

EXPLORING THE INFLUENCE OF LEADERSHIP STYLE AND
ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE ON EMPLOYEE JOB SATISFACTION WITHIN A
LARGE MANUFACTURING FACILITY

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Marissa Sebers

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Approval Signatures:

Donald P. Conant

Dissertation Chair: Dr. Don Conant, Ph.D. 4/10/24

Rowlanda Cawthon

Committee Member: Dr. Rowlanda Cawthon, Ed.D. 4/10/24

Tony Pizelo

Committee Member: Dr. Tony Pizelo, Ph.D. 4/10/24

Valerie Rance

Dean/Director of the Center for Leadership Studies: Dr. Valerie Rance Ph.D. 4/10/24

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ABSTRACT

As global markets drive stiffer competition, manufacturing organizations need to find an edge that drives efficiencies and quality into their workforce. Dula and Tang (2021) believed empowered employees who adopt organizational vision can be a competitive advantage. Employees are empowered and inspired by a positive leadership style, which drives a positive organizational culture. Leaders in an organization are the principal engineers of culture and must model expected behaviors. The purpose of the current quantitative study was to examine the relationship between leadership style and organizational culture and the effect of both on employee satisfaction in a large manufacturing facility. Results from the current study found there was a positive correlation between a transformational leadership style and a constructive organizational culture, with transformational leadership as the dependent variable. The relationship was not causal, and I believe the same results would be found if constructive culture was the dependent variable. Participants did not perceive a correlation between transformational leadership style and job satisfaction; however, labor union participants perceived less intrinsic job satisfaction than nonunion participants. Union employees feeling less satisfaction than a nonunion employee was supported by significant research. Bryson et al. (2004) believed there is a reverse causal relationship as unsatisfied employees join unions; therefore, union employees are unsatisfied. Finally, there was a moderate positive correlation between a constructive organizational culture and the perception of job satisfaction. Cooke and Lafferty (1994) stated positive causal factors must be in place to drive a constructive culture with job satisfaction being a vital factor.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

As globalization has become a necessity or a fundamental requirement for large corporations' ability to compete in the markets of the world, an organization's leadership must identify and understand the effects of various leadership styles and the many different cultures encountered as related to employee motivation and employee job satisfaction. Eti-Tofinga et al. (2016) stated the leadership style in large organizations will evolve to align with cultural transformations. Chong et al. (2018) attributed organizational success to the organization's ability to adapt to cultural changes in the market. Organizational culture defines an organization's values and norms through leadership behaviors. Chong et al. (2018) stated, "Organizational culture and leadership can be seen as two sides of the same coin" (p. 976), because culture influences leadership style and leadership style affects culture.

Job satisfaction is influenced by the organization's culture when there is alignment with employee values. Personnel have a positive reaction when there is a coalition of principles between the organization's culture and employee values when employee satisfaction can be had regardless of the employee's needs (Janićijević et al., 2018). Janićijević et al. (2018) indicated the degree of employee satisfaction is directly related to the type of organizational culture portrayed by leadership. Janićijević et al. (2018) believed, "Organizational culture is a collective rather than an individual construct" (p. 84), where satisfaction is driven through shared values that shape employee behavior. The organization's management and employees make decisions that are influenced by the organization's culture.

Eti-Tofinga et al. (2016) aligned leadership style with cultural “beliefs and norms of power distance, individualism or collectivism” (p. 536). Culture drives organizational strategy, structure, performance control, compensation system, performance management systems, organizational learning style, organizational performance, and leadership style (Janićijević et al., 2018). Janićijević et al. (2018) believed culture drove all aspects of organizational behavior, including employee job satisfaction.

Organizational leadership must have the capacity to understand how the current culture is affecting employee satisfaction. Leadership style is vital to the success of work groups and the organization as a whole (Schein, 2010). Leaders must have the ability to develop different styles based on employee needs, such as transformational, transactional, charismatic, or even authoritative leadership styles; each style offers its own value that could be used to support employees when implemented in the proper setting (Northouse, 2016). Leaders can assess and make necessary adjustments that can affect their employee’s perception of the organization’s climate because immediate and swift short-term wins do not change the organization’s culture (Schein, 2010). Schein (2010) described culture as the organization’s durable long-term values and norms that change slowly. Schein then described the organization’s climate as the quick fix that is affected by personnel and is associated with how employees or the group feel, which can change daily based on an event or a change in leadership.

Background

Bass and Avolio (1993) stated leadership drives the development of organizational culture; however, the organization’s culture can also affect leadership behaviors. A productive organization requires both “tactical and strategic thinking” (Bass & Avolio,

1993, p. 112) and a leadership team that focuses on the organization's cultural needs. Strategic thinking drives and shapes organizational vision, which must be supported by an organization's culture to be successful.

Bass and Avolio (1993) and Jung et al. (1995) provided a conceptual linkage between transformational leadership style and a positive or collectivistic organizational culture. Transformational leadership style raises followers' awareness of organizational vision and creates follower/leadership goal alignment for organizational success and employee satisfaction (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Transformational leaders display the four Is: (a) idealized influence, (b) inspirational motivation, (c) intellectual stimulation, and (d) individualized consideration, which facilitate follower alignment to organizational norms and values, promote exceptional performance, and drive interpersonal relationships (Bass & Avolio, 1993).

Problem Statement

The global footprint of large corporations forces a need for leadership to understand various cultures and how they will affect the satisfaction of employees. The need to be competitive in an ever-changing marketplace drives the transformation of corporate vision, which can result in culture and leadership changes and pending organizational deviations (Schein, 2010). Leadership changes and transformation of organizational culture that personnel perceive as negative result in employees who lack motivation and are dissatisfied, which can also result in organizational difficulties (Schein, 2010).

The challenges large multicultural organizations face daily are the complexities of different leadership styles and their effects on the organization's culture. Both leadership

style and organizational culture are directly tied to an organization's employee motivation and job satisfaction (Schein, 2010). Leadership will model behaviors that are observed in the organization. However, each leader will tend to conduct business based on learned cultural biases that can result in cultural conflict in the area of "power distance, uncertainty avoidance, collectivism, masculinity versus femininity, and long-term versus short-term orientation" (Hofstede, 2001, p. 29). The consequence of cultural conflict can be ethnocentrism, which is the tendency to believe that cultural characteristics are superior to all other cultural features or are under attack by the same (Hofstede, 2001). Leaders must prepare for cultural clashes and provide instructions to facilitate leadership alignment with organizational values. A failure to manage the challenge of cultural clashes can result in a breakdown in leadership, poor organizational performance, and employee dissatisfaction (Hofstede, 2001).

Employee satisfaction is driven by many organizational factors, which include both organizational culture and leadership style. Janićijević et al. (2018) believed an employee's needs were satisfied by culture if the organizational culture's values and norms were associated with the employee's values and norms. A correlation must exist between the type of culture and characteristics of the job for satisfaction to occur. Janićijević et al. stated a culture that focuses on employee relationships should satisfy an employee's need for belonging; however, this culture may not satisfy the employee's need for safety. Therefore, leaders must understand what employees' needs are to ensure cultural alignment exists, or employees may become dissatisfied. The organization's culture will negatively affect job satisfaction when the wrong culture is displayed. An

employee's existential need, such as compensation, is not met by the organization's culture based on Janićijević et al.'s research.

New employees excitedly join large manufacturing facilities with all the wage and benefit opportunities that unionization brings; however, Bryson et al. (2004) unfortunately found they will shortly become dissatisfied. Employees who are dissatisfied with organizational policies, leadership, and working conditions shirked their responsibilities and provided lower levels of effort, creating quality and performance issues (Bryson et al., 2004). Herzberg (1974) found employee dissatisfaction was not identified with the type of work employees perform but with how they are treated by the organization. Employee dissatisfaction was associated with "company policy, administrative practices, supervision, interpersonal relationships, working conditions, salary, status, and security" (Herzberg, 1974, p. 18).

However, Rue and Byars (2003) believed job satisfaction was influenced by employment factors. Employment factors included all items Herzberg had listed in 1974 but also included job design or the type of work being performed. Organizational leadership should understand the effect employment factors have on employees because satisfaction and dissatisfaction can be the difference in gaining a competitive advantage. Azmy et al. (2023) stated job satisfaction has a pivotal role in organizational success and enhancing employee performance.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the current quantitative study was to examine the relationship between leadership style and organizational culture and the effect of both on employee satisfaction in a large manufacturing facility. Cooke and Lafferty (1994) linked different

leadership styles to the type of culture displayed in an organization. Large corporations often struggle to create corporate cultures that create employee satisfaction (Ammons, 2021). For the current study, a purposive sample of 25 retired employees from a large Pacific Northwest manufacturing corporation were selected. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) was used to assess leadership style (Bass & Avolio, 2004). The Organizational Culture Inventory (OCI) was used to allow participants to quantitatively express their perceptions of the corporate culture (Cooke & Lafferty, 1994). The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) was used to measure participants' overall satisfaction with their job (Weiss et al., 1967). The current study aimed to provide insights for corporate leadership into the impact of leadership style and organizational culture on employee satisfaction.

Considerable research exists on different types of leadership styles and the effect each style has on employee behaviors (Northouse, 2016). Similarly, organizational culture has significant research associating the phenomenon with leadership style and employee behaviors (Hofstede, 2001; Schein, 2010). Despite substantial literature on leadership style, organizational culture, and employee behaviors, there is a gap in research associated with job satisfaction in large U.S. manufacturing facilities.

Additionally, research on the perception of organizational culture and leadership style from labor union employees in the United States has been almost nonexistent.

Professional unions in the United States, such as nursing and teaching unions, have a plethora of research concerning the type of culture and the leadership behaviors required for job satisfaction, but this research could only find manufacturing labor union research from Nigeria and Malaysia. The goal of the current study was to fill the gap by providing

literature describing the impact of leadership style and organizational culture on job satisfaction in large U.S. manufacturing facilities for both labor union and nonunion employees.

Research Questions

The current quantitative study used three research questions (RQ)s that evaluated the significance of different leadership styles and various types of organizational culture impact on employee job satisfaction. The following research questions were addressed:

RQ1: Is there a relationship between a transformational leadership style and constructive organizational culture?

RQ2: Is there a relationship between a transformational leadership style and employee job satisfaction?

RQ3: Is there a relationship between a constructive organizational culture and employee job satisfaction?

Definition of Key Terminology

The following terms were used in the current study.

Culture is a modeled way of thinking, reacting, and feeling, which is a learned behavior of a specific group that includes traditions and embodies core values and is a “collective programming of the mind” (Hofstede, 2001, p. 1).

Job satisfaction is a phenomenon, an individual’s positive emotional response or contentedness derived from their work (Locke, 1976).

Leader is the primary individual who commands an organization or group; they are impactful and inspire and motivate followers. They have a vision for success and the path to fulfilling it (Northouse, 2016).

Leadership is a process where an individual uses influence to accomplish a common goal (Northouse, 2016).

Leadership style is an individual's behavioral traits used to influence others, which include both directive and supportive behaviors (Northouse, 2016).

Organizational culture is a shared group phenomenon that affects how a group reacts to its environment, resulting in collective programming (Hofstede, 2001). Shared assumptions are developed by a group to solve problems, creating a method to cope with challenges in their environment (Schein, 2010).

Summary

Chapter 1 introduced the dissertation topic, globalization influencing organization culture, the leadership styles that affect culture, and the influence of each on job satisfaction, followed by the background linking culture and leadership. The problem statement and purpose of the study, followed by the RQs and the definition of key terms, completed the chapter. Chapter 2 provides scholarly literature that support or contrast the results of the current study.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Job satisfaction can be defined in many ways; Carter et al. (2019) believed “job satisfaction is an attitude” (p. 6) that an individual may associate with their profession. Belias and Koustelious (2015) defined job satisfaction as an “occupational phenomenon” (p. 104). Baykara and Orhan (2020) stated an individual must first understand what a job is or how work is defined before they can measure job satisfaction. Baykara and Orhan described work as what an individual does as their profession, and job satisfaction is the happiness that the individual feels from performing their work assignments. Baykara and Orhan also defined job satisfaction as an employee’s attitude as either negative or positive toward how they perceive their work. Baykara and Orhan (2020) believed job satisfaction was a “multidimensional psychological response that has cognitive, effective, and behavioral components” (p. 67). The most famous definition of job satisfaction came from Locke (1976), who defined job satisfaction as a “positive or a pleasant emotion experienced by the employee due to their appreciation for their work” (p. 1300).

Baykara and Orhan (2020) believed an employee’s job satisfaction directly affected their productivity in the organization. Baykara and Orhan concluded individuals who had high job satisfaction had positive job performance and a higher commitment to the organization. Jex and Britt (2008) stated employee satisfaction in an organization is vital for success because satisfied employees commit to the organization and have increased productivity. Koziol and Koziol (2020) found an employee’s productivity increased with the level of the employee’s needs being met, and job satisfaction related to

employee motivation was the process by which employees' needs were being met. Light (2004) found employee involvement increased employee satisfaction because involvement allowed the employee the opportunity to assist in job functions and job design. Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM) Staff (2010) stated employee engagement influences motivation and results in employee commitment and satisfaction. Bryson et al. (2004) stated employees found job satisfaction in the amount of influence they had over their current position. Laroche (2017) believed employers should encourage employees to communicate dissatisfaction via suggestion boxes, employee involvement, or participation in workgroups that aim at obtaining workplace objectives. Biddle (2015) found productivity increased when employees were satisfied, but the technique managers used affected the employee's output. However, Bryson et al. found employees who were dissatisfied with their working conditions shirked their responsibilities and provided lower levels of effort.

Belias and Koustelious (2015) stated multiple factors contribute to an employee's satisfaction, which are both their "internal feelings and external factors" (p. 101). Organizations have many factors that they must consider when evaluating an individual's job satisfaction level. Baykara and Orhan (2020) described the factors as "job and job quality, management and evaluation, wages and benefits, working conditions, interpersonal relationships, control, age, seniority, gender, and marital status" (p. 67). Carter et al. (2019) believed job satisfaction was measured by an individual's attitude toward pay, their supervisor, and the work being performed. Carter et al. (2019) found employee recognition, which includes "public rewards, and employee of the month programs" (p. 25), increase an individual's satisfaction with their position. SHRM Staff

(2010) believed leadership must communicate organizational vision so employees and the employer are aligned, which results in job satisfaction because each understands organizational requirements.

Financial incentives were found to be twice as effective as nonfinancial incentives when measuring job satisfaction (Biddle, 2015). Biddle (2015) found no difference exists between competitive versus noncompetitive incentive programs. However, team-based incentive programs were 2.5 times more effective on productivity than individually focused programs (Biddle, 2015). Bryson et al. (2004) believed overall job satisfaction for employees was directly tied to pay and the employees' perceptions of whether they felt their pay was fair. Zeqiri and Aziri (2010) found gender had a slight influence on pay satisfaction, where the pay measure was higher for males.

In contrast, Biddle (2015) reviewed money as a motivator for employee satisfaction and found Deming believed "pay is not a good motivator" (p. 1). Deming (1990) stated employees rated financial incentives as sixth in the techniques that managers use to motivate employees. Deming found not enough pay was an irritant and increasing pay was not a significant motivator. Kohn (1993) found rewards can be seen as a manipulative tool where an employee can feel controlled and coerced, which can destroy motivation. Kohn also found reward can dissuade risk taking as an employee focuses on the goal and avoids creativity and process improvement. Pouliakas (2010) found the "wrong" (p. 597) pay or incentive can result in poor employee morale and dysfunctional employee behavior. Bryson et al. (2004) also found some employees' satisfaction with pay had a "U-shaped relationship" (p. 443) because employees had minimum satisfaction with pay as their tenure grew. However, Laroche (2017) stated

many employers will pay their employees more and are mindful of how employees perceive their employment in the hopes of creating employee satisfaction.

SHRM Staff (2010) believed employers had a responsibility to understand what techniques resonated with employees. SHRM Staff found employees who are treated appropriately by employers are motivated and have improved performance. Bryson et al. (2004) found employees had job satisfaction when they felt respect from their managers. Carter et al. (2019) found an individual may have positive job satisfaction if they believe peers respect their profession. However, an individual may have a negative attitude if they believe their position is repetitive. Rožman et al. (2017) found companies should design work around motivational techniques that drive job satisfaction, which will increase employee performance. Pfeffer and Davis-Blake (1990) found work design or job function for certain jobs affects an employee's job satisfaction if the work is monotonous. Zeqiri and Aziri (2010) found employees had the highest levels of dissatisfaction when they perceived no possibility of career advancement. SHRM Staff believed the day-to-day success of employees should be recognized by leadership, and the recognition should include a path for employees to develop into leaders. SHRM Staff found leadership development programs were successful in promoting employee satisfaction when the organization has defined clear expectations for employees.

