

**ASSESSING THE MODERATING EFFECT OF GENDER ON THE RELATIONSHIP
BETWEEN LEADERSHIP STYLE AND JOB SATISFACTION**

by

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Abstract

Leaders influence and direct people to accomplish organizational goals. They create a vision and inspire others' desire to achieve the company's mission. Leadership style has a significant impact on job satisfaction, which can inspire confidence, trust, and support in employees.

Employee satisfaction is important because satisfied employees perform more efficiently and the organization, in turn, thrives. By keeping qualified employees satisfied, write-ups, turnover, and violations can be kept to a minimum. Gender can shape how a leader communicates, establishes relationships, and builds rapport with employees. Gender can affect a manager's power, style of communication, and confidence, which can impact employees' decision-making styles and jeopardize workplace operations and outcomes. If managers are sensitive to differences between their leadership styles and the styles their employees prefer, they can adjust their communication and behavior to better match the preferences of their employees. However, the influence of gender on perceived leadership style and job satisfaction of front-line employees was unknown. The purpose of this quantitative, nonexperimental study was to assess the moderating effect of gender on the predictive relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction using a stratified, random, and gender-balanced sample of front-line banking employees. Data analysis consisted of a two-way ANOVA. Gender was not found to be a significant moderator of the relationship between perceived leadership style and employee job satisfaction; however, there was a significant relationship between perceived leadership style and employee job satisfaction.

Dedication

To the Lord, for granting me the perseverance and tenacity to complete my academic journey. With each challenge, I prayed for Your guidance to grant me patience, understanding, and acceptance as I pushed forward.

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CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

Leaders influence and direct people to accomplish organizational goals. They create a vision and inspire others' desire to achieve the organization's mission (Alonderiene & Majauskaite, 2016). A leader's style of management may motivate or demotivate employees. Because of this, leadership style has a significant impact on job satisfaction and can affect confidence and support among those needed to achieve company goals (Alonderiene & Majauskaite, 2016; Randeree & Ghaffar Chaudhry, 2012). This study explored the moderating effect of gender on the relationship between perceived leadership style and job satisfaction. Employee satisfaction is essential because satisfied employees will perform more efficiently and the organization, in turn, will thrive. Low levels of job satisfaction decrease employee morale, and demoralized employees will not stay committed to their companies (Mujkic, Sehic, Rahimic, & Jusic, 2014; Randeree & Ghaffar Chaudhry, 2012). Overall job satisfaction is important because it contributes to organizational effectiveness (Josanov-Vrgovic & Pavlovic, 2014). Keeping qualified employees satisfied diminishes the likelihood of turnover, absenteeism, errors, violations of rules, and strikes (Yan, Yue, & Niu, 2015).

Gender can influence the relationship between manager and employee (Jackson, Alberti, & Snipes, 2014). Gender can affect a manager's effectiveness, communication style, ability to persuade, and trustworthiness (Jackson et al., 2014). According to Collins, Burrus, and Meyer (2014), it would be interesting to study the genders of both members of the manager-employee dyad to see if there is a correlation between gender and the role of leadership style. It is possible that male subordinates expect one type of leadership style from a female leader and female subordinates expect one type of leadership style from a male leader (Collins et al., 2014). According to Rodríguez-Ruiz, Rodríguez-Duarte, and Gómez-Martínez (2016), gender-

integrated firms perform better than homogeneous firms. Gender-integrated firms have a balanced gender composition.

The purpose of Chapter 1 is to introduce the study. The chapter begins with the background and statement of the problem. The following sections contain information on the purpose and significance of the study. The study's research questions, definitions of terms, assumptions, and limitations follow. Chapter 1 closes with a summary of the organization of the remainder of the study.

