agree moderately Agree wery much
1	I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	1 2 3 4 5 6
2	There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.	1 2 3 4 5 6
3	My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.	1 2 3 4 5 6
4	I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.	1 2 3 4 5 6
5	When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.	1 2 3 4 5 6
6	Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.	1 2 3 4 5 6
7	I like the people I work with.	1 2 3 4 5 6
8	I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.	1 2 3 4 5 6
9	Communications seem good within this organization.	1 2 3 4 5 6
10	Raises are too few and far between.	1 2 3 4 5 6
11	Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.	1 2 3 4 5 6
12	My supervisor is unfair to me.	1 2 3 4 5 6
13	The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.	1 2 3 4 5 6
14	I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.	1 2 3 4 5 6
15	My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.	1 2 3 4 5 6
16	I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.	1 2 3 4 5 6
17	I like doing the things I do at work.	1 2 3 4 5 6
18	The goals of this organization are not clear to me.	1 2 3 4 5 6

	PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.	Disagree very much Disagree moderately Disagree slightly Agree slightly Agree wery much
19	Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved.  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

Note: The JSS is a copyrighted scale. It can be used free of charge for noncommercial educational and research purposes, in return for the sharing of results. See the "Sharing of results" page above for instructions. The JSS is copyright © 1994, Paul E. Spector, All rights reserved. All reproductions of the JSS should include this copyright notice.

A condition for free use of these assessments is that the results be shared with Paul Spector via e-mail <a href="mailto:paul@paulspector.com">paul@paulspector.com</a> the creator of the instrument to include:

- 1. Means per subscale and total score
- 2. Sample size
- 3. Brief description of sample, e.g., 220 hospital nurses. I don't need to know the organization name if it is sensitive.
- 4. Name of country where collected, and if outside of the U.S., and the language used. I am especially interested in non-American samples.
- 5. Standard deviations per subscale and total score (optional)
- 6. Coefficient alpha per subscale and total score (optional)

Results can be shared by providing an e-copy of a published or unpublished research report (e.g., a conference paper, dissertation, journal article, thesis, etc.) where one or more of these assessments are used.

## APPENDIX D

# Scoring Key for MLQ 5(x)

For use by Matt Beck only. Received from Mind Garden, Inc. on November 9, 2022

# MLQ Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Scoring Key (5x) Short

My Name:				Date:				
Organization II	D#:	Leader	ID #:					_
derived by sun	MLQ scale scores are nming the items and di livide the total for the ve four items, Extra E	viding by the number	of items that r	make up the sonswered. All	cale. of the	If a	ı <b>n it</b> ders	hip
Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly ofte		requ			
0	1	2	3	IT	not	aiwa 4	ıys	
	uence (Attributed) tota fluence (Behavior) tota		Management-by-	,		' /		
*Inspir	ational Motivation tota	1/4 =	+Laiss	sez-faire Lead	ership	tot	al/4	
*Intell	ectual Stimulation tota	1/4 =		Extra	Effor	tot	al/3	=/
*Individ	lual Consideration tota	1/4 =	$\sim$	Effectiv	enes	s tot	āl/4	=
# C	contingent Reward tota	1/4 =		Satisf	action	n tot	al/2	=
	l Stimulation						3	4
	agement-by-Exception (Pas						3	4
4.	Management-by-Exception						3	4
	5. Laissez-faire Leader	•					3	4
	7. Laissez-faire Leader	lized Influence (Behavior)				2	3	4
8. Intellectual	Stimulation					2	3	4
g. Intellectual		nal Motivation			-	2	3	4
	,	nce (Attributed)				2	3	4
11. Contingent R	eward				1	2	3	4
12. Mana	agement-by-Exception (Pa	ssive)			1	2	3	4
	13. Inspiration	nal Motivation			1	2	3	4
	14. Idea	lized Influence (Behavior)		0	1	2	3	4
	15.	Individual Consideration			1	2	3	4
						Co	ntinu	ied -