Rožman et al. (2017) found employee motivation aligns with job satisfaction, and younger and older employees are motivated by different motivational characteristics; however, the result of motivational techniques is job satisfaction. Flexibility, autonomy, and interpersonal relationships in their organizations were motivational for older employees (Rožman et al., 2017). Rožman et al. also found job satisfaction among older

employees came from peer respect, equal treatment, and working at their own pace.

Younger employees found the most satisfaction in receiving a higher salary, advancement possibilities, and a meaningful training and education plan (Rožman et al., 2017).

Rožman et al. used a quantitative method and deployed 525 questionnaires to both private and public companies. Various “theoretical concepts” (Rožman et al., 2017, p. 17) were used to measure the motivation and satisfaction of the employees in the workplace, and they applied a 5-point Likert scale to measure the results. Rožman et al. identified both young and older employees are satisfied in the workplace, but their motivation is driven in different ways, and the level of satisfaction differs.

Baykara and Orhan (2020) found participants who were younger than 30 years old and had tenure between 1 to 5 years of employment had higher levels of job satisfaction. In contrast to Baykara and Orhan, Carter et al. (2019) found individuals who had increased tenure were more satisfied. Carter et al. found with tenure, an individual employee gained knowledge about the position, both good and bad, and the employee had more information about how to perform their position. Schwochau (1987) found the effect of tenure and satisfaction was significantly higher for union employees than nonunion employees.

T. Huang (2011) found job satisfaction and work motivation are influenced by the employee’s cultural values. T. Huang (2011) identified five traditional measures for job satisfaction as “pay, promotion, supervisor, coworkers, and work” (p. 932). T. Huang further stated employees also draw job satisfaction from both the amount of training available to them and the volume of organizational information employees are provided by their managers. T. Huang (2011) also communicated job satisfaction can be drawn

from “five knowledge characteristics,” including “job complexity, information processing, problem-solving, skill variety, and specialization” (p. 928). Zeqiri and Aziri (2010) defined four measures for creating employee job satisfaction: “(a) pay, (b) satisfaction from the relationship with the employee’s immediate supervisor, (c) satisfaction with coworker relationships, and (d) the employee’s opportunity to advance their career” (p. 80). Bryson et al. (2004) warned research should make a distinction between employees who are dissatisfied with their job and employees who are dissatisfied with management.

Leadership

Leadership is considered a motivational technique that can contribute to organizational success. Organizations can reap benefits, which include enthusiastic exultant employees and increased production in a positive leadership environment (Northouse, 2016). However, ineffective or negative leadership can have extremely deleterious effects on an organization. Carton (2008) believed the most effective type of leaders could use multiple leadership styles, which would depend on the follower and the setting; “styles include charismatic, contingent reward, transformational, and transactional styles,” (p. 6) along with others. Effective leadership techniques must be present during “recruitment, selection, promotion, training, and development” (Joo & Nam, 2019, p. 50) if the organization wants to reap the benefits of employee satisfaction and improved organizational performance.

Leadership research has indicated the use of the wrong leadership style or applied technique can result in a lack of productivity, apathetic performance, and poor or diminishing quality while creating unmotivated employees with high organizational

turnover rates (Coleman & Katz, 2018). Employees might not accept the organization's mission or operating principles based on several negative factors, which can ultimately lead to a contaminated individual or team. Coleman and Katz (2018) described leadership as, "Rooted in authority" (p. 6), and people incorrectly correlate leadership to a formal title. Coleman and Katz stated someone's position might give them influence, but leadership and authority are two completely different ideas. Leaders and managers are often compared, where the leader is concerned with people, and the manager is only concerned with completing the task or process. Coleman and Katz (2018) believed the comparison of leaders and managers was counterproductive because leadership constitutes the "leader's behaviors, not their traits" (p. 6).

Leadership has a multitude of definitions that are typically associated with influencing others. Rawat et al. (2015) defined leadership as a process that uses positional influence to encourage employees to accomplish organizational goals. Rawat et al. also believed a positive leadership technique required a great deal of interpersonal processes, such as coaching, motivating, and communicating. A leader must be able to demonstrate interpersonal processes to facilitate others in achieving desired objectives. Leaders who have the skills to inspire and create shared values should encourage and motivate employees to accomplish tasks and goals at the highest level (Rawat et al., 2015). Coleman and Katz (2018) defined leadership as a process that "navigates multiple fluid and dynamic interpersonal engagements" (p. 8). Coleman and Katz (2018) also stated a leader's followers must be willing to act in a complex environment where threats and opportunities might require a "best guess approach" (p. 8), and "leadership is never about the leader" (p. 8) but about the follower. Finding the correct leadership style to

successfully inspire and motivate employees should be considered an organizational value and goal.

Belias and Koustelious (2015) stated the two types of leadership styles in their research that were associated with creating job satisfaction were transformational and transactional leadership. Belias and Koustelious (2015) also found when an employee's immediate supervisor used the "transformational leadership style, the employee rated their job satisfaction mostly high" (p. 108). McLaurin and Al Amri (2008) defined transformational leadership as leadership that must involve trust between leader and follower. A leader motivates followers and considers their needs for goal attainment. Transformational leaders have less fluctuation between power and influence between leader and follower because they work in tandem in attainment of a common goal. Finally, a transformational leader must encourage a follower's personal growth and developmental needs in the relationship to be successful (McLaurin & Al Amri, 2008).

Northouse (2016) defined transformational leadership as the process of leading change and transforming followers. A transformational leadership approach evaluates how to satisfy follower motives and is concerned not only with goal attainment but also with the follower's emotions, values, ethics, and standards (Northouse, 2016). Transformational leadership requires influence over followers because the influence generates self-confidence, which can lead to higher-than-expected goal obtainment. Transformational leaders empower followers and encourage change, and they lead followers to make decisions for the greater good rather than focus internally (Northouse, 2016). A transformational leadership process creates a leader-follower connection that can raise the motivation level of both leader and follower alike (Northouse, 2016).

Azanza et al. (2013) found employees displayed a high level of job satisfaction when managers used an authentic leadership style. Azanza et al. (2013) stated authentic leadership is also “positively related to employee job performance” (p. 46), organizational commitment, and employee engagement. Zeqiri and Aziri (2010) stated employees found they had “high levels of satisfaction when they had a positive relationship with their supervisor” (p. 85).

Hypothesizing if leadership style or motivation positively affects employee satisfaction is complicated because motivation is a force driven by effective leadership (Shakil, 2020). Shakil (2020) conducted research that used questionnaires provided to a population of 150 employees, with 118 returned. Questionnaires were divided to measure both the effect of leadership style and motivation on employee satisfaction. Shakil discovered the variables, motivation, leadership, and satisfaction were positively correlated. One unit of motivation would increase satisfaction by 21 units, which was an 11% variation in satisfaction, and one unit of leadership would increase satisfaction by 35 units which was a 21% variation in satisfaction (Shakil, 2020). Shakil indicated employee satisfaction requires both motivation and leadership to be successful and also discovered these techniques are not the only tools for successfully satisfying employees.

Evans (1974) focused on determining if a path-goal leadership style could result in motivating employees. Evans’s participants included 86 young managers enrolled in a master’s in business administration program, and they were assigned the task of observing leadership behaviors through multiple instruments. Evans found a link between a leader’s behavior and their followers’ motivation and job satisfaction when certain criteria were met. The path-goal criteria consisted of the follower creating a link between

high performance and their personal goals. Evans's results indicated path-goal was not the style to predict motivational outcomes. A charismatic leadership style emerged from the path-goal style.

Similarly, Kappler and Schmidt (2006) found charismatic leaders had a positive effect on job satisfaction in an organizational framework. Kappler and Schmidt stated followers of charismatic leaders set and achieved complex goals that resulted in improved task performance and, ultimately, the follower's job satisfaction. Kappler and Schmidt (2016) believed charismatic leaders had a "positive effect on follower performance and job satisfaction as well as on organizational outcomes" (p. 20). Motivation may be the result of a successful, charismatic leader.

A follower's perceptions of a charismatic leader can be driven based on how the followers perceive their leader's results (Yorges et al., 1999). Yorges et al. (1999) evaluated followers' perceptions of a charismatic leader's influence. Yorges et al. had 150 participants who were undergraduate students and volunteered to participate for credit. Participants reviewed articles that displayed a leader either benefiting from or enduring hardship for their cause. According to Yorges et al., followers felt differently if they believed the leader might benefit from a successful outcome, which might have been attributed to past experiences with poor leaders. Participants looked favorably if they believed the leader would experience a sacrifice. Yorges et al.'s results were as expected; a leader was looked on favorably if participants believed they would endure hardship, and there was a negative perception if the leader benefited. Based on Yorges et al.'s findings, a charismatic leader's influence on followers can be directly associated with their ability to motivate them to complete tasks, but they must ensure the follower's perception of the

charisma is not tainted with bad intentions. Leaders must always provide the team credit for success and take on blame for failures to confirm followers' perceptions of their position on the team.

Yammarino and Dubinsky (1994) conducted three reviews of leadership that found contingent reward leadership was more closely tied to positive performance than transformational leadership. Yammarino and Dubinsky's results were only tied to male managers and subordinates in a traditionally male-dominated organization, which were conditions in their study. However, prior research noted in the review found differences in male versus female transformational leadership success (Yammarino & Dubinsky, 1994). Carton (2008) detailed research that described transformational leaders' using an optimistic form of communicating the "vision of the future" (p. 3) as the most successful way of motivating employees to accomplish goals. Carton also found in both charismatic and transformational leadership, an unspecific goal was usually more satisfying for employees because specific goals are more difficult to accomplish and require superior performance; thus, they were found to be less satisfying.

Transformational leadership has been effective in many organizational models because its effects can improve employee attitude and influence their amour-propre. Yildiz and Şimşek (2016) reviewed the effect of trust, self-efficacy, and the transformational leadership style on employee job satisfaction. Their study included 252 participants from higher education who received questionnaires over a 10-week period. Yildiz and Şimşek's results indicated a strong variable correlation, with transformational leadership having the strongest correlation with trust and job satisfaction. Yildiz and Şimşek described a clear connection between transformational leadership style and

employee job satisfaction. Yildiz and Şimşek (2016) stated employees who report to “transformational leaders believe that they can handle problems successfully because they are expected to perform at a high level” (p. 61). Yildiz and Şimşek also concluded job satisfaction was affected more by employee trust than self-efficacy. Yildiz and Şimşek (2016) found, “Trust mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction” (p. 70). Transformational leadership creates employee/leader relationships that require trust to be successful and build self-efficacy in employees. Organizational success can be influenced based on the successful use of the correct leadership style.

Motivation

Motivation is a “psychological process” (Koziol & Koziol, 2020, p. 708) that encourages a person to accomplish processes and tasks. Koziol and Koziol (2020) suggested motivation is a “driving force” (p. 708) that encourages employees to accomplish goals and objectives. Motivation is a behavior that managers hope to instill in their employees. The term motivation originates from the “Latin term *movera*, which suggests movement” (Biddle, 2015, p. 2) or is a person or employee progressing. Biddle (2015) stated an individual’s motivation to “move” (p. 2) is tied to their emotions, and leadership should attempt to discover what appeals to an employee’s emotions, which potentially can improve productivity by creating employee motivation. SHRM Staff (2010) defined motivation as the “psychological force” (p. 1) that determines the individual’s “level of effort” (p. 1) and persistence they will postulate in unknown conditions. A leader’s relationship with their employee is a fundamental activity where the leader discovers which motivational technique to use. Herzberg (1974) believed

“organizations are like people” (p. 18); if they are sick, they will need additional attention and support for required changes to regain social and fiscal health. If organizations are healthy and strong, they may maintain the right prescription or “profile” (Herzberg, 1974, p. 18) that has been identified, which will result in organizational satisfaction and motivated employees.

Igalens and Roussel (1999) found a clear differentiation between work motivation and job satisfaction. Igalens and Roussel (1999) stated, “One of the consequences, for example, is that solutions to make fixed pay more satisfying can have a positive effect on job satisfaction without having any effect on work motivation” (p. 1008). In multiple reviews of employees who have growth ambitions, job design and alternate work schedules are the most influential motivational techniques (Brown, 1996; Durant et al., 2006; Fried & Ferris, 1987; Kelly, 1992). Durant et al. (2006) also indicated job design can influence quality and improve overall work performance).

Locke and Latham (2004) stated leaders must understand the relationship between motivation and knowledge. Locke and Latham further (2004) stated:

In most studies of motivation, researchers attempt to hold cognition (knowledge) constant so as not to confound their separate effects on performance, but reality suggests they always go together. Thus, we need to learn about how each affects the other. (p. 398).

Durant et al. (2006) found participation or employee engagement improved job satisfaction but only had a marginally positive effect on task performance. In a meta-analysis, Durant et al. (2006) stated goal setting has a positive effect on individual and group task performance if the goal is specific and challenging. Igalens and Roussel

(1999) stated assigning realistic goals to each employee task reinforces the motivational factors associated with compensation.

Motivation is required for an individual to collaborate, work individually, and for employees to successfully work in teams (SHRM Staff, 2010). SHRM Staff (2010) maintained motivation is a “50-50 relationship” (p. 1) where an employee and employer must both participate. An employee must provide a desire to be successful, and an employer must provide the opportunity for the employee to advance, recognize superior performance, and a cohesive work atmosphere (SHRM Staff, 2010). Giles and Holley (1978) defined job enrichment as having five employee motivational factors for employees, which included “opportunity for independent action, amount of variety, opportunity to do a large part of the job, and the amount of feedback and opportunity to use skills and abilities” (p. 727). Giles and Holley’s (1978) research sample consisted of 131 male employees who worked in two separate manufacturing facilities, and they found a 24%–47% need for better pay but only a 9%–13% need for better job enrichment.

Biddle (2015) defined two types of “rewards” (p. 1) that motivate employees, and he characterized them as “financial” and “nonfinancial” (p. 1). Financial incentives are “profit-sharing, stock options, performance-based bonuses, and paid holidays” (Biddle, 2015, p. 1), and nonfinancial incentives are “flexible work hours, extra training, and the employee’s working environment” (Biddle, 2015, p. 1). Biddle found an employee’s age and gender affected what nonfinancial incentives created the greatest employee motivation.

SHRM Staff (2010) defined two types of motivational rewards, intrinsic and extrinsic, that can precede job satisfaction. Intrinsic reward outcomes include an

employee's feeling of accomplishment and the pleasure they get from interesting work, and extrinsic reward outcomes are benefits, including vacation and job security (SHRM Staff, 2010). Koziol and Koziol (2020) also classified motivation as intrinsic and extrinsic. Koziol and Koziol (2020) described intrinsic motivation as "autotelic or endogenous" (p. 709) and linked to the work or task itself. Koziol and Koziol (2020) described extrinsic motivation as "exogenic or instrumental" (p. 709), which correlated to achieving goals. Koziol and Koziol (2020) identified employee motivators as, "(a) bonuses, (b) the opportunity for promotion, (c) personal development, (d) flextime, (e) training opportunities, and (f) recognition from leadership" (p. 714). Bryson et al. (2004) found employees who had a sense of achievement from their job were motivated and had job satisfaction.

Biddle (2015) placed motivational techniques into five categories: (a) push, (b) pull, (c) sensation, (d) social, and (e) achievement. A push motivator is a technique that gives the employee "security and stability" (Biddle, 2015, p. 2). A pull motivator is a technique that gives the employee an "incentive," and the employee may improve their "living standards" (Biddle, 2015, p. 2). A sensation motivator is a technique that adds excitement to the employee's work and helps them "avoid boredom" (Biddle, 2015, p. 2). A social motivator is a technique where employees believe they are part of a group that builds the employee's "self-worth and self-image" (Biddle, 2015, p. 2). An achievement motivator is a technique that builds the "status" of the employee and helps create "social positioning" (Biddle, 2015, p. 2).

Koziol and Koziol (2020) found not all employee motivational techniques are consonant with the organization's culture. Koziol and Koziol also stated an employee's

age and organizational tenure could affect the best technique, and employee motivation does not just happen; it is always attached to “objective” (Koziol & Koziol, 2020, p. 708) or some other factor in the organization.

Motivational Theories

Motivation–hygiene theory, which is sometimes referred to as the two-factor theory, implies different “work factors” (Herzberg, 1974, p. 18) drive satisfaction versus dissatisfaction in an organization. Herzberg (1974) considered the work factors that drove satisfaction as associated with an employee’s content of their job role, which included “achievement, recognition for achievement, interesting work, increased responsibility, growth, and advancement” (p. 18). Work factors are called “motivators” (Herzberg, 1974, p. 18) because they consequently create an encouraging work environment with “positive employees” (Herzberg, 1974, p. 18) who feel job satisfaction. Employee dissatisfaction is not identified with the work employees perform but with how they are treated by the organization. Herzberg (1974) stated “dissatisfiers” (p. 18) are associated with “company policy, administrative practices, supervision, interpersonal relationships, working conditions, salary, status, and security” (p. 18), factors referred to as “hygiene” (p. 18) because they are associated with the “environmental conditions” (p. 18) of the organization.