Background of the Problem

Leadership style can inspire confidence and support among the people needed to achieve organizational goals (Randeree & Ghaffar Chaudhry, 2012). Leadership style can also affect employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Leaders exhibit varying leadership styles, and employees display varying cultural backgrounds and personality traits (Randeree & Ghaffar Chaudhry, 2012). Leaders who understand their employees' cultural backgrounds can modify their leadership styles to match the needs of their employees, which can increase job satisfaction. This, in turn, may improve the company's performance and quality (Cenkci & Özçelik, 2015). Managers who are competent in this process tend to decrease perceived uncertainty during cross-cultural operations, and this type of development can be critical for long-term organizational effectiveness (Fein, Tziner, Vasiliu, & Felea, 2015).

According to Samad, Reaburn, Davis, and Ahmed (2015), employee job satisfaction is defined as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience. Job satisfaction is influenced by the type of leadership style, which impacts the performance and commitment of employees (Gyensare, Anku-Tsede, Sanda, Okpoti, 2016). Positive leadership style and job satisfaction are important because they influence overall

company performance (Randeree & Ghaffar Chaudhry, 2012). Keeping qualified employees happy reduces the likelihood of turnover, absenteeism, errors, violations of rules, and strikes (Yan et al., 2015). Gender is a salient type of demographic diversity: Having a gender-balanced workplace can eliminate gender prejudices and sex-role stereotyping (Rodríguez-Ruiz et al., 2016). Gender can influence the relationship between manager and employee (Jackson et al., 2014). Gender can also affect a manager's effectiveness, communication style, ability to persuade, and trustworthiness (Jackson et al., 2014). Gender perceptions can differ between individuals and situations. It is possible that male subordinates expect one type of leadership style from a female leader, and female subordinates expect one type of leadership style from a male leader (Collins et al., 2014). A leader's role is significant, and the leader's style can influence overall job satisfaction. Overall job satisfaction is important because it contributes to organizational effectiveness (Josanov-Vrgovic & Pavlovic, 2014). According to Josanov-Vrgovic and Pavlovic (2014), employees are most satisfied with promotion, recognition, working skills, safety, and the nature of the work itself.

Leadership theories were developed to clarify the roles of followers and leaders and focus on ways that leaders rewarded or sanctioned the behavior of followers (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003). Full-range leadership theory (FRLT; Bass, 1999) formed the theoretical foundation of this study and explains the effects of the relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction. Bass (1999) suggested a change in approach from earlier leadership theories to understand how leaders influence followers to transcend self-interest for the greater good of their units and organizations by performing optimally (Antonakis et al., 2003). As Mind Garden (2004b) said, "The paradigm builds on earlier leadership paradigms that include autocratic versus democratic leadership, directive versus participative leadership, and

task versus relationship-oriented leadership” (p. 3). FRLT comprises the factors of transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and passive-avoidant leadership; these factors determine how leadership style will impact follower motivation and performance (Antonakis et al., 2003). Transformational leadership works with subordinates in making decisions and departmental change; transactional leadership uses both rewards and punishments; and passive-avoidant leadership is defined as the absence of leadership, avoidance of intervention, or both (Mathieu, Neumann, Babiak, & Hare, 2015). Ultimately, the choice of leadership style depends on the nature of the task, culture of the organization, and preferred style of the followers.

Statement of the Problem

According to Alonderiene and Majauskaite (2016), an employee’s job satisfaction is influenced by the type of leadership style the employee is exposed to. Gender can affect a manager’s effectiveness, communication style, ability to persuade, and trustworthiness, and specific characteristics that subordinates use to make judgments can impact critical downstream workplace processes and outcomes (Collins et al., 2014; Jackson et al., 2014). A manager who is sensitive to differences between his or her leadership style and the leadership style preferred by his or her employees can adjust communication and other interpersonal behavior to better match the employees’ preferences (Fein et al., 2015). At the time of the study, the influence of gender on the perceived leadership style and job satisfaction of front-line employees (those subordinate to a leader in a nonexecutive position, according to Bateman & Snell, 2016) was unknown (Fein et al., 2015; Randeree & Ghaffar Chaudhry, 2012). This research extended existing research by analyzing front-line employees’ perceived type of leadership style and gender and how these constructs relate to job satisfaction.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative, nonexperimental study was to assess the moderating effect of gender on the predictive relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction using a stratified, random, and gender-balanced sample of front-line employees in the banking sector; the sample included those who self-reported as front-line employees such as teller, bank marketing representative, loan officer, or customer service representative. The study contributed to FRLT (Bass, 1999) and measured the impact of perceived leadership style and gender on job satisfaction from front-line employees, because the impact of gender in this situation was unknown (Fein et al., 2015; Randeree & Ghaffar Chaudhry, 2012).