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Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Fre if no				
0	1	2	3		4	_	_	
•					1	2	3	4
17. Mana		*			1	2	3	4
		,			1	2	3	4
	19.	Individual Consideration	n	0	1	2	3	4
20. Mana	agement-by-Exception (Pas	sive)		0	1	2	3	4
	<ol><li>Idealized Influen</li></ol>	nce (Attributed)		0	1	2	3	4
22.	Management-by-Exception	(Active)		0	$\overline{}$	2	\3	4
	23. Ideali	ized Influence (Behavio	r)		1	2	3	4
24.	Management-by-Exception	(Active)			4	2	3	4
	25. Idealized Influer	nce (Attributed)			(1)	12	7 <sub>3</sub>	4
	26. Inspiration	al Motivation			1	S	3	4
27.	Management-by-Exception	(Active)			1	2	3	4
	28. Laissez-faire Leaders	hip. 1		0	1	2	3	4
		/\	,     _ /		1	2	3	4
30. Intellectual					1	2	3	4
/		Individual Consideration		0	1	2	3	4
32. Intellectual	\ / /				1	2	3	4
32. 1110110000		1			1	2	3	4
	1 / / /	•	r)		1	2	3	4
35. Contingent R		•	- /		1	2	3	4
33. Contangent Vi					1	2	3	4
	30. Ilispiration				1	2	3	4
						_	-	-
					1	2	3	4
			Effort		1	2	3	4
					1	2	3	4
					1	2	3	4
		42. Extra E	Effort	0	1	2	3	4
		43. Effectiveness		0	1	2	3	4
		44. Extra E	Effort	0	1	2	3	4
		45. Effectiveness		0	1	2	3	4

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## APPENDIX E

## Greetings,

My name is Matt Beck, a PhD candidate from the Health, Leisure, and Human Performance program at Oklahoma State University. I am writing to invite you to participate in my dissertation research study is to explore the impact of leadership style on full-time employee job satisfaction within the Campus Recreation setting. To be eligible for this study you must meet the following criteria: (1) full-time employee in campus recreation working in a position within a campus recreation department at the position of Coordinator or above, (2) have at least one-year of experience in their current job, and (3) working under the direct or indirect supervision of a Campus Recreation leader.

### Description of Benefits

In a focused review of Campus Recreation, very few texts focused on leadership style, and no studies focused on the impact of leadership style on job satisfaction. This study serves to better understand how a leader's behavior can impact outcomes on those they lead. This work benefits Campus Recreation departments by assisting leaders in gaining a greater understanding of behaviors that yield positive outcomes such as job satisfaction which is related to turnover as positions become harder and harder to fill.

### **Procedure**

The study will be survey based and will be conducted remotely at the convenience of the participant. Participants will be asked to complete a quantitative survey based on their experience working for their current direct supervisor and items pertaining to job satisfaction. The survey should take no more than twenty-five minutes to complete.

### Disclosure of risks

There are minimal risks to participants as the study will be confidential and individuals will not be providing their names or institution names. Demographic information will be collected asking participants to disclose years working for current supervisor, years of experience within a range, and education level.

### **Confidentiality**

Confidentiality cannot be guaranteed as participants will be asked to provide some demographic data; however, no names or institution names will be collected within the study and all quantitative data will be provided in aggregate. Any qualitative data that may include identifiers will utilize pseudonyms to protect respondent confidentiality. The data will be housed within the Oklahoma State University's Qualtrics account and will only be available to the principal investigator, Matt Beck. This anonymous survey will take approximately 15 minutes to complete. Your participation is voluntary and your refusal to participate will not involve penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled, and you may discontinue participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. If you wish to discontinue participation in the study at any time, you may

stop completing your survey and leave it unfinished. Unfinished survey results will not be used in the study and will be disregarded.

For questions about the research:

### Principal Investigator

Matt Beck

101 Colvin Center Stillwater, OK 74078 mrbeck@okstate.edu 405-744-6274

### Committee Chair

Dr. Donna Lindenmeier 101 Colvin Center Stillwater, OK 74078 Donna.lindenmeier@okstate.edu

If you have questions about your rights as a research subject, please contact the Oklahoma State University IRB office at 405-744-3377, irb@okstate.edu .

By continuing onto the survey and answering the following questions, you are providing your consent to participate. Please follow the link below for the survey.

https://okstateches.az1.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV\_a3o1SNf2qG8VyE6

Thank you for your decision to participate in this study.

Kindest regards,

Matt R. Beck, MS

#### VITA

### Matthew Robert Beck

## Candidate for the Degree of

### Doctor of Philosophy

Dissertation: EXAMINING THE EFFECT OF CAMPUS RECREATION LEADER'S LEADERSHIP STYLE ON EMPLOYEE SATISFACTION

Major Field: Health, Leisure, and Human Performance

Biographical:

#### Education:

Completed the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy in Health, Leisure, and Human Performance at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma in May, 2023.

Completed the requirements for the Master of Science in Leisure Studies at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma in 2008.

Completed the requirements for the Bachelor of Science in Education & Human Sciences at University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebraska in 2006.

### Experience:

Associate Director at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK, May 2015-Present

Director of Parks & Recreation, City of Enid, Enid, OK, July 2014-May 2015

Associate Director Facilities & Operations, Nova Southeastern University, Davie, FL, September 2013-June 2014

Coordinator of Intramurals at University of Kansas, Lawrence, KS June 2008-February 2012