Herzberg (1974) stated an organization can develop a motivation–hygiene profile through a qualitative approach using employee surveys. Employees are asked to describe an event they “felt exceptionally good about or exceptionally bad about” (Herzberg, 1974, p. 19), an experience or event at work, with a focus on the specifics of the event that affected the employee’s mindset. The experiences or events would be categorized

into factors, with the results determining if an employee was satisfied or dissatisfied with the occurrence. The organization's profile analysis would rank events based on the frequency of occurrence versus the event's importance. Herzberg (1974) stressed deviations from a "normal profile" (p. 20) can result in motivational issues that include job dissatisfaction.

Koziol and Koziol (2020) identified Herzberg's (1974) two-factor theory of motivation, which defines an individual's motivators and de-motivators. Herzberg's theory finds distinctive factors in the workplace cause either job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. According to Herzberg, factors believed to create job satisfaction are motivators, and factors that create dissatisfaction are called hygiene factors. Hygiene factors create dissatisfaction when an employee feels the factors are absent (Koziol & Koziol, 2020). Motivating factors include "recognition, promotion, work content, personal development opportunities, and hygiene factors include company policies, management techniques, safety systems, and working conditions" (Koziol & Koziol, 2020, p. 710). Koziol and Koziol (2020) believed the motivation to "avoid" (p. 710) versus the motivation to "achieve" (p. 710) are very different mechanisms. SHRM Staff (2010) also identified a Herzberg theory for motivating employees. SHRM Staff (2010) identified hygiene factors as "meeting basic expectations" (p. 4) and motivation factors as "leading to increased performance" (p. 4).

SHRM Staff (2010) referred to three additional motivational theories they felt could offer insight for leadership on how to motivate employees. Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory correlates an employee's belief that "high levels of effort" (SHRM Staff, 2010, p. 4) will lead to the "attainment of desired outcomes" (SHRM Staff, 2010, p.

4). SHRM Staff (2010) stated Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Maslow, 1943) specifies individuals must satisfy five basic needs, "psychological, safety, belongingness, self-esteem, and self-actualization" (p. 4). Once lower-level needs (i.e., psychological and safety) have been met, an individual focuses on higher-level needs (i.e., self-actualization), and "these are when they may begin to realize motivational behavior" (SHRM Staff, 2010, p. 4). Adam's equity theory considers an employee's perception of "fairness" associated with "work outcomes" as it relates to an employee's "work inputs" (SHRM Staff, 2010, p. 4). Adams (1963) theory suggests if an employee perceives unfairness, their performance will decrease and they will feel demotivated; however, if the employee feels "equity" (SHRM Staff, 2010, p. 4) in pairing their work input/output, their performance increases and their motivation is high.

Positive Leadership

Leadership styles can be viewed as a positive motivational technique if followers perceive the influence as empowering, inspiring, and motivating. Several leadership styles are considered a conduit for positive organizational results and increased productivity.

Contingent Reward Theory

Northouse (2016) described a contingent reward leadership style as a transactional style where there is an "exchange" (p. 171) between follower and leader. Items of value are provided for completed tasks. Thus, it is in the follower's best interest to support leadership requirements. A contingent reward leader "tries to obtain agreement from followers" (Northouse, 2016, p. 171), and then the task and reward are negotiated and paid at the completion of the task. A contingent reward leader is influential as it is in the

“best interest of the follower” (Northouse, 2016, p. 171) to complete the process or task associated with the follower’s reward.

A contingent reward leadership style focuses on exchanges, transactions, rewards, and punishments (Yammarino et al., 1998). Yammarino et al. (1998) believed a leader who used a contingent reward leadership style understood what their “followers’ needs and desires” (p. 1) were and validated their followers’ needs had been met through the successful completion of organizational processes and tasks. Followers must complete their tasks to receive their reward. Thus, a leader has the ability to expect specific outcomes in the contingent reward theory relationship. Rewards are contingent on performance, where the leader owns the reward, but the follower owns the performance (Yammarino et al., 1998).

Path-Goal Theory

A path-goal leadership style is a theory of “task” and “supervisor behavior” (House, 1996, p. 323). A supervisor communicates employee expectations, schedules work, and clarifies policies and procedures. The supervisor is supportive of goal obtainment and rewards success with both emotional and financial compensation (House, 1996). A path-goal leader is participative and encourages subordinates to make decisions concerning operations (House, 1996). A path-goal leader is focused on motivation and increasing the happiness of their followers (Northouse, 2016). A path-goal leader recognizes the type of leadership style a follower needs based on the task to be completed or the personality traits of the follower and displays the appropriate behaviors (Olowoselu et al., 2019).

Leadership behaviors include participative, supportive, directive, and achievement-oriented leadership approaches. A participative approach has the leader “appreciating” (Olowoselu, 2019, p. 451) the follower’s opinions and ideas, and encouraging, communicating, and supporting power sharing at all levels. A supportive approach has the leader friendly and approachable; they show “concern” (Olowoselu, 2019, p. 451) for the follower’s well-being and make leadership decisions with the follower’s penchants in mind. Olowoselu (2019) stated a directive approach had the leader giving very “specific assignments” (p. 452) to followers with the “exact process” (p. 452) for completing tasks. A directive approach is used for followers who are unfamiliar with organizational processes where satisfaction and motivation can be achieved through communicating organizational goals associated with task completion (Olowoselu, 2019). An achievement-oriented approach has the leader creating and communicating high-level requirements to the follower because the leader has a high level of “confidence” (Olowoselu et al., 2019, p. 453) that the follower will be successful.

A path-goal leader must communicate a wide range of rewards that are tied to performance for the criteria to be successful in this leadership style (Evans, 1974). Evans (1974) found a leader who was considerate created a positive effect on employee motivation. However, if the leader had conflict in the relationship, motivation was not successful, and the employee was not effective in task completion (Evans, 1974). Olowoselu et al. (2019) believed the application of path-goal leadership required an “interaction between leaders, subordinates, and institutional culture” (p. 450) if the leader expected to improve follower skills and knowledge.

Transformational Style

McLaurin and Al Amri (2008) defined transformational leadership as a leadership theory that must involve trust between leader and follower. A leader is tasked with motivating followers, and the leader must consider and fulfill the follower's needs because fulfilling their needs is the path to accomplishing organizational goals (McLaurin & Al Amri, 2008). A transformational leader will have less variability between power and influence than other leadership styles. Power and influence are not essential between the transformational leader and follower because they work in tandem in the attainment of common goals (McLaurin & Al Amri, 2008). Finally, a transformational leader encourages their follower's growth and personal development needs in their working relationship to ensure the success of organizational objectives (McLaurin & Al Amri, 2008).

Bărbintă et al. (2017) defined transformational leadership as a style that requires a "deep relationship between leaders and their teams" (p. 758). Transformational leadership has five dimensions, which include "inspiration, intellectual stimulation, development, orientation, and charisma" (Bărbintă et al., 2017, p. 759). Bărbintă et al. (2017) stated transformational leadership "radically opposes" (p. 759) a contingent reward style of leadership because it is steeped in power and influence.

Joo and Nam (2019) suggested transformational leaders are the most successful when they use their skills in "specific situations" (p. 50). Specific situations occur when their followers need individualized attention; focused attention provides followers motivation, inspiration, and influence (Joo & Nam, 2019). Bărbintă et al. (2017) also believed transformational leaders could motivate and inspire their teams, because

transformational leaders knew when they needed to use their charisma to encourage creativity, and a leader knows when a team member needed individual attention.

Yammarino and Dubinsky (1994) stated transformational leadership can accomplish extraordinary results because of the leader–follower “unique relationship” (p. 790).

Charismatic Style

Eatwell (2006) described the term “charisma” (p. 414) as a word St. Paul used to refer to the “gift of divine grace” (p. 414), where the recipient could heal or have the ability to prophesize. Weber (1968) believed leaders with charisma had received a “gift of grace” (p. 50) from God. Charismatic leadership theory emerged from path-goal theory. Charismatic theory is not only concerned with a leader’s effect on followers’ perceptions but also with followers’ emotions and self-esteem. House’s (1996) reformulated path-goal technique adopts the new charismatic theory fundamentals but also focuses on employee empowerment and job satisfaction.

Klaus and Heuser (1998) stated a charismatic leader is someone who has a “high need for power and extreme self-confidence” (p. 164); they have “high expectations for their followers” (p. 164) and were righteous in their personal beliefs. Kappler and Schmidt (2006) and Yammarino and Dubinsky (1994) found charismatic leaders have a positive effect on job satisfaction in an organizational framework. Kappler and Schmidt and Yammarino and Dubinsky stated followers of charismatic leaders set and achieve complex goals that result in improved task performance and ultimately, the follower’s job satisfaction. Kappler and Schmidt (2006) believed charismatic leaders have a “positive effect on follower performance and job satisfaction as well as on organizational outcomes” (p. 20).

Charismatic leadership has been described as both a positive and negative leadership style. Eatwell (2006) described both Hitler and Mussolini as charismatic leaders. Eatwell believed their ability to inspire followers was driven by their charismatic personalities. A charismatic personality has traits that manifest in “extraordinary self-confidence” (Eatwell, 2006, p. 142), which creates a need for the leader to receive attention, and in some instances, facilitates the leader achieving great success (Eatwell, 2006). Eatwell (2006) further stated a charismatic leader creates a “charismatic bond” (p. 142) between leader and follower, which can “inspire confidence in others” (p. 142).

Transformational and Charismatic Style

McLaurin and Al Amri (2008) believed leadership has “evolved from trait, behaviors, and situations to a more change-oriented approach” (p. 15). McLaurin and Al Amri asserted charismatic and transformational leadership are the two new emerging theories. Furthermore, McLaurin and Al Amri stated there are great similarities between the two leadership styles, such as vision and values; but the main difference is the leader’s personality and charisma.

Carton (2008) found both transformational and charismatic leadership styles have resulted in employee commitment and ownership of organizational vision. However, Carton found contingent reward theory to be a better predictor of employee performance, and employee commitment is associated with the transactional leadership process. Carton believed transformational and charismatic leadership will still inspire followers when an employee establishes qualitative and quantitative goals. An employee will successfully accomplish qualitative and quantitative goals as the leader uses a combined leadership

style (i.e., transformational and charismatic), which will impact employee satisfaction and, in turn, enhance employee performance.

Authentic Style

Azanza et al. (2013) defined authentic leadership as a process in which the leader has “great self-awareness” (p. 46) and can “self-regulate positive behaviors” (p. 46), which can result in the follower having “positive self-development” (p. 46). Authentic leaders create honest and transparent relationships with followers, which translates into a culture of support. Authentic leaders understand their limitations and strengths, which can affect the team if not evaluated with pellucidity by sharing their true self with followers (Azanza et al., 2013). Azanza et al. (2013) believed a highly flexible organizational culture could create an environment “based on support” (p. 45), which drives innovation and consequently can become a “breeding ground for authentic leadership” (p. 45).

Negative Leadership

The wrong leadership style can create high employee turnover and poor organizational returns. Pyc et al. (2017) evaluated how the correlation between abusive management and authoritarian leadership style impacted employee work performance. Pyc et al. stated negative leadership techniques resulted in employees feeling anxiety and depression. Pyc et al. found the effects of abusive management styles cost \$23.8 billion annually in the United States between health care costs, employee absenteeism, and loss of productivity. Unfortunately, Pyc et al. (2017) also found “13.6% of employees within the United States” (p. 196) still stated they were victims of abusive managers.

Pyc et al. (2017) defined abusive management as an employee’s having continual exposure to mistreatment by a manager. The manager engages in both verbal and

nonverbal hostile behaviors but excludes physical contact. The employee feels victimized, which can result in increased employee turnover and poor productivity results. Abusive management behavior has a direct correlation with employees having negative behavior toward both the manager and organization (Pyc et al., 2017).

Hogan et al. (2021) stated there was a link between a leader's personality and whether the leader will be successful or ineffective. Hogan et al. (2021) went on to state most academics believed "personality was irrelevant to leadership" (p. 199); however, the academics were not studying leadership failures. Leaders who have trouble delegating or creating team environments or who are reactive and allow emotion to drive actions typically fail their organizations and are considered to have a "personality defect" (Hogan et al., 2021, p. 199).

Hogan et al. (2021) believed high-potential leaders could move from success to failure by allowing their "strengths to become weaknesses" (p. 202), their "confidence becomes arrogance" (p. 202), their "passion becomes volatility" (p. 202), and so on. Hogan et al. found there were a significant number of bad leaders in modern industries. Hogan et al. found managers failed an average of 50% of the time because they were unable to deal with workplace stress. Employees reported their manager or leader was the most stressful part of their job and the reason most left their organizations.

Hogan et al. (2021) found, "Bad leadership outweighed the positive consequences of good leadership" (p. 201); thus, an employee's negative relationship with a leader would have a stronger effect than a positive relationship with their leader. Hogan et al. (2021) used Herzberg's (1974) research as an example, stating Herzberg found improving an employee's motivation through offering growth opportunities had little positive effect

on followers; however, removing a toxic leader had a significant positive effect on the employee.

Laila et al. (2019) found abusive management was positively correlated to workplace deviance and employee emotional exhaustion. Laila et al. described deviant behavior as the intentional act of an employee violating organizational processes and procedures with the desire to damage the organization, manager, or both. Laila et al. (2019) defined abusive management as a behavior that may include “threats, public criticism, tantrums, ridicule in front of other employees, and not providing important information” (pp. 335–336) to the employee.

Pyc et al. (2017) found both abusive management and authoritarian leadership are ineffective leadership styles that result in employees having negative emotions toward both the leader and the organization. Negative emotions manifested in anxiety, depression, exhaustion, and physical symptoms, including nausea (Pyc et al., 2017). However, Wang et al. (2016) conducted research in a harsh economic environment and found an “authoritarian leadership style might outperform the transformational leadership style” (p. 1081) in team effectiveness.

X. Huang et al. (2015) described the need for an efficiency perspective (i.e., authoritarian) versus a motivational perspective (i.e., transformational) in organizations that require subordinate control where situations could require decisive actions. Manufacturing that requires operational efficiencies may create the environment for a successful authoritarian leader because successful operations might not drive employee privileges or behaviors, such as flexible decision making and creative problem solving required in a transformational leader.

Abusive management not only negatively affects an employee but also negatively affects the organization. In response to abusive management, an employee might cope with the behavior by engaging in “counterproductive work or retaliation” (Laila et al., 2019, p. 335). Victims of abusive management had mental health problems that included anxiety and exhaustion, which caused some employees to retaliate against the organization, managers, and other employees. Abusive management creates a toxic work environment for all employees (Laila et al., 2019). Organizational policymakers should monitor managers who are displaying abusive behaviors because these behaviors can turn loyal employees into unsatisfied employees who no longer provide value to the organization (Laila et al., 2019). Organizations that believe labor is a precious resource need to protect their assets by removing abusive managers from their roles. A robust reporting tool should be put into place in the organization that allows employees to report any abusive management behavior.

Authoritarian Style

Pyc et al. (2017) defined an authoritarian leadership style as a “dogmatic, rigid, and rule-bound type of management style” (p. 197). Wang et al. (2016) defined authoritarian leadership as the leader “asserting strong authority and control over subordinates” (p. 1070), whereby the leader expects complete obedience from their team. Pyc et al. (2017) found authoritarian leaders are affiliated with a personality syndrome known as authoritarianism, which means the leader is characterized as having a “rigid adherence to norms, submission to authority, and stereotyping” (p. 197).

An authoritarian leadership style has been found to reduce employee commitment to the organization and create a negative opinion of the leader (Wang et al., 2016). An

authoritarian leadership style was also found to have a negative correlation with team member job performance (Wang et al., 2016). Wang et al. (2016) found a negative correlation between authoritarian leadership and an employee's willingness to stay with an organization. Authoritarian leaders feel a need for structure, and they need to create policies and rules to assure employee compliance. Employees have low empowerment to complete tasks in creative ways when their leader uses an authoritarian leadership style (Pyc et al., 2017).

Differential Style

Wang et al. (2016) defined a differential leadership style as the leader behaving differently when managing subordinates that the leader defines as "in-group" (p. 1069) versus managing subordinates defined as "out-of-group" (p. 1069). A differential leader shows favoritism toward in-group subordinates by providing them with more resources, increased communication, and more rewards than out-of-group subordinates (Wang et al., 2016). Wang et al. (2016) also revealed using a differential leadership style had a better effect on "in-group employees" (p. 1069) versus "out-of-group employees" (p. 1069) willingness to stay with the organization.

Authoritarian and Differential Style

Wang et al. (2016) believed both authoritarian and differential leadership styles were born out of "Chinese familism and Confucianism" (p. 1070). Wang et al. (2016) researched authoritarian and differential leadership styles for their effectiveness on employee turnover in Mainland China and Taiwan. Wang et al. found a paternalistic leader drove an increase in Chinese employee turnover, less commitment to the team, and

a lack of satisfaction with the leader and the team. These specific leadership techniques have not been considered effective in U.S. labor markets.