Significance of the Study

This study was oriented toward the field of business management. Regarding its academic significance, the study contributed to FRLT (Bass, 1999) by adding gender as a component, examining what type of leadership style contributed to job satisfaction, and determining the extent to which gender played a role for front-line employees (Fein et al., 2015; Randeree & Ghaffar Chaudhry, 2012). The practical implications for stakeholders and the business community of this study relate to keeping qualified employees satisfied, which may reduce the likelihood of turnover, absenteeism, errors, violations of rules, and employee write-ups (Yan et al., 2015). If managers can be sensitive to differences between their own leadership styles and those preferred by their employees, they can then adjust their communication and other interpersonal behavior to better match the preferences of their employees (Fein et al., 2015). The findings of this study will help organizational leaders improve the quality of their existing employees and enhance their hiring processes to create balance within their organizations.

Research Question

One main research question and three subquestions guided the study.

The research question was: To what extent does gender moderate perceived leadership style and job satisfaction of front-line employees? Subquestions 1–3 were as follows:

1. To what extent does perceived leadership style influence employee job satisfaction?
2. To what extent, if any, does gender influence perceived leadership style?
3. To what extent, if any, does gender influence employee job satisfaction?

Chapter 3 presents specific hypotheses associated with each question.

Definition of Terms

Contingent rewards are exchanges between leaders and followers based on performance, accomplishments, and effort which are exchanged for a specific reward.

Front-line employee is one in a nonexecutive position subordinate to a leader, one who receives payment in exchange for work (Bateman & Snell, 2016).

Full-range leadership theory (FRLT), by Avolio and Bass (1990), describes leaders who transform their followers to want to achieve a higher level position or status beyond transactional leadership (based on rewards), one that is driven by personal motivation (Witges & Scanlan, 2014). FRLT comprises the factors of transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and passive-avoidant leadership; these factors determine how a type of leadership style will impact follower motivation and performance (Antonakis et al., 2003). To implement FRLT, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) was developed to measure how these leadership styles relate to job satisfaction.

Gender is a psychosocial construct determined by an individual's experience of being male or female (Winter, 2015).

Idealized influence attributes are qualities or traits that a leader possesses, such as power and charisma.

Idealized influence behavior is consistent with the organization's mission and values and is displayed by the leader for followers to mimic.

Individualized consideration is when a leader provides a follower with recognition, autonomy, responsibility, and development. It occurs when employees are given personal attention to promote their development and achievement.

Inspirational motivation is when a leader exerts a powerful, confident, and dynamic presence while communicating high-performance expectations. It occurs when communication happens in an empowering way.

Intellectual stimulation is encouragement of collaboration, innovation, and creativity. It occurs when employees can identify and solve problems creatively.

Job satisfaction of an employee is a gratifying or optimistic feeling resulting from the employee's evaluation of his or her job or job experience (Samad et al., 2015). Aspects or facets of job satisfaction are the job itself and characteristics of the workplace (Bateman & Snell, 2016). These can include achievement, recognition, responsibility, promotion, advancement, availability of satisfying work, pay, salary, benefits, policy, working conditions, relations with others, status, and security (Bateman & Snell, 2016). Job satisfaction is measured using the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS).

The *Job Satisfaction Survey* (JSS) was developed by Spector, 1994. It is a 36-item, nine-facet scale (the facets are pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication) that assesses employee attitude about the job and aspects of the job (JSS, 2001). Each facet is assessed with four items,

and a total score is computed from all items. A summated rating scale format is used, with six choices per item ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree* (JSS, 2001). Higher scores on the JSS indicate higher levels of job satisfaction. The θ coefficient specifically accounts for multidimensionality in an item set (Batura, Skordis-Worrall, Thapa, Basnyat, & Morrison, 2016). Cronbach's α ranged from .60–.91, demonstrating that the instrument is reliable (JSS, 2001). Validity was verified using confirmatory and exploratory factor analysis (JSS, 2011).