Wang et al. (2016) referred to authoritarian and differential leadership processes as aligning with the “carrot or the stick” (p. 1070) philosophy. Wang et al. stated an authoritarian leader is granted absolute authority, somewhat like a king, and is aligned with the stick analogy, whereas a differential leader attaches compliance with favoritism of the in-group subordinates, aligning with the carrot. Wang et al. found the carrot and stick philosophy can be effective in influencing subordinate behavior if a leader knows which subordinates need the carrot versus the stick. Wang et al. also found if an authoritarian leader is introduced into a differentially led team, in-group subordinates respond with more opposition than out-of-group team members.

Organizational Culture

Hofstede (1980), who has been recognized as a cultural studies pioneer, stated human “mental programming” (pp. 17–18) is divided into three levels: (a) the universal level, which is the least unique and shared by most people; (b) the individual level, which is truly unique for each person; and (c) the collective level, which is common to people associated with certain groups and where language, values, and culture are learned.

Hofstede (1980) defined culture as a consistent pattern of “thinking, feeling, and reacting” (p. 23) entrenched in values and ideas.

Schein (2009) described culture as, “[A] pattern of shared tacit assumptions that was learned by a group as it solved its problems” (p. 27). Elkordy (2022) recognized organizational culture as, “A set of processes binding organizational members together based on the shared pattern of basic values, beliefs, and assumptions in an organization”

(p. 22.). MacIntosh and Doherty (2010) described organizational culture as commonly known values and beliefs that guide employee behaviors.

Globalization—the “increased interdependence (economic, social, technical, and political) between nations” (Northouse, 2016, p. 427)—has been emerging in the world markets since the end of World War II. International trade has increased as a result of globalization, which imposed cultural exchanges. The amalgamation of different cultures in the workforce requires leaders to recognize and understand their employee’s cultural differences and needs (Northouse, 2016). Northouse (2016) defined culture as the “learned beliefs, values, rules, norms, symbols, and traditions” (p. 428) that a group of people collectively accept as the standard. Standards the group shares and accepts make it a culturally unique group.

Hartnell et al. (2016) believed organizational culture is comprised of “shared values and norms” (p. 848) expressed by organizational members. Hartnell et al. (2016) defined cultural norms as the instrument that “influences employee behavior” (p. 848) toward accomplishing organizational tasks and the organization’s culture informs the employees how they should “think, feel, and behave” (p. 848). Organizational culture is also believed to be the “environment” of an organization, which includes the types of relationships that managers have with employees (Ficarra et al., 2020). The culture is built based on employee trust in management and the employee’s sense of organizational worth or their validation of being appreciated through praise and recognition (Ficarra et al., 2020). Isac et al. (2021) believed organizational culture was the “organization’s identity” (p. 139) that gradually developed and could act as a source of empowerment and motivation for both employees and leaders.

Types of Organizational Culture

Organizational cultures can be categorized in a multitude of ways. Isac et al. (2021) stated the type of culture an organization adopts is tied to the type of business and its “corporate ideologies” (p. 139), and one form of organizational culture is not “superior to another” (p. 139). Isac et al. (2021) identified eight different types of organizational culture: (a) bureaucratic/hierarchy, (b) clan, (c) entrepreneurial/adhocracy, (d) market, (e) power, (f) role, (g) achievement, and (h) support cultures (pp. 143–144), which can be adopted by an organization based on organizational needs. The organization’s culture can be distinguished based on the organization’s “distribution of power, being people-oriented versus task-oriented, internal versus external focus, flexible versus stability, and the needs and orientation of the employees within the organization” (Janićijević et al., 2018, p. 87). Janićijević et al. (2018) used Handy’s (1991) organizational culture classification, which identified two dimensions. The first dimension relies on values and norms concerning the distribution of power, and the second dimension relies on the focus of the organization, which results in four types of organizational culture (Janićijević et al., 2018). Handy’s two dimensions break down into four classifications: (a) power, (b) people, (c) role, and (d) task culture.

Power Culture

Janićijević et al. (2018) described power culture as a combination of people orientation and unequal distribution of power with the emphasis of power on the leader. A leader in a power culture organization puts their personal touch on every project and process, and the relationships between leader and employee are sound. Janićijević et al. described power culture relationships as family-like, where a leader assumes

responsibility for followers, and followers unquestionably obey the leader. Isac et al. (2021) defined power culture as a one-man leadership type, and the rules, policies, and all decisions are outlined by leadership. Resources are controlled by leadership; employees are expected to respect the reporting structures, and leadership's ownership of power is well-known in the culture (Isac et al., 2021).

Role Culture

Janićijević et al. (2018) described role culture as a combination of unequal distribution of power and task orientation in a bureaucratic organization. Janićijević et al. (2018) stated a role culture organization is considered a "goal-oriented structure" (p. 89), with its leaders requiring "formal rules and procedures" (p. 89). A machine is the metaphor that would describe the organization with a role culture because the organization focuses on "impersonally established roles" (Janićijević et al., 2018, p. 89) instead of focusing on the employee as an individual. A bureaucratic/hierarchy culture aligns with role culture and is characterized as having "formal rules, procedures, and standards" (Isac et al., 2021, p. 143), where leadership drives all policies and decisions. Isac et al. (2021) also described role culture in an organization as one that adopts clearly defined tasks where employees follow outlined processes. The reporting structure is specific with employees abiding by organizational rules in a role culture (Isac et al., 2021).

Task Culture

Janićijević et al. (2018) described task culture as a combination of equal distribution of power and task orientation. An organization that embodies a task culture strives for all organizational values and norms to drive toward achievement and success

as its primary goal. A task culture organization values achievement, autonomy, skill, and control because the organization's reason for existence is to complete required tasks (Janićijević et al., 2018).

Hartnell et al. (2016) defined an organization with task culture as having “shared values, structured tasks, articulated expectations, and a focus on achieving goals” (p. 848). Achievement culture also focuses on employees completing tasks and achieving organizational goals (Isac et al., 2021). The mission and vision of the organization are the guiding light in an achievement culture organization because they direct employee performance (Isac et al., 2021).

People Culture

Janićijević et al. (2018) described people culture as a combination of equal distribution of power and a focus on employees. People culture is identified as the democratic culture because it focuses on distributing power to all members. The organization only exists because of its members and their focus on successfully meeting individual tasks and goals in the organization (Janićijević et al., 2018). Support culture aligns with people's culture because it focuses on employees and recognizes their efforts (Isac et al., 2021). Employee–employer trust is vital to the success of an organization that adopts a support culture.

Clan culture also aligns with people culture because it focuses on “teamwork, collaboration, and commitments of the individual” (Isac et al., 2021, p. 143) as the organizational goal. Employees go above and beyond organizational expectations of the clan culture because the employee is the focus in a clan culture (Isac et al., 2021).

Hartnell et al. (2016) described relationship culture as an organizational culture that

focuses on growing employees and emphasizing teamwork. A relationship culture rewards employees for speaking up and celebrates employees making organizational decisions, which aligns with people culture (Hartnell et al., 2016).

Entrepreneurial/Adhocracy Culture

Isac et al. (2021) described entrepreneurial/adhocracy culture as an organizational culture that encourages change in the organization through innovation and creativity. Employees in the organization are empowered to find a way to compete in the market by using resourcefulness, enthusiastic originality, and ingenuity because these attributes are required for success (Isac et al., 2021).

Isac et al. (2021) described market culture as an organizational culture that only focuses on “profitability and competitiveness” (p. 143) and where employees do not socialize or collaborate with leadership as a rule. Employees only perform tasks based on formal job descriptions and nothing more because they do not commit to the organization (Isac et al., 2021).

Organizational Culture and Job Satisfaction

Organizational culture affects job satisfaction because an employee’s perception of organizational values and norms must align with their individual values and norms for the employee to be satisfied (Janićijević et al., 2018). Organizational leaders should evaluate employee expectations of job characteristics because a mismatch can result in unsatisfied employees (Janićijević et al., 2018). Janićijević et al. (2018) analyzed each type of organizational culture and found some but not all needs were met by each one. Janićijević et al. found power culture was successful in meeting an employee’s need to belong but lacked in the need for growth and safety. Decision making is highly

centralized, and the leadership style in a power culture can be charismatic or authoritarian.

Janićijević et al. (2018) also found role culture was successful in meeting an employee's need for safety but did not fulfill the need for growth or belonging. Processes and procedures are the focus of a power culture; emphasis is not placed on the employee. Janićijević et al. found people and task culture met an employee's need for growth, achievement, and self-actualization; however, they did not fulfill the need to belong or for safety. Task and people cultures focus on creativity, innovation, and competition between employees to drive organizational success.

Janićijević et al. (2018) evaluated if organizational culture had an effect on employee job satisfaction with both variables, organizational culture and job satisfaction, being operationalized at the individual level. Organizational culture was operationalized using Handy's (1991) classification, which identified power, people, role, and task culture, and job satisfaction was operationalized using the respondent's perception of personal importance versus satisfaction with job characteristics (Janićijević et al., 2018). Job characteristics that were used were "coworkers, pay, advancement opportunities, and working conditions" (Janićijević et al., 2018, p. 98), because these characteristics had been used in prior research.

Janićijević et al. (2018) used "a sample of 324 employees from 16 different organizations" (p. 96) who were selected based on the type of business ownership, the location, age, size, and the category of business. Respondents were randomly selected from the organization's directory, with between 14–38 per organization, and 81% of respondents were employees and 19% were managers. Janićijević et al.'s results indicated

specific job characteristics had a significant relationship with different types of organizational culture. The largest gap was discovered between the power and role organizational culture associated with most job characteristics. The least significant differences were found between power and task cultures with the majority of job characteristics. Janićijević et al. indicated the type of organizational culture did influence job satisfaction, with validity and reliability assessed using Cronbach's alpha of .7.

ElKordy (2022) stated there has been a substantial amount of research indicating a positive relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction; however, most of the research was conducted in Western countries. ElKordy (2022) conducted an online study on transformational leadership and organizational culture's influence on employee outcomes with all 192 participants enrolled in an executive master of business administration program. Participants were 72% male and 27% female, well educated, and between the ages of 21 and 40 years old.

Elkordy (2022) found transformational leadership had a considerable positive influence (0.35) on satisfaction, and culture had a stronger positive impact (0.42) on satisfaction. Transformation leadership and organizational culture together accounted for 45% of the variance on employee satisfaction, which supported previous research (ElKordy, 2022). Elkordy's results dictated leaders must understand how shared values and norms (i.e., culture) positively influence job satisfaction. Schein (2009) claimed if leadership is not "managing culture, then culture is managing them" (p. 28).

MacIntosh and Doherty (2010) investigated the impact of organizational culture on job satisfaction. MacIntosh and Doherty (2010) believed organizational culture was a "system of social controls that influences employee attitudes and behaviors through the

values and beliefs operating within the organization” (p. 106). The Cultural Index for Fitness Organizations to measure culture instrument was developed to perform Macintosh and Doherty’s research; thus, results of their research require validation.

Organizational Culture and Leadership

Culture can be identified and classified into multiple dimensions based on differing characteristics. Hofstede (1980, 2001) categorized five dimensions of cultural differences: (a) power distance, (b) uncertainty avoidance, (c) individualism–collectivism, (d) masculinity–femininity, and (e) long-term–short-term orientation. Hofstede described power distance as the societal strength and acceptance of social hierarchy where power is either distributed equally or held by specific individuals.

Hofstede (2001) stated a high-power distance culture would encourage rank and endorse a bureaucratic authority, a low-power distance culture supports a shared leadership style, and decision making is distributed. Hofstede described uncertainty avoidance as the degree of a group’s doubt and distress they feel over the unpredictability of upcoming events. In a high uncertainty–avoidance culture, formal beliefs and codes would be maintained, there would be resistance to change, only calculated risks would be assumed, and competition and conflict would be undesirable. A low uncertainty-avoidance culture would be more informal and accepting of change. Likewise, risk taking is more accepted, the culture requires fewer rules and formal codes, and competition and conflict are accepted as normal.

An individualist culture emphasizes the needs and obligations of the individual versus the group’s requirements (Hofstede, 1980, 2001). The individual’s decisions are considered to ameliorate compared to group decision making, and self-interest and self-

actualization are priorities. A collectivist culture emphasizes the needs of the group or team and focuses on relationships and the attainment of shared goals. In a collectivist culture, decision making is a group task, and affiliation and connection to the group are vital for success.

A high masculinity culture focuses on material success, where gender roles are clearly defined, and male employees hold a significant number of power positions, there is a large wage gap, and failing is a catastrophe (Hofstede, 1980, 2001). A high femininity culture focuses on relationships and quality of life; gender roles are viewed as overlapping with power positions, wages are virtually equal, and failing is seen as a possibility for the next opportunity. Finally, a long-term-oriented culture focuses on the future, perseverance is essential, and traditions and social obligations are respected, versus a short-term-oriented culture that focuses on the present or even the past, where tradition is respected and immediate gratification is important (Hofstede, 1980, 2001).

Northouse (2016) described two concepts leaders must consider as they lead multicultural teams: “ethnocentrism and prejudice” (p. 428). Ethnocentrism is the inclination to prioritize an individual’s own cultural values and ideas over another person’s cultural values and ideas, which can cause leadership to not fully accept the viewpoints and ideas of another group. Thus, leadership awareness of ethnocentrism can help drive the inclusivity of perspectives (Northouse, 2016). Prejudice is a “fixed attitude, belief or emotion” (Northouse, 2016, p. 429) an employee or leader holds about another employee or group. A leader or employee who is prejudiced holds “inflexible generalizations” (Northouse, 2016, p. 429) they refuse to resolve, even when provided evidence of the contrary. Prejudices are typically considered a racial problem; however,

they include areas involving gender, sexual orientation, and age. Both prejudice and ethnocentrism impede a leader's ability to positively understand cultural differences and value an individual's history (Northouse, 2016).

All organizational leaders are influenced by cultural differences, and a strategic leader will adapt and make changes when deemed necessary to align with specific groups (Eti-Tofinga et al., 2016). Cultures can evolve over time based on societal transformations when a successful leader responds and adapts their style centered on evolution. Eti-Tofinga et al. (2016) believed leadership style varies based on cultural norms that are influenced by "power distance, individualism, and collectivism" (p. 536).

Azmy et al. (2023) evaluated the work environment shaped by both transformational leadership style and organizational culture. Azmy et al. (2023) believed an organization's culture can "significantly influence employees' behaviors" (p. 96) and consequently improve organizational performance at all levels. Azmy et al.'s quantitative study involved 101 employees in several automotive component manufacturing companies. Azmy et al. (2023) found organizational culture had a significant effect on employee performance, and "enhanced job satisfaction by 45.3%" (p. 115). An employee who perceived a strong organizational culture also found satisfaction in their role at the organization. However, a transformational leadership style did not have a statistically significant effect on job satisfaction. Azmy et al. found transformational leadership only enhanced job satisfaction by 10.3%, which is in contradiction to several previous studies.

Hartnell et al. (2016) stated both leadership style and organizational culture indicated to employees that fulfilling their organizational requirements and creating relationships is "valued, encouraged, and supported" (p. 849) by the organization.

Hartnell et al.'s (2016) research on the effect of dissimilarity and similarity of leadership and organizational culture had mixed results because both had positive and negative organizational outcomes. The positive effects of similarity theory, which aligns culture and leadership, are clear signals to employees concerning expected behaviors and the collective acceptance of leadership direction. The negative effect of similarity theory is the continuity of organization and leadership may result in employees being myopic in their drive to complete organizational goals because of the redundancies in leadership and culture (Hartnell et al., 2016). The positive effect of dissimilarity theory is leadership can fulfill employee needs that are left unmet based on the organization's culture. If an organization has a weak task culture, the leadership team could adopt a strong task focus to ensure employees are fulfilling organizational goals (Hartnell et al., 2016). The negative effect of dissimilarity theory is the inconsistent messaging employees receive, which can result in a "gap between espoused and enacted values" (Hartnell et al., 2016, p. 849).

Dula and Tang (2021) found young people transitioning into the workforce desire a challenging career where the organization has an established organizational culture that supports positive leadership. As global markets drive stiffer competition, organizations need to find an edge that drives efficiencies and quality into their workforce. Dula and Tang believed empowered employees who adopt organizational vision can be a competitive advantage because they are inspired by a positive leadership style and the organization's culture. Dula and Tang's quantitative study investigated and interpreted the type of leadership style and the organizational culture in place that supported effective production.

Leaders in an organization are the “principal architects of culture” (Dula & Tang, 2021, p. 24); however, a strong proven culture can influence the types of leadership styles. Dula and Tang (2021) found leadership is the driving force of an organization, and variation in leadership styles can impact both organizational performance and employee satisfaction. Dula and Tang stated the relationship between culture and leadership influences organizational environments, which can highlight the need for change.

Job Satisfaction

Aziri (2011) stated although there has been significant research on job satisfaction, researchers have been unable to come to an agreement on what exactly job satisfaction is. Thus, there remains no final or conclusive definition. However, many researchers have provided their approach to the definition. Hoppock (1935) believed the definition of job satisfaction was internal to the employee’s feelings and influenced by a combination of “environmental, psychological and physiological conditions” (p. 47). Vroom (1964) defined job satisfaction as focusing on the position or role of the employee and the “employee’s optimistic or pessimistic feelings regarding the work they accomplish” (p. 99). Job satisfaction is the positive feelings an employee has about the work they perform, and Aziri (2011) believed job satisfaction is the force that drives employee motivation.

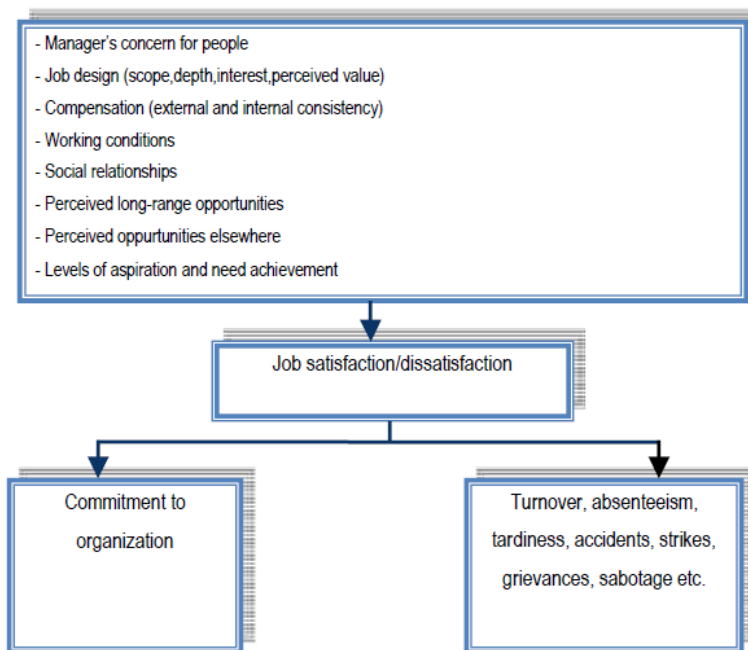
Azmy et al. (2023) found, “Job satisfaction encompasses an employee’s overall attitude” (p. 97) toward many aspects of their position, including both psychological and physical factors. Azmy et al. (2023) stated it is crucial that leadership understands job satisfaction because it provides insight into organizational programs, thereby offering

feedback to leadership. Azmy et al. believed job satisfaction has a pivotal role in enhancing employee performance and improving overall organizational success.

Job satisfaction has been directly tied to organizational effectiveness; thus, ensuring leadership is mindful of employee needs should be an organizational focus that results in improved efficiencies. Rue and Byars (2003) believed job satisfaction is influenced by employment factors. Organizational leadership should understand the effect employment factors have on employees, because satisfaction and dissatisfaction can also be the result of a variety of work environments (see Figure 1).

Figure 1

Determinants of Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction



Note. Adapted from *Management, Skills, and Application* (10th ed., p. 259), by L. W. Rue and L. Byars, 2003, McGraw-Hill/Irwin.

Unions and Job Satisfaction

Bryson et al. (2004) described a labor union as simply a group of workers who come together to negotiate their terms of employment (i.e., wages, benefits, or working conditions). By negotiating as a group, instead of as a single person, unions have more leverage in negotiations and can often win more favorable terms. Union membership is typically tied to an individual's desire for better pay and benefits.

The labor movement in recent years has given the impression that unionization is on the rise with organizing campaigns and high-profile strikes (Nolan, 2023). Laborers, like truck drivers and grocery store clerks, were considered vital and were required to continue working during the COVID-19 global pandemic, leaving these employees feeling unappreciated, underpaid, and overworked without proper representation (Nolan, 2023). Nolan (2023) blamed the pandemic and an unemployment crisis for the recent support of organized labor, which has not been seen in a generation. However, unionization is not on the rise, and research has shown union density was at 15% in the 1990s in the United States but fell to just 10% in 2023 (Nolan, 2023). Union organizers must pounce on the enthusiasm the pandemic provided concerning unionization or recent interest will wane and union membership will become an exclusive club (Nolan, 2023).

Bryson et al. (2004) found employees who are dissatisfied with their jobs and or wages may decide to join a union to use the collective voice to communicate grievances to the organization. Unions create a voice for their members where they can communicate to the organization their dissatisfaction via the grieving process or during contract negotiations through the collective bargaining process (Schwochau, 1987). Laroche (2017) believed the greater an employee's job dissatisfaction, the stronger the union's

position in its collective bargaining power. Bryson et al. (2004) found there was a “reverse causal problem” (p. 443) because unsatisfied individuals join unions; thus, union employees are unsatisfied.

Giles and Holley (1978) found unions did not believe collective bargaining was the correct vehicle for obtaining quality of work benefits like job enrichment programs. Giles and Holley (1978) found union members felt job enrichment was a “valid but not crucial issue” (p. 729) and bargaining time should be focused on financial issues. Additionally, Giles and Holley (1978) found rank and file union members wanted collective bargaining to focus on “pay, fringe benefits, and job security” (p. 726) versus focusing on job enrichment programs.

Pfeffer and Davis-Blake (1990) found there has been significant research evaluating the effects of unions on employee job satisfaction. The body of research indicated unionized workers reported they were less satisfied with most aspects of their work compared to nonunion workers, and union membership had a considerable negative effect on union employees’ job satisfaction (Borjas, 1979; Schwochau, 1987). Bryson et al. (2004) found union membership may have a causal impact on a worker’s job satisfaction. Bryson et al. reported union members’ satisfaction levels were significantly lower than nonunion members.

Borjas (1979) believed the lower level of job satisfaction was associated with the development of the voice hypothesis, which argued “unionization politicized the workforce and made workers more critical toward the workplace” (p. 25). Bryson et al. (2004) and Pfeffer and Davis-Blake (1990) argued early research was flawed because it did not control for specific job dimensions, such as the differences in union versus

nonunion work environments. Bryson et al. (2004) also believed early research did not distinguish between “satisfaction with the union and management” (p. 442) and an employee’s job satisfaction.

Blanchflower et al.’s (2022) research on union membership and job satisfaction contradicted previous research. Blanchflower et al. used data from nearly 2 million participants in the United States and Europe and found a statistically significant partial correlation between union membership and job satisfaction. Blanchflower et al. found, in the United States and Europe, job satisfaction changed from negative to positive in the 2000s, and members were less likely to be worried, sad, or stressed.

Manufacturing Industry

Globalization has created an environment that requires manufacturing firms to change the way they operate to stay relevant and competitive (Hotek, 2003). Changes include organizational environment, adding new technologies, and the “reformation of first-level supervision” (Hotek, 2003, p. 13). Noruzy et al. (2013) also described the need for manufacturing firms to constantly engage in processes that make the organization more competitive through improved organizational relationships. Employee perception of leadership behavior and the organization’s culture can result in job satisfaction, which can be a competitive advantage resulting in improved outputs (Noruzy et al., 2013).

Olasupo (2011) investigated if there was a “relationship between organizational culture, leadership style, and job satisfaction within a Nigerian manufacturing organization” (p. 159). Competition in the brewing manufacturing industry in Nigeria was stiff, which had led to employees being burnt out because they were overworked. To ensure timely completion of tasks, leadership wanted to validate employees who had job

satisfaction because satisfaction can result in “enhanced performance, reduced absenteeism, reduced turnover rates, enhanced organizational citizenship behavior, reduced labor militancy, worker well-being, and customer satisfaction” (Olasupo, 2011, p. 160).

Olasupo (2011) believed job satisfaction was employee specific and depended on personal and organizational variables. Personal variables included (a) personality, (b) health, (c) work–life balance, and (d) personal values. Organizational variables included: (a) pay, (b) organizational structure, (c) promotion structure, (d) working conditions, and (e) the job itself. Additional job satisfaction influencers were (a) leadership style, (b) employee involvement, and (c) organizational culture. Organizational culture in Nigeria was segmented into the dominant culture, which represented the organization’s core values, and the subculture that may have existed in departments. Olasupo (2011) defined leadership as a “relationship concept” (p. 160) that allowed a leader to influence subordinates to achieve the organization’s goals.

Olasupo’s (2011) study was a quantitative correlational research design with a sample of 150 manufacturing employees. Olasupo concluded job satisfaction was not influenced by either leadership style or organizational culture in a Nigerian manufacturing organization. Participants found the organization to have a competitive culture followed by bureaucratic, innovative, and finally, community culture rating, which indicated a low emphasis on relationships. Participants perceived the leadership style to be democratic or employee centered. Limitations included the study being correlational, which simply established relationships between variables without causality, and the use of a single manufacturing organization (Olasupo, 2011).

Visvanathan et al. (2018) explored the “impact of leadership style and organizational culture on job satisfaction of employees in the Malaysian manufacturing industry” (p. 247). Growth of the manufacturing sector in Malaysia had been substantial, with intense competition, which drove long working hours and work overload on employees, leading to a high turnover rate. To maintain a competitive advantage, manufacturing leadership wanted to influence employees’ organizational commitment by evaluating how to create job satisfaction.

Visvanathan et al. (2018) found many influences that created and established job satisfaction, including compensation, benefits, treatment of employees, trust between subordinates and leadership, and the job itself. Transformational and transactional leadership styles, along with a supportive organizational culture, were the combination Visvanathan et al. believed would create the most job satisfaction for manufacturing employees.

Visvanathan et al.’s (2018) study was a quantitative descriptive analysis with a focus on using “average, frequency, and means to calculate the data” (p. 254). Correlational research emphasized the impact of the variables: leadership style and organizational culture. Visvanathan et al.’s sample consisted of 127 Malaysian manufacturing employees, with data collected using an online tool via Statistical Package for the Social Sciences.

Visvanathan et al. (2018) indicated a transformational and transactional leadership style contributed to Malaysian manufacturing employees having higher job satisfaction. However, the impact of organizational culture did affect if employees felt satisfied. A supportive organizational culture, aligned with a transformational leadership style,

promoted employee job satisfaction; however, employees were not satisfied with a supportive culture and a transactional leadership style. Both innovative and bureaucratic organizational cultures aligned with either transformational or transactional leadership styles and did not promote employee satisfaction (Visvanathan et al., 2018).

Summary

Chapter 2 provided literature that supported or did not support the results of the current study. The definition of leadership, motivation, and a description of motivational theories were followed by some examples of positive and negative leadership styles. Organizational culture was defined, followed by some examples of the types of organizational culture, and then literature describing how organizational culture affects both job satisfaction and leadership. Job satisfaction was defined, along with the complexities of the effects of unionization on job satisfaction. The chapter ended with the complexities of manufacturing firms' relationships with organizational culture, leadership style, and job satisfaction. Chapter 3 provides the quantitative research design.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Chapter 3 describes the quantitative research design used to explore the relationship between an organization's culture, which is influenced by leadership style, and the influence they have on employee job satisfaction. Chapter 3 also details the research questions (RQ) with associated hypotheses. Finally, Chapter 3 describes the sample and instruments used in the current study, which includes scoring and analysis, and the instruments' reliability and validation.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the current quantitative study was to examine the relationship between leadership style and organizational culture and the effect of both on employee job satisfaction. Cooke and Lafferty (1994) linked different leadership styles to the type of culture displayed in an organization. Large corporations often struggle to create corporate cultures that create employee satisfaction (Ammons, 2021).

For the current study, a purposive sample of 25 retired employees from a large west coast manufacturing corporation was selected. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) was used to assess leadership style. The Organizational Culture Inventory (OCI) was used to allow participants to quantitatively express their perceptions of the corporate culture. The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) was used to measure participants' overall satisfaction with their job. The goal of the current study was to provide insights for corporate leadership into the impact of leadership style and organizational culture on employee satisfaction.

Hypotheses and Research Questions

A substantial body of literature exists on leadership style, organizational culture, and how they influence job satisfaction; however, little research is available on the influence of leadership and culture on job satisfaction for manufacturing employees from a large corporation (Hofstede, 2001; House, 1996; Northouse, 2016; Schein, 2010). The RQs for the current study were intended to explore survey participant attitudes regarding the independent variables (i.e., leadership style and organizational culture) and the dependent variable (i.e., job satisfaction) while they were active manufacturing employees.

The current quantitative study used three RQs that evaluated the relationship between different leadership styles and organizational cultures and their relationship to employee job satisfaction. The hypotheses (H) presented reflected the findings of previous research from multiple authors, for example, Bass and Avolio (2004) on leadership style, Hofstede (2001) on organizational culture, and Schein (2010) on leadership and culture.

The following RQs and hypotheses were addressed:

RQ1: Is there a relationship between a transformational leadership style and constructive organizational culture?

H1₀: A transformational leadership style will not be significantly related to a constructive organizational culture.

H1_a: A transformational leadership style will have a significant positive relationship to a constructive organizational culture.

RQ2: Is there a relationship between a transformational leadership style and employee job satisfaction?

H2₀: A transformational leadership style will not be significantly related to employee job satisfaction.

H2_a: A transformational leadership style will have a significant positive relationship with employee job satisfaction.

RQ3: Is there a relationship between a constructive organizational culture and employee job satisfaction?

H3₀: A constructive organizational culture will not be significantly related to employee job satisfaction.

H3_a: A constructive organizational culture will be significantly related to employee job satisfaction.

Past researchers have indicated workplace tenure and employee age may also affect employee job satisfaction (Baykara & Orhan, 2020; Carter et al., 2019; Koziol & Koziol, 2020). The sample size in the current study was too small and purposeful to treat tenure and age as confounding variables. However, to provide further insight, the relationship between tenure and age was explored as to their effect on employee job satisfaction. In addition, a multiple regression model was used to determine the effect of the independent variables (i.e., leadership and culture) on the dependent variable (i.e., employee job satisfaction).

Research Design

A correlational quantitative research design was used to assess the influence of leadership style (i.e., independent variable), which was operationalized using the MLQ,

organizational culture (i.e., independent variable), which was operationalized using the OCI, and job satisfaction (i.e., dependent variable), which was operationalized using the MSQ (Creswell, 2014).

Population

The target population included employees who had worked and were retired at the time of the current study from a large manufacturing organization. The organization chosen employed more than 10,000 people in more than a dozen countries at the time of the current study. The current study focused on employees who were retired from facilities located on the West Coast of the United States. The organization had both labor and professional union employees.

Sample

The sample included 25 employees who were associated with either the labor union, the professional union, or nonrepresented and retired from the organization. All volunteers who had retired from the large manufacturing facility were provided an opportunity to participate in the current study. The minimum sample size of 30 was obtained which was necessary to allow for quantitative analysis of the data.

Participant Selection

Initial participants for the current study were recruited from a group of retirees who met regularly in the Pacific Northwest. A snowball sampling approach was also used to identify additional participants. During the initial contact with participants, I provided a brief description of the study (see Appendix A). Individuals who agreed to participate were asked to provide their contact email, phone number, and physical addresses to receive the required instruments. Participants were asked to voluntarily complete a

demographic questionnaire identifying race, gender, age, years of service, years since retirement, and union affiliation (see Appendix B).

Protection of Participants

All study participants received an informed consent document that described the purpose of the current study (see Appendix C). All participant data were kept confidential. I completed a course on the Protection of Human Research Participants to ensure the current study was conducted in an ethical manner. Validation of my successful completion of the course, which indicated date completed and certification number, can be found in Appendix D.

Data Collection

An email was sent to participants with a link to the MLQ. Data collection for the MLQ was accomplished using the online survey instrument, which was developed by Mind Garden Inc (see Appendix E). The OCI and the MSQ were paper and pencil diagnostic instruments that were hand delivered or mailed to participants (see Appendices F and G).

Data Analysis

Data received from the MLQ were sent to Mind Garden Inc. for analysis and review, per the requirement of this instrument. Completed OCI surveys were sent to Human Synergistics for analysis using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences V27. The completed MSQ was analyzed using MSQ scales.

Data Verification

Instruments used for the current study had acceptable reliability and validity because the assessments used a Cronbach's Alpha evaluation. Lee Cronbach in 1951

developed a tool to measure internal consistency, which is expressed in a numeric form between 0 and 1, known as Cronbach's Alpha (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Internal consistency or alpha can be affected by "test items, item interrelatedness, and dimensionality" (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011, p. 54). Tavakol and Dennick (2011) defined validity as the "extent in which an instrument measures what it is intended to measure," and reliability is the "ability of an instrument to measure consistently" (p. 53). Tavakol and Dennick further stated an instrument could not have validity unless it had been proven reliable; however, reliability was not dependant on validity. Cronbach's Alpha ranging from 0.70–0.95 are considered valid and reliable. However, Taber (2018) described alpha's internal consistency values as "excellent (0.93–0.94), fairly high (0.76–0.95), reasonable (0.67–0.87), adequate (0.64–0.85), and moderate (0.61–0.65)" (p. 1278) when measuring instruments.