Leadership style is a leader's ability to influence, direct, and motivate people (Bateman & Snell, 2016).

Management by exception (MBE): Active MBE focuses on performance. Leaders give feedback to reprimand employees before their behavior becomes a hindrance (Chaimongkonrojna & Steane, 2015). Passive MBE focuses on mistakes. Leaders use punishment to get employees to reach organizational goals, intervening when problems have arisen, or standards have not been met (Chaimongkonrojna & Steane, 2015).

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ): The MLQ is a 45-item questionnaire (36 items pertaining to leadership style and nine items pertaining to leadership outcomes) developed to assess full-range leadership styles (Bass & Avolio, 1995). The MLQ is composed of nine scales that are divided into three leadership styles: (a) transformational leadership (five scales), (b) transactional leadership (two scales), and (c) passive–avoidant (two scales; Bass & Avolio, 1995). All scales use the same format of a five-point frequency scale with the following numerical scale: 0 (*not at all*), 1 (*once in a while*), 2 (*sometimes*), 3 (*fairly often*), 4 (*frequently, if not always*; Justin & Heyliger, 2014). For each leadership style, scores are determined by an average of each subscale (Justin & Heyliger, 2014). Justin and Heyliger (2014) reported measures of reliability with Cronbach's α which is a measure that varies from 0 to 1; low levels

of α mean that the scale contains quite a bit of error, while levels that approach 1 indicate relatively little error.

Passive-avoidant leadership is defined as the absence of leadership, avoidance of intervention, or both (Mathieu et al., 2015). This passive type of leadership works well for employees who are self-motivated and like a noninterference approach, which allows them to make their own decisions.

Transactional leadership is a task-oriented leadership style based on an exchange that uses monitoring and control, offering both rewards and punishments (Chaimongkonrojna & Steane, 2015). It is composed of two subscales contingent reward (CR) and management-by-exception (MBE): active or passive (Chaimongkonrojna & Steane, 2015).

Transformational leadership is a people-oriented leadership style that fosters an environment of mutual trust. Leader and follower have a shared vision for reaching organizational goals. It has five components: idealized influence behavior, idealized influence attributes, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Chaimongkonrojna & Steane, 2015).

Research Design

The present study had a nonexperimental, predictive research design and employed quantitative methods to test the moderating effect of gender on the relationship between perceived leadership style and job satisfaction. The independent variable was leadership style, and the moderating variable was gender. The dependent variable was job satisfaction. Data were collected from a Qualtrics survey panel made up of a stratified random gender-balanced sample of front-line banking employees. Initial validating questions forced certain responses before participants completed the survey instruments, which were: the MLQ and the JSS. The

MLQ derives from FRLT (Avolio & Bass, 1990). FRLT predicts a relationship between perceived leadership style and job satisfaction with gender used as a moderator. According to Mathieu et al. (2015), FRLT addresses the necessity of broadening thinking about what constitutes leadership and adequately measuring the most fruitful formulations of effective leadership theory and styles. The MLQ measures three major leadership constructs: (a) transactional leadership, (b) transformational leadership, and (c) passive-avoidant leadership. It is a 45-item questionnaire using a five-point Likert scale. The JSS is a 36-item scale that measures nine facets (pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication) of how employees feel about their jobs. It uses a six-point Likert scale (JSS, 2001; Justin & Heyliger, 2014).

To meet the sample criteria, other data collected included each participant's gender, full- or part-time status, length of time with the employer. In addition, each participant answered an industry-related question that ensured the participant was employed in the banking industry. Participants also provided their titles or roles to ensure that they were front-line/nonexempt employees. A front-line employee is one in a nonexecutive position subordinate to a leader (Bateman & Snell, 2016). The sample criteria excluded temporary employees, those employed for less than one year of full- or part-time employment, exempt employees; nonbanking employees, and managers or supervisors. Data analysis consisted of a two-way ANOVA. ANOVA is used to predict outcomes and is considered the best fitting model regarding regression (Field, 2013). Regression analysis tested the predicted relationships between the variables (Babalola, 2016; Field, 2013).

Assumptions and Limitations

Assumptions

This study focused on investigating the impact of gender on perceived leadership styles and job satisfaction. One methodological assumption was that all participants were truthful in their answers, meaning that they read each question thoroughly and spent ample time to ensure understanding so they could respond honestly and appropriately to each question. Another assumption was that participants' feelings at the moment they took the survey did not jeopardize or alter their responses. According to Hansbrough, Lord, and Schyns (2015), follower mood may impact ratings positively or negatively depending on the event or situation and when it takes place relative to when the participant takes the survey.

Topic-specific assumptions included society biases and prejudices such as that females are nurturing, gentle, and caring while males are dominant, aggressive, and confident (Şahin, Gürbüz, & Şeşen, 2017). Gender-related stereotypes can alter or influence views on leadership styles between female and male participants. An assumption could be made that there is a relationship between gender, perceived leadership style, and employee job satisfaction. A theoretical assumption was that females adopt a more democratic and transformational style of leadership with their nurturing, caring stereotype and males adopt a transactional style of leadership with their aggressive stereotype (Şahin et al., 2017).

The two chosen instruments were the MLQ and JSS; an assumption was that these Likert scales fit every participant. A related assumption was that these instruments were appropriate for assessing leadership styles (MLQ) and job satisfaction (JSS). Their reliability and construct validity justified this assumption. For the JSS, Cronbach's α ranged from .60 to .91, which indicated that the instrument was reliable (JSS, 2001).

Limitations

A discussion of limitations is important for the interpretation of the study's results and can inspire suggestions for future studies. The present study had several limitations that require acknowledgment.

First, this study used only FRLT as its theoretical foundation, and consequently considered only transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and passive-avoidant leadership. It did not take into account other motivational theories such as Maslow's hierarchy of needs; existence, relatedness, and growth theory; McClelland's achievement motivation; Herzberg's two-factor theory; and so on. There are limitations to understanding theory—one size does not fit all—however, depending on the person or situation, a certain theory that is proven in research can be applied (Van de Ven, 1989).

Second, this study did not investigate any behavior or feelings that participants may have had while taking the survey that may have altered their responses. The study did not record employees' intent to leave; which could be an opportunity for future studies.

A third limitation was participants' dishonesty, failure to understand the questions, and failure to read the questions in their entirety. A fourth limitation was that the study focused on a target population in the United States; thus, the results may not be generalizable to all front-line employees in the banking industry.

Organization of the Remainder of the Study

The dissertation is organized into five chapters. Chapter 2 presents a review of the scholarly literature related to the theoretical framework used in this study and information on the key constructs and their relationships. Chapter 3 discusses the methodology, outlining the specifics of the population, sample, and research design. Chapter 4 presents the results of the

data analysis process. Chapter 5 presents the conclusions, implications, and recommendations from the study results.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This literature review provides the basis for the study of the perceptions of leadership style, job satisfaction, and gender. This chapter begins with a description of the methods used for research, including the location and selection of articles. The following section describes FRLT, the theoretical orientation for the study. The heart of this chapter is a review of relevant literature relating to FRLT, leadership style, job satisfaction, and gender. The final sections synthesize the research findings, critique previous research methods, and summarize the findings of the literature review.

Methods of Searching

To identify seminal and recent peer-reviewed literature on the moderating effect of gender on the relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction, the researcher searched Capella University's library's databases. The specific databases that were key resources were the ABI/INFORM Collection, Business Source Complete, Google Scholar, ProQuest Central, Sage Journals Online, and Summon. The keywords used in the search included *leadership style*, *transactional leadership*, *transformational leadership*, *passive-avoidant leadership*, *job satisfaction*, *gender*, *male*, *female*, *FRLT*, *MLQ*, and *JSS*. Searches of the mentioned databases used the keywords individually and in combination to uncover the articles used in this dissertation. The researcher chose articles based on their relevance to the study, whether they were peer-reviewed, the credibility of the publishing journals, and their timeliness.