Instruments

The three instruments in the following sections were used to quantitatively measure leadership style, organizational culture, and employee job satisfaction in a large manufacturing facility. Instrument scoring and validity for each instrument are also described.

MLQ 5X Short

The MLQ instrument is from Bass and Avolio (2004) and assesses organizational leadership behaviors toward subordinates. The MLQ evaluates how frequently and to what degree subordinates observed the leader engaging in 32 specific behaviors. The leader's behavior and attributes form the nine components or factors of transformational, transactional, and passive/avoidance styles. The MLQ describes six lower-order

leadership factors: (a) charisma, (b) intellectual stimulation, (c) individualized consideration, (d) contingent reward, (e) active management by exception, and (f) passive avoidance. The MLQ also defines three higher-order leadership factors: (a) transformational, (b) developmental exchange, and (c) corrective avoidant. MLQ factors can be applied collectively across cultures.

Scoring Validity and Reliability

On the MLQ, participants scored how frequently they witnessed different leadership behaviors. They used a 5-point Likert scale: (a) 0 - *Not at all*, (b) 1 - *Once in a while*, (c) 2 - *Sometimes*, (d) 3 - *Fairly often*, and (e) 4 - *Frequently, if not always*.

Scoring of the MLQ was accomplished by calculating an average by the scale and then using a scoring key for data analysis. The validity of the MLQ nine-factor survey was developed in response to previous criticism correlated to transformational leadership scales because there were concerns over the mixing of behaviors, impacts, and outcomes in the six-factor survey (Bass & Avolio, 2004). The reliability and consistency of the nine-factor survey could be validated using Cronbach's coefficient alpha. The reported Cronbach's values were between .63–.92, which indicated consistency.

OCI

This OCI instrument from Cooke and Lafferty (1994) is a self-reporting diagnostic tool that measures organizational behaviors and values. The survey uses 12 sets of beliefs or behavioral styles that are generally associated with three types of cultures. The three cultures are (a) constructive (i.e., organizational sustainability), which includes goal attainment through the promotion of people; (b) passive/defensive (i.e., organizational vulnerability), which stifles creativity and creates organizational

stagnation; and (c) aggressive/defensive (i.e., organizational volatility), which drives individualistic focus and inconsistent performance. A constructive culture style is described by four beliefs: (a) achievement, (b) self-actualization, (c) humanistic encouragement, and (d) affiliative. A passive/defensive culture style is defined by four beliefs: (a) approval, (b) conventional, (c) dependent, and (d) avoidance. An aggressive/defensive culture style is described by four beliefs: (a) oppositional, (b) power, (c) competitive, and (d) perfectionistic.

Scoring Validity and Reliability

Participants scored the extent to which they described behavior during their tenure created a feeling of fitting into the organization while meeting expectations. Participants used a 5-point Likert scale: (a) 1 - *Not at all*, (b) 2 - *To a slight extent*, (c) 3 - *To a moderate extent*, (d) 4 - *To a great extent*, and (e) 5 - *To a very great extent*. The consistency and reliability of the 12 scales was estimated separately and then measured using Cronbach's alpha. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient ranged from .65 to .95, which indicated consistency was acceptable in the scales maintained (Cooke & Lafferty, 1994). The separate sets ensured Cronbach alpha coefficients differed based on specific variables.

MSQ Short Form

The MSQ is from Weiss et al. (1967) and was designed to measure the satisfaction an employee has from specific aspects of his or her job. The MSQ used factor analysis of 20 job-related items to determine if an employee was either intrinsically, extrinsically, or generally satisfied.

Scoring Validity and Reliability

Participants scored how they felt about the job they had at retirement, what created satisfaction, and what aspects of their job created dissatisfaction. Participants used a 5-point Likert scale: (a) 1 - *Very dissatisfied*, (b) 2 - *Dissatisfied*, (c) 3 - *Neither*, (d) 4 - *Satisfied*, and (e) 5 - *Very satisfied*. The MSQ used three scales for scoring: (a) intrinsic satisfaction, (b) extrinsic satisfaction, and (c) general satisfaction. The 20 job-related items were associated with one of the three scales to determine an employee's satisfaction level. Reliability and internal consistency were estimated using Hoyt's analysis of variance method. The Hoyt reliability coefficient for the MSQ scale was a high of .93 and a low of .78, which suggested the MSQ had an adequate internal consistency reliability rating (Weiss et al., 1967).

Limitations

The current study had three main limitations: (a) the sample size, (b) the sample selection, and (c) the use of retired manufacturing employees versus active manufacturing employees as the population. Each limitation is described in the following sections.

Sample Size

The sample should be large enough to represent the general characteristics of the population to ensure accurate results (Andrade, 2020). The sample size for the current study was too small to generalize study results to the population. A minimum sample size of 30 is necessary to allow for quantitative statistical analysis of the data (Tomczak et al., 2014). Tomczak et al. (2014) stated quantitative research that uses a multiple regression analysis where there is a relationship between multiple independent variables and one dependent variable requires a sample size of 27. Tomczak et al. (2014) "recommend that

for regression analysis 10 individuals per one predictor is an absolute minimum” (p. 204); thus, 30 would be the minimum acceptable sample size.

Sample Selection

Due to restrictions on access to active personnel, the sample was limited to retired manufacturing employees. The result was a nonprobability sample based on convenience, which is less desirable than a random sample (Creswell, 2014). Snowball sampling, which is a nonprobability technique, was also used to help identify potential participants. Using a snowball sampling method introduces an additional sampling bias.

Using Retired Manufacturing Employees Versus Active Employees

Using retired manufacturing employees as the research sample provided an assessment of leadership style, organizational culture, and job satisfaction in the past. Recent changes to leadership style or a shift in organizational culture in the manufacturing site were not explored in the current study because participants were retired employees and did not observe the current impacts of recent changes on job satisfaction.

Summary

Chapter 3 describes the research design and methodology used to answer the specific RQs. The population was defined as a large global manufacturing organization that employed more than 156,000 people in approximately 150 countries. The sample was minute and only included 25 employees who were currently active or retired and participated in a retirement breakfast club. Participation in the current study was voluntary, and all participants were protected in alignment with the Protection of Human Research Participant guidelines. Data collection was accomplished via an email sent to

participants with a link to the MLQ. The OCI and the MSQ were paper and pencil diagnostic instruments that were hand delivered or mailed to participants. The instruments that compiled participant survey answers were the MLQ, OCI, and the MSQ.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH RESULTS

Chapter 4 presents the findings of the current correlational study that examined the relationship between leadership style and organizational culture and the effect of both on employee job satisfaction in a large manufacturing facility. Findings from the current study provided awareness of leadership practices and their effect on organizational culture in a large manufacturing facility and the effect of both on employee satisfaction. Demographic data collection information is provided in the first section, followed by results collected from three instruments: (a) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), (b) Organizational Culture Inventory (OCI), and (c) the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ).

Demographic Data

A demographic questionnaire was used to collect information from participants regarding their gender, ethnicity, union affiliation, years of service, and years since retirement at the time of the study. Table 1 shows the participant demographic characteristics. The sample of retired employees ($n = 25$) was made up of 13 (52%) males and 12 (48%) females. Twenty-one (84%) identified as White/European American, with 12 (48%) participants indicating labor union membership and 13 (52%) nonmembers. Thirteen (52%) of the participants reported 21–30 years of service with five (20%) having less than 21 years and seven (28%) more than 30 years. Twenty-three (92%) of the participants had been retired for 5 years or less.

Table 1*Participant Demographic Summary by Gender (N = 25)*

Characteristic	Male		Female		Total	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Gender	13	52	12	48	25	100
Ethnicity						
White/European American	12	48	9	36	21	84
Asian American Indian/Alaska Native	1	4	1	4	2	8
Black/African American	0	0	1	4	1	4
Hispanic/Latino origin	0	0	1	4	1	4
Union Affiliation						
Labor	5	20	7	28	12	48
Nonmember	8	32	5	20	13	52
Years of service						
1–10	1	4	1	4	2	8
11–20	1	4	2	8	3	12
21–30	9	36	4	16	13	52
31+	2	8	5	20	7	28
Years since retirement						
0–5	13	52	10	40	23	92
6–10	0	0	2	8	2	8

Note: Percentage totals do not always equal 100 due to rounding error.

Research Question 1

Research Question (RQ)1 asked, “Is there a relationship between a transformational leadership style and constructive organizational culture?” A Pearson’s product-moment correlation was run to assess the relationship between transformational leadership and a constructive organizational culture, as experienced by 25 participants.

Preliminary analyses showed the relationship of the variables to be linear, as assessed by an examination of a scatterplot assigning a constructive culture as the

dependent variable. A boxplot of both variables revealed no outliers. Assessment of a constructive culture was normally distributed, as indicated by Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p = .615$). There was a statistically significant, moderate positive correlation between transformational leadership and a constructive culture— $r(25) = .41, p = .04$ —with transformational leadership accounting for 17% of the change in a constructive culture.

Table 2 shows participant perceptions of leadership style by gender and union affiliation. Sixteen (64%) perceived behaviors associated with a transformational leadership style. Of the 16, 12 (67%) were not affiliated with a labor union, and 4 (33%) were union members.

Table 2

Participant Perceptions of Leadership by Gender and Union Affiliation (N = 25)

Perceived leadership	Leadership styles					
	Transformational		transactional		Laissez-faire	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Total	16	64	6	24	3	12
Gender						
Male	9	69	2	15	2	15
Female	7	58	4	33	1	8
Union affiliation						
Labor	4	40	5	50	1	10
Nonlabor	12	80	1	7	2	13

Note. Percentage totals do not always equal 100 due to rounding error.

There was a statistically significant, moderate positive correlation between transformational leadership and a constructive culture. The set of constructive cultural norms was made up of four cultural behaviors: (a) achievement, (b) self-actualizing, (c)

humanistic encouraging, and (d) affiliative. An analysis of the four behaviors further identified the affiliative, $r(25) = .39, p = .05$; achievement, $r(25) = .48, p = .02$; and self-actualizing behaviors, $r(25) = .39, p = .05$ as constructive cultural norms the participants associated with transformational leadership.

MLQ Universal Norms

The MLQ collected data from 27,285 participants to construct a universal norm for transformational, transactional, and passive/avoidant leadership styles. Figure 2 compares the universal norm for transformational leadership with study participants' ratings (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

Figure 2*Transformational Leadership*

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A score of 3 or greater, designated by the green line, indicates the ideal frequency (i.e., fairly often) of all five transformational behaviors. Study participants' scores were designated by the blue line. Participants scored a 2.5 for the behaviors of acts with integrity and encourages others, a 2.4 for the attribute builds trust, a 2.2 for the behavior encourages innovative thinking, and a 2.1 for the behavior of coaching and developing people. Participants rated their leader as displaying transformational leadership behaviors between sometimes and fairly often.

Figure 3 compares the universal norm for transactional leadership behaviors with study participants' ratings. Transactional behaviors were divided into rewards achievement (i.e., contingent reward) and behaviors monitoring deviations and mistakes (i.e., management-by-exception active).

Figure 3

Transactional Leadership



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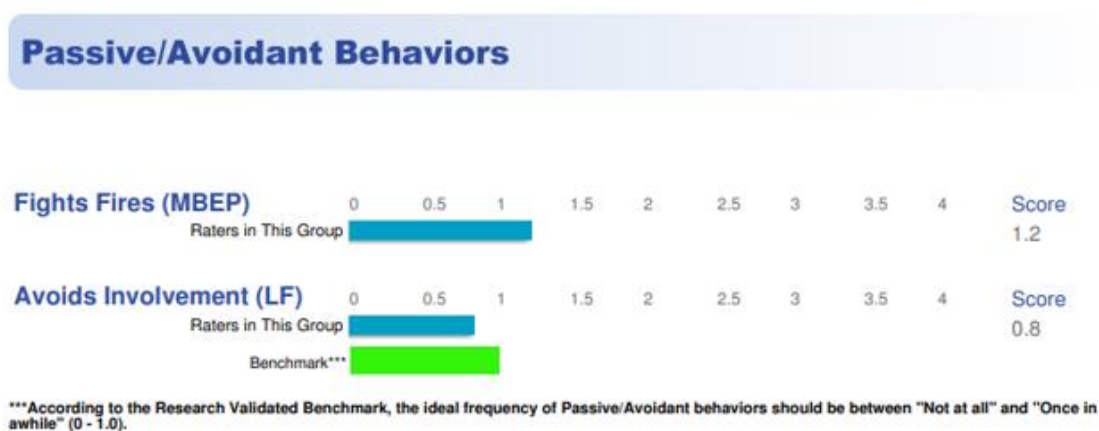
A score of 2–3 was the ideal frequency associated with rewards achievement leadership behaviors, and a score of 1–2 was the ideal frequency associated with the monitors deviations and mistakes behaviors, as designated by the green lines. Study

participants' scores were designated by the blue lines. Participants scored a 2.5 for rewards achievement, which was in the ideal frequency for leadership behaviors. Participants scored a 2.2 for leadership behaviors that monitor deviations and mistakes, which exceeded the ideal frequency.

Figure 4 compares the universal norm for passive/avoidant leadership behaviors with study participants' ratings. Passive/avoidant behaviors are divided into fights fires (management-by-exception passive) and behaviors avoiding involvement (laissez-faire).

Figure 4

Passive Avoidance Behaviors



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A score of 0–1 was the ideal frequency associated with fights fires and avoids involvement, as designated by the green line. Study participants' scores were designated

by the blue line. Participants scored a 1.2 for the fights fire behavior, which exceeded the ideal frequency for this behavior, and a 0.8 for the avoids involvement behavior.

RQ2

RQ2 asked, “Is there a relationship between a transformational leadership style and employee job satisfaction?” A Pearson’s product-moment correlation was run to assess the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction, as experienced by the 25 participants. Preliminary analyses did not show the relationship of the variables to be linear, as assessed by an examination of a scatterplot assigning job satisfaction as the dependent variable. A boxplot of both variables revealed no outliers. The assessment of job satisfaction was normally distributed, as indicated by a Shapiro-Wilk’s test ($p = .157$). There was no statistically significant correlation between perceptions of transformational leadership and job satisfaction, $r(25) = .07, p = .75$. Table 3 provides a detailed summary of participant job satisfaction.

Table 3

Participant Job Satisfaction Summary (N = 25)

Job satisfaction	Intrinsic					Extrinsic					General				
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i> (358)	<i>p</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i> (178)	<i>p</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i> (598)	<i>p</i>	<i>d</i>
Gender															
Male	3.71	1.05	0.31	.76	0.03	3.32	1.21	0.93	.35	0.14	3.60	1.11	0.61	.55	0.05
Female	3.74	0.83	-	-	-	3.48	1.00	-	-	-	3.65	0.89	-	-	-
Union affiliation															
Member	3.58	0.91	2.56	.01	0.27	3.23	1.04	1.75	.08	0.26	3.46	0.96	3.50	.00	0.29
Nonmember	3.84	0.97	-	-	-	3.52	1.16	-	-	-	3.74	1.04	-	-	-
Years of service															
1–20	3.80	0.80	0.86	.54	0.09	3.55	0.92	1.16	.25	0.18	3.71	0.82	1.34	.18	0.11
21+	3.71	0.99	-	-	-	3.35	1.17	-	-	-	3.59	1.07	-	-	-

The perception of job satisfaction was consistent across the sample demographics, with the exception of a significant difference in perceptions of intrinsic satisfaction

between labor and nonlabor employees— $t(358) = 2.56, p < .05, d = .27$ —with nonlabor employees ($M = 3.84, SD = 0.97$) perceiving a greater degree of intrinsic job satisfaction than union employees ($M = 3.58, SD = 0.91$).

RQ3

RQ3 asked, “Is there a relationship between a constructive organizational culture and employee job satisfaction?” A Pearson’s product-moment correlation was run to assess the relationship between a constructive organizational culture and job satisfaction, as experienced by 25 participants. Preliminary analyses showed the relationship of the variables to be linear, as assessed by an examination of a scatterplot assigning a constructive culture as the dependent variable. A boxplot of both variables revealed no outliers. The assessment of a constructive culture was normally distributed, as indicated by a Shapiro-Wilk’s test ($p = .157$). There was a statistically significant, moderate positive correlation between a constructive culture and job satisfaction— $r(25) = .48, p < .05$ —with behaviors associated with a constructive culture accounting for 23% of the change in job satisfaction.

Table 4 summarizes participant perceptions of culture by gender and union affiliation. Nonlabor union members and male participants indicated the highest frequency of constructive cultural perceptions, 10 (67%) and 10 (77%), respectively. Labor union members and female participants indicated almost equal perceptions of constructive and passive defensive cultural behaviors.