Theoretical Orientation for the Study

A theory is a tool used to provide a better understanding of a portion of reality that helps make sense of complex phenomena, elucidating the meaning, nature, and challenges of the

phenomenon (Connelly, 2014; Lynham, 2002). A theory offers a framework to help a researcher grasp, explain, predict, and anticipate in more advantageous, informed ways and produce better results. Making sense of a phenomenon allows for better reasoning, logical explanations, interpretation, and connection of data to theory (Rousseau, 2006). Theory helps to form a sound research question, to promote the researcher find and use relevant data, interpret and understand the data, and formulate clarifying reasons for its impact. Theory answers how and why.

Theory building is an ongoing process that influences everyday life. It allows an individual to observe, experience, think, understand, and act unconsciously (Lynham, 2002). With a basis of good theory, a researcher can interpret new outcomes. Good theory, according to Van de Ven (1989), “advances knowledge, guides research toward crucial questions, and enlightens the information presented” (p. 486). A good theory inspires positive change, leads to problem-solving techniques, and encourages cohesiveness. Theories have limitations—one size does not fit all—however, depending on the person or situation, a specific theory that is proven in research can be applied. Another limitation is that theories can be too structured and uninformed. It is important to pay attention to methods for identifying appropriate situations, to select and improve relevant theories, and to acknowledge the true complexities within theories that cause researchers to use alternative theories in certain situations (Van de Ven, 1989).

Leadership is an essential element of directing processes (Nazim & Mahmood, 2018). It is the ability to inspire and influence others to achieve organizational goals. Every organization needs leadership, and its quality plays a crucial role in the success or failure of an organization. A good leader should be able to change his or her style of leadership in the response to the current situation (Nazim & Mahmood, 2018; Northouse, 2007). Burns (1978) described leadership as an aspect of power. It transcends cultural boundaries (Bass, 1985). Leadership is

the art of influencing, inspiring, and persuading others to do something of value. Leadership theory has a foundation in leadership traits, which are specific characteristics needed to be effective in persuading others to achieve desired results (Bambale, Shamsudin, & Subramaniam, 2011). Packard (1962) explained leadership as a skill of gaining compliance from followers, influencing or persuading followers to do what the leader views as relevant and needing to be done. Fiedler (1967) and Hersey and Blanchard (1969) viewed leadership as situational and focused on the leader–follower relationship. With situational leadership, the leader changes his or her style of management to fit the follower he or she is attempting to influence. Burns (1978) created the transactional leadership and transformational leadership theories. He defined transactional leadership as a task-oriented leadership style where one receives an exchange or transaction of rewards or punishments based on goals or behavior; transformational leaders, on the other hand, engage and inspire followers to want to achieve a specific goal or behavior. Bass (1985) expanded on Burns’s (1978) findings to create FRLT.

Full-Range Leadership Theory

Witges & Scanlan (2014) described FRLT as, “high level leadership or transformation in that followers and leaders move beyond the parameters of resource exchange (transactional) to achieve a higher level of change driven by moral or utilitarian motivation” (p. 68). Bass (1999) extended the traits of transactional and transformational leadership and suggested a change in approach to understand how leaders influence followers to transcend self-interest and perform optimally for the greater good of their units and organizations (Antonakis et al., 2003). FRLT comprises the factors of transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and passive-avoidant leadership. Bass (1999) added passive-avoidant (*laissez-faire*) leadership, stated that the three constructs depend on situational contexts, and focused on exchanges and relationships

between leaders and followers instead of leader traits or characteristics (Toor & Ofori, 2009). This model predicts how a type of leadership style will impact follower motivation and performance or job satisfaction (Antonakis et al., 2003). Employee job satisfaction is a gratifying or optimistic feeling resulting from the evaluation of one's job or job experience (Samad et al., 2015).