Table 4*Participant Perceptions of Culture by Gender and Union Affiliation (N = 25)*

Perceived culture	Organizational culture styles					
	Constructive		Passive/defensive		Aggressive/defensive	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Total	15	60	8	32	2	8
Gender						
Male	10	77	3	23	0	0
Female	5	42	5	42	2	17
Union affiliation						
Labor	5	50	4	40	1	10
Nonlabor	10	67	4	27	1	7

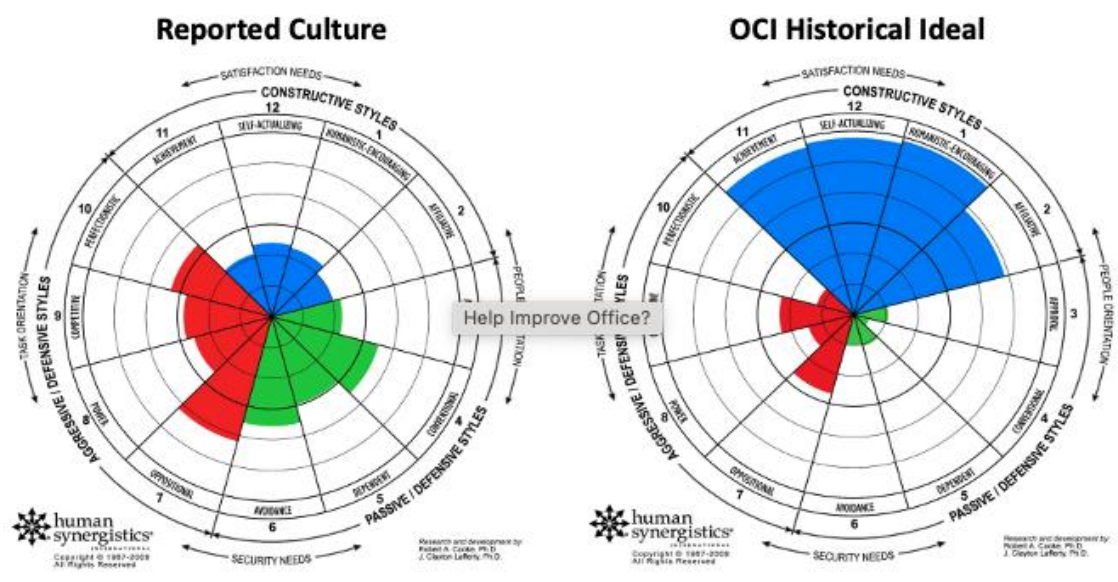
The set of constructive cultural norms was made up of four cultural behaviors: (a) achievement, (b) self-actualizing, (c) humanistic encouraging, and (d) affiliative. Of the behaviors, the following were related to job satisfaction: affiliative, $r(25) = .39, p = .05$; achievement, $r(25) = .44, p = .03$; and humanistic encouraging, $r(25) = .55, p = .004$.

OCI for Effective Organizations

The OCI is an integrated diagnostic system that has been administered to 560 members across 56 different effective organizations to identify the behaviors expected in a constructive culture (Cooke & Lafferty, 1994). Figure 5 compares OCI historical ideal for an effective culture with cultural behaviors identified by study participants. Cooke and Lafferty (1994) assigned achievement, self-actualizing, humanistic-encouraging, and affiliative behavioral norms to a constructive culture. A historical ideal culture should be used as a benchmark to compare against the culture described by participants of the large manufacturing facility.

Figure 5

Participant Reported Culture as Compared to OCI Historical Ideal



Note. From *Research and Development* by R. A. Cooke and J. C. Lafferty, 2023, Human Synergistics. Copyright © 1973–2023 by Human Synergistics. Used with permission.

The culture designated for the large manufacturing facility was the aggressive/defensive style, with a focus on oppositional and avoidance behaviors. Table 5 provides a percentile gap summary between the reported cultural styles and the ideal cultural styles. Participants scored all constructive culture styles below the historical ideal, with the achievement style having the largest gap at 68%.

Table 5*Ideal Culture Gap*

OCI cultural styles	Percentiles		
	Reported culture	OCI ideal culture	Percentile gap
Constructive style			
Humanistic-encouraging	33	98	-65
Affiliative	25	88	-63
Achievement	28	96	-68
Self-actualizing	35	97	-62
Passive/defensive style			
Approval	31	11	20
Conventional	63	5	58
Dependent	49	11	38
Avoidance	64	10	54
Aggressive/defensive style			
Oppositional	78	42	36
Power	39	17	22
Competitive	45	33	12
Perfectionistic	58	13	45

Note. From *Organizational Culture Inventory* by R. A. Cooke and J. C. Lafferty, 2023, Human Synergistics. Copyright © 2023 by Human Synergistics©. Adapted with permission.

Cooke and Lafferty (1994) assigned approval, conventional, dependent, and avoidance as the behavioral norms assigned to the passive/defensive culture. Participants scored all passive/defensive cultural styles above the historical ideal with the conventional style having the largest gap of 58%. Cooke and Lafferty (1994) assigned oppositional, power, competitive, and perfectionistic as the behavioral norms assigned to aggressive/defensive culture. Participants scored all aggressive/defensive cultural styles above the historical ideal, with the perfectionist style having the largest gap of 45%.

Conclusion

The current study indicated there was a relationship between a transformational leadership style and constructive organizational culture because there was a statistically significant, moderate positive correlation. Participants who identified with a leader who displayed a transformational leadership style accounted for 17% of the change in a constructive culture.

No relationship existed between a transformational leadership style and employee job satisfaction because there was no statistical correlation between the perception of transformational leadership style and employee job satisfaction. Although the perception of job satisfaction was consistent across the sample demographics, no correlation existed with a transformational leadership style.

Results from the current study also found a relationship existed between a constructive organizational culture and employee job satisfaction because a significant correlation existed between constructive organizational culture and job satisfaction. Participants who identified a constructive organizational culture accounted for 23% of the change in employee job satisfaction.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND FUTURE CONSIDERATION

The purpose of the current study was to examine the relationship between leadership style and organizational culture and the effect of both on employee job satisfaction in a large manufacturing facility. Globalization imposing cultural changes has created an environment that requires organizations to change the way they function to stay relevant and competitive (Hotek, 2003). International trade has increased as a result of globalization, which imposed cultural exchanges. The amalgamation of different cultures in the workforce requires leaders to recognize and understand their employee's cultural differences and needs (Northouse, 2016).

Azmy et al. (2023) believed an organization's culture could inspire employees' behaviors and consequently improve organizational performance. Different leadership styles have been linked to the type of culture displayed in an organization, and large corporations often struggle to create corporate cultures that create employee satisfaction (Ammons, 2021; Cooke & Lafferty, 1994). In a constructive organizational culture where positive leadership styles exist, employee satisfaction could be high, which would drive organizational success both in quality and production (Azmy et al., 2023). Results from the current study should provide insights for corporate leadership concerning the impact of leadership styles and organizational culture on employee satisfaction. Chapter 5 includes a summary and interpretation of the research results, contributions and limitations of the study, and recommendations for future research.

Research Question 1 Summary

Research Question (RQ) 1 asked, “Is there a relationship between a transformational leadership style and constructive organizational culture?” Results from the current study indicated a statistically significant, moderate positive correlation between transformational leadership and a constructive culture existed in the large manufacturing facility with transformational leadership accounting for 17% of the change in a constructive culture. A Pearson’s product-moment correlation coefficient was run, and preliminary analyses indicated the relationship of the variables was linear, as assessed by the examination of a scatterplot assigning a constructive culture to the dependent variable transformational leadership.

A positive correlation between transformational leadership and a constructive culture was supported by a considerable amount of previous research. Bass and Avolio (1993) and Jung et al. (1995) provided a conceptual linkage between transformational leadership style and a positive or collectivistic organizational culture. Transformational leadership style raises followers’ awareness of organizational vision and creates follower–leadership goal alignment for organizational success and employee satisfaction (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Leadership behaviors are pivotal in creating an effective culture where the organization is successful, and employees are both generally motivated and satisfied with their roles in the organization (Cooke & Lafferty, 1994). Constructive culture encourages organizational members to interact with coworkers and manage tasks and goals with a technique that encourages members to meet higher-order satisfaction (Cooke & Lafferty, 1994). Bass and Avolio (1993) stated leadership drives the

development of organizational culture; however, an organization's culture can also affect leadership behaviors.

Hartnell et al. (2016) found transformational leaders create an environment where employees feel supported by the leader's guidance. Employees believe there are opportunities for growth and communication is two-way, allowing for increased engagement and the opportunity to provide feedback. A transformational leader's behaviors align with behaviors associated with a constructive culture. An organization whose culture has been described as constructive values employees who are people centered and appreciate interpersonal relationships. Valued employees establish personal goals and emphasize creativity and quality (Hartnell et al., 2016).

All organizational leaders are influenced by cultural differences, and a strategic leader will adapt and make changes when deemed necessary to align with specific groups (Eti-Tofinga et al., 2016). Cultures can evolve over time based on societal transformations where the successful leader responds and adapts their style centered on evolution. Eti-Tofinga et al. (2016) believed leadership style varied based on cultural norms influenced by "power distance, individualism, and collectivism" (p. 536). Azmy et al. (2023) evaluated the work environment as it was shaped by both transformational leadership style and organizational culture. Azmy et al. (2023) believed an organization's culture could "significantly influence employees' behaviors" (p. 96) and consequently improve organizational performance at all levels.

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) group report compared results from the current study to a universal norm developed by Mind Garden (Bass & Avolio, 1995). The report provided participants' perceptions of their leaders and leadership styles.

The universal norm represented the data collected from 27,285 participants who had previously completed the MLQ as assessed by Mind Garden. Participants in the current study scored below the benchmark created from the universal norm for all transformational leadership behaviors. Coaching and develops people and encourages innovative thinking were the perceived behaviors scored the lowest. Builds trust, acts with integrity, and encourages others received slightly higher scores but still did not reach the benchmark. Participants perceived their leader was displaying transformational leadership behaviors, some of the time.

Participants in the current study scored at or above the benchmark created from the universal norm for both transactional leadership behaviors. Monitors deviations and mistakes was a behavior that was perceived above the benchmark, and as a manufacturing facility where quality is a priority, the score was predictable. Rewards achievement behavior or contingent reward leadership style was scored at the benchmark. Participants in the current study scored at or above the benchmark created from the universal norm for both passive/avoidance behaviors. Avoid involvement behavior or laissez-faire leadership style was scored at the benchmark, and fights fires behavior was scored above the universal norm benchmark (Bass & Avolio, 1993).

The Organizational Culture Inventory (OCI) was administered to participants to assess their perception of the organization's current culture by measuring the strength of 12 different behavioral norms associated with constructive, passive/defensive, and aggressive/defensive cultures. The survey measured what participants perceived was expected of them as an employee and the behavioral norms of the organization (Cooke & Lafferty, 1994). Human Synergistics created a historical ideal culture that could be used

as a benchmark to compare to participants' perceived culture (Cooke & Lafferty, 1994). The historical ideal culture was based on the responses of 560 participants who were members of 56 different organizations where the culture was described as constructive. The historical ideal culture described behaviors that would be present in an organization that maximizes its effectiveness.

Participants in the current study perceived their organization's culture as an aggressive/defensive culture, with the primary behavioral style identified as oppositional and its secondary behavioral style as avoidance. Team members who displayed oppositional behaviors were expected to point out flaws, look for mistakes, and behave detached. Team members who display avoidance behavior were expected to accept top-down decision making, not get involved, and avoid being blamed for mistakes (Cooke & Lafferty, 1994).

A constructive culture consists of four behaviors: (a) human-encouraging, (b) affiliative, (c) achievement, and (d) self-actualizing. Participants' perception of the constructive culture identified the largest gap to the ideal culture in the achievement behavior where team members took on challenging assignments, were expert problem solvers, and openly showed enthusiasm (Cooke & Lafferty, 1994). The passive/defensive culture consists of four behaviors: (a) approval, (b) conventional, (c) dependent, and (d) avoidance.

Participants' perception of the passive/defensive culture identified the largest gap to the ideal in the conventional behavior where team members always followed rules and policies, accepted present circumstances, and process overruled new ideas. The aggressive/defensive culture also consisted of four behaviors: (a) oppositional, (b) power,

(c) competitive, and (d) perfectionistic. Participants' perception of the aggressive/defensive culture found the largest gap to the ideal culture in the perfectionistic behavior where team members never wanted to make a mistake, set unrealistic goals, and did not have a work life balance (Cooke & Lafferty, 1994).

RQ2 Summary

RQ2 asked, "Is there a relationship between a transformational leadership style and employee job satisfaction?" Results from the current study indicated there was not a statistically significant relationship between transformational leadership style and employee job satisfaction in a large manufacturing facility; therefore, I was unable to reject the null hypothesis. A Pearson's product-moment correlation was run to assess the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction. Preliminary analyses did not show the relationship of the variables to be linear, as assessed by an examination of a scatterplot assigning job satisfaction as the dependent variable. However, a statistically significant difference existed between participants' perception of intrinsic job satisfaction between labor and nonlabor participants.

The current study was not supported by a substantial amount of previous research that found a relationship between transformational leadership and employee job satisfaction. Belias and Koustelious (2015) stated the two types of leadership styles in their research associated with creating job satisfaction were transformational and transactional leadership styles. Yildiz and Şimşek (2016) found transformational leadership was effective in many organizational realms because it could improve employee attitudes and influence their sense of self. Yildiz and Şimşek also found a

transformational leadership style had a positive correlation with both trust and job satisfaction.

Yammarino and Dubinsky (1994) stated transformational leaders should drive an alignment of employee skills to the role, which is where employees are challenged by their tasks and contribute to the success of the department. Employees who perceive their position as purposeful typically feel job satisfaction. Unfortunately, the type of work associated with a large manufacturing facility does not always provide leaders with the opportunity to provide meaningful work where employees feel they can contribute to the overall success of the organization. Transformational leaders should create an environment where employees can participate, own departmental goals, and provide direct feedback and participate in the decision-making process (Carton, 2008). Manufacturing organizations are primarily and regrettably, top-down decision-making organizations, where employees rarely have a say on goals; thus, ownership is more often waning.

Wang et al. (2016) found during harsh economic environments when resources are scarce that an authoritarian leadership style could be more effective than a transformational leadership style. X. Huang et al. (2015) stated competition in a manufacturing facility is intense between departments and organizations, which can create an environment that drives an efficiency perspective that urges leaders to perform less transformational behaviors and compete using an authoritarian management style. Behaviors can link efficiency perspective to manufacturing success. Although no participants described themselves as unsatisfied as employees prior to retirement, they did not indicate a transformational leadership style drove their employee satisfaction.

Participants who were associated with the labor union identified they felt less intrinsic satisfaction compared to nonlabor participants, a result supported by significant prior research that recognized union employees as less satisfied than nonunion employees (Borjas, 1979; Bryson et al., 2004; Laroche, 2017; Schwochau, 1987). Borjas (1979) and Schwochau (1987) found unionized workers reported they felt less satisfied with most aspects of their position compared to nonunion workers, and union membership had a negative effect on employee job satisfaction. Bryson et al. (2004) stated there was a reverse causal relationship as unsatisfied employees join unions; therefore, union employees were unsatisfied. Giles and Holley (1978) found union members wanted to use the collective bargaining process to improve wages and provide job security but not improve job enrichment programs, which could lead to more job satisfaction in union employees.

Bryson et al. (2004) and Pfeffer and Davis-Blake (1990) all argued prior research on union employees' lack of job satisfaction was flawed because it did not control for specific job dimensions, and a clear distinction did not exist between employee satisfaction with the union and management versus their job. However, Blanchflower et al. (2022) found, after the year 2000, both European and U.S. union workers did have a positive correlation between having a union job and employee satisfaction.

RQ3 Summary

RQ3 asked, "Is there a relationship between a constructive organizational culture and employee job satisfaction?" Results from the current study indicated there was a statistically significant, moderate positive correlation between a constructive culture and job satisfaction in a large manufacturing facility. A Pearson's product-moment correlation

was run to assess the relationship between a constructive organizational culture and job satisfaction. Preliminary analyses showed the relationship of the variables to be linear, as assessed by an examination of a scatterplot assigning a constructive culture as the dependent variable. Cooke and Lafferty (1994) defined a constructive culture as one positively associated with employees and organizational efficiency. A constructive culture is driven by positive causal factors, where the mission and philosophy or organizational values are communicated to all levels of employees, and values align with organizational decision making. Job satisfaction is a vital behavior in a constructive organizational culture (Cooke & Lafferty, 1994).

Results from the current study were supported by previous research.

Organizational culture affects job satisfaction because an employee's perception of the organizational values and norms must align with their individual values and norms for the employee to be satisfied (Janićijević et al., 2018). Organizational leaders should evaluate employee expectations of job characteristics because a mismatch can result in unsatisfied employees (Janićijević et al., 2018). Janićijević et al. (2018) analyzed each type of organizational culture and found some employee needs were met by each one. Schein (2010) directed leadership to understand various cultures in the large global footprint of corporations and the effects of different cultural norms and behaviors on employee satisfaction. Isac et al. (2021) stated an organization's culture had an impact on the company's management and employees, ensuring the right culture was displayed was essential. Isac et al. also believed an organization's culture influenced employee motivation, communication, decision making, dispute resolution, and job satisfaction.

Dula and Tang (2021) found young people transitioning into the workforce desire a challenging career where the organization has an established organizational culture that supports positive leadership, which drives job satisfaction. As global markets drive stiffer competition, organizations need to find an edge that drives efficiencies and quality into their workforce. Dula and Tang believed empowered employees who adopt organizational vision can be a competitive advantage because they are inspired by a positive leadership style and the organization's culture. Leaders in an organization are the "principal architects of culture" (Dula & Tang, 2021, p. 24); however, a strong proven culture can influence the types of leadership styles. Dula and Tang (2021) found leadership is the driving force of an organization, and variation in leadership styles can impact both organizational performance and employee satisfaction. Dula and Tang stated the relationship between culture and leadership influences organizational environments, which can highlight the need for change if the employees are not satisfied.

Contributions and Limitations

The current study contributed labor union employees' opinions on culture, leadership style, and job satisfaction from a large manufacturing facility in the United States. Participants provided leadership styles they had witnessed, organizational culture or organizational behavioral norms they recognized, and the job satisfaction level they perceived from the work they had performed prior to retirement. Research from labor union employees in the United States has been minimal, and understanding the advantages of a positive leadership style and constructive culture would benefit both organizations and employees.

Three limitations are discussed in this section, including sample size, sample selection with the use of retired employees, and the use of multiple instruments to collect data. A sample size of 25 was not sufficient to reasonably generalize results from the current study to the population. Although 30 participants completed the OCI and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), only 25 completed the MLQ in its entirety. Tomczak et al. (2014) stated a minimum of 10 participants is required per predictor for regression analysis; thus, a minimum of 30 participants was required to detect all relationships between variables.

The sample selection of retired manufacturing employees was a limitation of the current study. The result of a nonprobability sample based on convenience is less desirable than a random sample and can add bias (Creswell, 2014). Snowball sampling, which is also a nonprobability technique, was used to help identify additional potential participants. A snowball sampling method introduces an additional sampling bias because potential participants felt pressure to participate based on the person providing their information to me. In addition, using retired employees had participants providing answers about leadership style, culture, and job satisfaction based on their last role in the large manufacturing facility, which may have been more than 10 years in the past at the time of the current study. Of the 57 participants who agreed to complete the surveys, only 30 completed two surveys, and only 25 completed all three surveys. Participants who did not complete all surveys or did not complete any survey communicated they were not confident or unsure how to answer survey questions.

The third limitation of the current study was the use of multiple survey instruments. When using a survey to collect data, a chance exists for participants to

misinterpret the question. Participants may not remember, which can affect honest feedback or allow bias to slip into their answers, and participants can believe the researcher wants them to answer survey questions a certain way, which can also lead to data bias. Cooke and Szumal (1993) stated surveys are a research limitation because they cannot identify the “underlying aspects of culture” or the “components of culture” (p. 1322), and surveys at best measure an organization’s climate.

Implication for Action

The manufacturing board of directors should survey and review current employee perception of organizational culture and poor leadership styles being portrayed, as perceived by recent retirees. Former employees who participated in the current study described an aggressive/defensive culture where employees were expected to point out flaws, look for mistakes, and behave detached, which suggested poor quality and built concerns in their production environment. An aggressive/defensive cultural environment signaled a need for leadership to evaluate where changes are needed. The board must ensure employees have a forum to communicate concerns to the highest levels to safeguard against colossal failures. The organization’s culture must promote safety and transparency to assure employees’ voices are heard. Leadership at all levels should live organizational values, creating an atmosphere where not just any but all employees feel safe expressing concerns.

Although the current study did not find employee dissatisfaction, a significant difference was found in the perception of intrinsic job satisfaction between union labor and nonunion employees. Executive leadership must recognize the value in transforming labor employee’s perception of the satisfaction they receive from their work, which is a

competitive advantage, ultimately resulting in a win-win for both employer and employee.

Conclusion

In conclusion, a positive leadership style promotes a constructive organizational culture, and a positive organizational culture will drive positive leadership behaviors. As globalization changes the world markets and manufacturing facilities need a competitive advantage to remain relevant, an organization's culture must promote a transformational or other positive leadership style to ensure employees are motivated and satisfied. Employees who adopt the organization's mission and vision where leadership actions align with the culture promote positive results and an organization environment that will drive employee efficiencies and quality into production, ultimately creating the competitive advantage manufacturing facilities require.

Union or nonunion employee satisfaction must be an organizational value that receives the resources and emphasis needed to be successful. All employees affect an organization's culture, and if the majority of the manufacturing team are unsatisfied union members, the culture will be affected. Executive leadership must find a way to bridge the gap on job satisfaction with union employees to ensure they feel they are an important part in the future success of the organization.

Recommendations for Future Research

The current study focused on retired employees who were not affiliated with a union and retired employees who were both affiliated with both the labor union and the professional union. Additional research should be conducted using labor union affiliated employees who have an active status of employment in large manufacturing facilities in

the United States. Research associated with organizational culture, leadership style, and job satisfaction for manufacturing labor union employees in the United States has been minimal. The type of work employees perform has been typically associated with the type of union (i.e., labor or professional) affiliation or lack of affiliation the employee has. Job roles in a manufacturing facility can play a large role in employee perception of leadership style, organizational culture, and the amount of satisfaction they feel from their work.

Active employees should have the ability to communicate what they are currently experiencing, and in doing so, remove the potential for partially completed surveys and eliminate participants who are unsure how to rate when taking the surveys. Surveying active labor union employees would require both union and organizational agreement, which would improve the total sampling number and generate a more reasonable generalization of the population. Enthusiasm about unionization (Nolan, 2023) and the contradictory research on union member job satisfaction, create a need for further research (Blanchflower et al., 2022).

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APPENDIX A

RECRUITMENT / RESEARCH INTRODUCTION

Recruitment/Research Introduction

Dear Candidate,

I am conducting a doctoral research study on leadership styles and organizational culture that exist within a large manufacturing facility and the influence each has on employee job satisfaction. To begin this study, I am asking all participants to complete three questionnaire that will evaluate the various types of leadership style and organizational culture encountered while employed by the large manufacturing facility and how each may have impacted or influenced their personal job satisfaction.

Participation will take approximately 30-45 minutes. All responses will be kept strictly confidential. You will be provided with a consent form offering more information followed by a brief demographic questionnaire. To participate in the study simply click the link below where you will be directed to a survey hosting site (Mind Garden, Transform Survey Hosting). You will also be provided two pen and paper surveys that can be completed at this time or returned via USPS and mailed to the researcher with the provided self-addressed and stamped envelope. Again, participation should take approximately 30-45 minutes.]

I hope you will consider participating in this groundbreaking research on leadership style, organizational culture and job satisfaction. Should you have any questions at any point feel free to contact me directly at [REDACTED]@northwestu.edu or

Sincerely,
Marissa Sebers

Doctoral Candidate
Center for Leadership Studies
Northwest University

APPENDIX B
DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

Demographic Questionnaire

Race/Ethnicity (Check all that apply)

Hispanic/Latino origin

White/European American

Black/African American

Asian American Indian/Alaska Native

Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander

Aboriginal

Other: _____

Gender

Male

Female

Prefer Not to Answer

Age _____

Years of Service

1-10

10-20

20-30

30+

Years since Retirement

0-5

6-10

10+

Union Affiliation (Check all that apply)

Non-Represented

IAM

SPEEA

APPENDIX C

CONSENT FORM

Leadership Style and Organizational Culture within a Large Manufacturing Facility's Influence on Employee Job Satisfaction

Northwest University
Center for Leadership Studies

Consent Form

Welcome to leadership styles and organizational culture within a large manufacturing facility's influence on employee job satisfaction, a research study that looks to examine the relationship between leadership style and organizational culture and the effects of both on employee job satisfaction. This study is being conducted by Marissa Sebers at Northwest University.

To qualify for participation, you must be an adult age 18 or older. Completion of this study typically takes approximately 30 minutes for the pen and paper surveys and 15 minutes for the online survey and will be **strictly anonymous**. Your responses will be treated confidentially and will not be linked to any identifying information about you. If you agree to participate in this study, you will complete questionnaires containing demographic information (age, race, gender, years of service, years since retirement, and union affiliation), surveys: (1) leadership style (Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, MLQ), (2) organizational culture (Organizational Culture Inventory, OCI), and (3) job satisfaction (Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, MQS). All data collection and submitted MLQ survey information will be password encrypted and stored at the Transform survey hosting tool from Mind Garden. All data collection and submitted OCI and MSQ survey information will be password encrypted and stored on a password-encrypted cloud storage facility: Amazon Web Service. All data forms and information will be destroyed by 12/31/2024.

The Northwest University Institutional Review Board has approved the study. No deception is involved, and participation in this study poses minimal risk to participants, although some participants may experience emotional distress when answering questions that require reflection on previous leadership and cultural behaviors. If content of this questionnaire causes you significant distress, please contact the Mental Health Crisis Services helpline at (425) 258-4357, the crisis hotline at (800) 273-8255, or local services A Sign of Hope at 425-347-0141. Participation in this study is voluntary, and you may elect to discontinue the questionnaire at any time and for any reason. You may print this consent form for your records. By submitting the survey, you are giving permission to use your responses in this research study.

The results from this study will be utilized for the completion of a doctoral study dissertation and may be presented within a variety of psychological forums (formal and informal).

If you have any questions about this study, please contact the principal researcher Marissa Sebers [redacted]. If you have further questions, please contact my faculty advisor Dr Don Conant @ [redacted]@northwestu.edu. You may also contact the Chair of the Northwest University IRB, Professor Cheri Goit, at cheri.goit@northwestu.edu or 425-889-5762.

Before beginning the survey, please read this consent form in full. If you understand all information contained in this form and agree to freely participate in this study, please click the "I Agree" button. You may exit the survey at any time.

Thank you for considering participation in this study.

Marissa Sebers
Doctoral Candidate, Center for Leadership Studies, Northwest University
[redacted]

Updated: 9/2/2021

APPENDIX D

PROTECTING HUMAN RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS CERTIFICATE



CERTIFICATE

OF COMPLETION

PHRP Online Training, Inc. certifies that

Marissa Sebers

has successfully completed the web-based course "Protecting Human Research Participants Online Training SBE."

Date Completed: **2022-07-22**

Certification Number: **2980556**



APPENDIX E

MULTIFACTOR LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE

For use by Marissa Sebers only. Received from Mind Garden, Inc. on January 29, 2023

**Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
Rater Form**

Name of Leader: _____ Date: _____

Organization ID #: _____ Leader ID #: _____

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

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

I am at a higher organizational level than the person I am rating.

The person I am rating is at my organizational level.

I am at a lower organizational level than the person I am rating.

Other than the above.

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

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

The Person I Am Rating . . .

1. Provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts	0	1	2	3	4
2. *Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate	0	1	2	3	4
3. Fails to interfere until problems become serious	0	1	2	3	4
4. Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards	0	1	2	3	4
5. Avoids getting involved when important issues arise	0	1	2	3	4
6. *Talks about his/her most important values and beliefs	0	1	2	3	4
7. Is absent when needed	0	1	2	3	4
8. *Seeks differing perspectives when solving problems	0	1	2	3	4
9. *Talks optimistically about the future	0	1	2	3	4
10. *Instills pride in me for being associated with him/her	0	1	2	3	4
11. Discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets	0	1	2	3	4
12. Waits for things to go wrong before taking action	0	1	2	3	4
13. *Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished	0	1	2	3	4
14. *Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose	0	1	2	3	4
15. *Spends time teaching and coaching	0	1	2	3	4

Continued →

APPENDIX G

MINNESOTA SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Ask yourself: How **satisfied** am I with this aspect of my job?

Very Sat. means I am very satisfied with this aspect of my job.

Sat. means I am satisfied with this aspect of my job.

N means I can't decide whether I am satisfied or not with this aspect of my job.

Dissat. means I am dissatisfied with this aspect of my job.

Very Dissat. means I am very dissatisfied with this aspect of my job.

On my present job, this is how I feel about . . .	Very Dissat.	Dissat.	N	Sat.	Very Sat.
1. Being able to keep busy all the time	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. The chance to work alone on the job	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. The chance to do different things from time to time	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. The chance to be "somebody" in the community	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. The way my boss handles his/her workers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. The competence of my supervisor in making decisions	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. The way my job provides for steady employment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. The chance to do things for other people	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. The chance to tell people what to do	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. The way company policies are put into practice	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. My pay and the amount of work I do	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. The chances for advancement on this job	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. The freedom to use my own judgment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. The chance to try my own methods of doing the job	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17. The working conditions	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18. The way my co-workers get along with each other	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19. The praise I get for doing a good job	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20. The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Very Dissat.	Dissat.	N	Sat.	Very Sat.

APPENDIX H

MINDGARDEN PERMISSION AGREEMENT

Marissa Sebers

**Permission Agreement for Reprint**

Mind Garden instrument: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
 Category of items to be reproduced: Other (please explain in comments below)
 List or describe specific material to be reproduced: Multi Factor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Only
 (Group Report) Section 5 and 6 Group agreement & Comparisons with the Norms figures

Name: Marissa Sebers

Your mailing address: [REDACTED]

Phone Number: [REDACTED]

Email: [REDACTED]@northwestu.edu

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Category of items to be reproduced: Other (please explain in comments below)
 List or describe specific material to be reproduced: Multi Factor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Only
 (Group Report) Section 5 and 6 Group agreement & Comparisons with the Norms figures
 Author(s) of your article: Marissa Sebers
 Name of Book or Magazine, etc.: Dissertation
 Title of article/research study/chapter: Chapter 4 Results
 Expected date of Publication (enter the year): 2024
 Expected print run (enter the number): 1
 Will this also be available online, as a pdf or in an E-reader? Yes
 If yes, what will be the expected quantity of online use? unknown
 Name of Publisher: ProQuest
 What else would you like to tell us about this publication? The data will help provide additional clarity to my dissertation

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APPENDIX I

LETTER OF AGREEMENT FOR RESEARCHERS (OCI)



Changing the World—One Organization at a Time®

Human Synergistics, Inc.
 39819 Plymouth Road
 Plymouth, Michigan 48170 U.S.A.
 P 734.459.1030
 F 734.459.5557
 info@humansynergistics.com
 www.humansynergistics.com

Letter of Agreement for Researchers
Organizational Culture Inventory® (OCI®)

Marissa Sebers
 [REDACTED]
 [REDACTED]

September 15, 2023

Dear Ms. Sebers:

Your research, tentatively titled "EXPLORING THE INFLUENCE OF LEADERSHIP STYLE AND ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE ON EMPLOYEE JOB SATISFACTION WITHIN A LARGE MANUFACTURING FACILITY" has been reviewed by Human Synergistics and I am pleased to inform you that permission is granted for the use of the *Organizational Culture Inventory® (OCI®)* in your research.

Human Synergistics will provide you with up to 50 *OCI* online surveys for \$1.00 USD per survey. A \$250.00 USD administration fee will be applied to this project. Additionally, we will provide one *OCI* Interpretation & Development Guide for \$12.00. Completed inventories will be housed by Human Synergistics. Human Synergistics will provide you with a Microsoft Excel file that includes item responses, demographics and any supplemental item responses. Additionally, we will provide an *OCI* Detailed Report which can be used as your primary reference. All other costs associated with this project (e.g., scoring, postage, data analysis, profiles) will be incurred by you. Under this agreement, Human Synergistics is not responsible for any other activities or costs associated with this project (e.g., for data analysis) or for providing technical advice on statistical analyses or the results obtained. Other reporting options will be at regular price (to be determined as needed).

In exchange for the research discount we are extending, you agree to the conditions outlined in the *OCI* "Research Applications" document and summarized below:

- (1) You will provide Human Synergistics with electronic copies of all working papers, presentations, reports to sponsors, dissertations, and manuscripts to be submitted for publication which present *OCI* results or otherwise incorporate *OCI* materials;
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- (3) Researchers may not reproduce any of the *OCI* items in their manuscripts or in any typewritten, typeset, computerized, or translated survey;



Changing the World—One Organization at a Time®

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(6) More generally, you will use the *OCI*, conduct your research and report your results in a manner that is consistent with the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (2020) and that respects and protects Human Synergistics' copyrights, trademarks, and proprietary data and materials.

Please contact me if you have any questions. Best of luck with your research.

Sincerely,



Cheryl A. Boglarsky, Ph.D.
Research & Product Development