Transactional leadership is based on an exchange and uses monitoring and control, offering both rewards and punishments (Chaimongkonrojna & Steane, 2015). According to Mathieu et al. (2015), transactional leadership is composed of two components: contingent reward and active or passive MBE. Transactional leadership uses contingent reward and MBE, which have been linked to job satisfaction (Oberfield, 2014). Contingent rewards are exchanges between leaders and followers based on performance, accomplishments, and effort, which are exchanged for a specific reward. Leaders who score high for passive MBE focus on mistakes and use punishment to get employees to reach organizational goals. Leaders intervene when problems have arisen, or standards have not been met. Active MBE active is the opposite, focusing on performance and giving feedback to reprimand employees before their behavior becomes a hindrance (Chaimongkonrojna & Steane, 2015). When leaders give fair, desired rewards, followers are likely to reciprocate with effort (Williams, 2017). Transactional leadership is used for those who cannot reach their full potential and need more inspiration to satisfy their lower level needs, such as equity and security, before they can move to higher level needs. When higher level needs are achieved, transformational leadership contributes more to job satisfaction by focusing on self-actualization, the reaching of full potential.

Transformational leadership is associated with positive organizational outcomes and positive job satisfaction: Goal clarity, empowerment, and motivation are achieved (Oberfield,

2014). Leaders give followers pride and show mutual respect, which facilitates creative thinking and overall goal achievement. Transformational leadership fosters an environment of mutual trust. Leader and follower have a shared vision in reaching organizational goals. Followers perform beyond expectations because they are inspired by their leader and feel their leader has their best interests at heart. According to Chaimongkonrojna and Steane (2015) and Mathieu et al. (2015), there are five components of transformational leadership:

1. Idealized influence behavior is behavior consistent with the organization's mission and values that is displayed by the leader for employees to mimic. With idealized influence, a leader can articulate the organization's vision and show followers how this vision aligns with their beliefs, resonating with employees on an emotional level (Witges & Scanlan, 2014).
2. Idealized influence attributes are qualities or traits such as power and charisma that a leader possesses. This component gives followers an opportunity for development and achievement by displaying role model behaviors through personal achievements, character, and practice.
3. Inspirational motivation is how followers understand the vision. Communication is done in an empowering way. The leader exerts a powerful, confident, and dynamic presence while communicating high performance expectations. The leader can express optimism about the organization's future (Witges & Scanlan, 2014).
4. Intellectual stimulation is the ability to encourage collaboration. Employees can think of an old problem in a new way. The leader will challenge assumptions, take risks, and foster innovation. Employees will accept delegation of professional growth,

- enhance their self-efficacy, and cultivate confidence, belonging, and engagement (Witges & Scanlan, 2014). Intellectual stimulation leads to employee empowerment.
5. Individualized consideration is recognition, autonomy, responsibility, and development, in which employees are given personal attention to promote their growth and achievement.

Researchers have associated the transformational leadership style with stress reduction in employees, organizational commitment, team performance, and employees' psychological well-being (Mathieu et al., 2015).

Passive-avoidant leadership is defined as the absence of leadership, avoidance of intervention, or both (Mathieu et al., 2015). Supervisors who use this leadership style delay making decisions, do not give feedback, do not reward their employees for performance, and make little or no effort to motivate employees or recognize their work (Mathieu et al., 2015). This type of leadership works well for highly motivated employees who are self-motivated and like the noninterventional approach. It allows followers to utilize resources and make decisions with no guidance in the workplace: Leaders react or take corrective action once a problem has occurred (Jelača, Biekić, & Leković, 2016). The passive-avoidant leadership style is linked to organizational commitment (Babalola, 2016).

Managers have a symbolic presence in the workplace that goes beyond their role of setting informal norms for behavior through their actions. They also show, and influence others to adopt, appropriate conduct in a formal setting (Oberfield, 2014). With management comes leadership, which consists of directing and influencing others to achieve organizational goals. Bass (1999) suggested that through transactional leadership followers achieve a low order that forms high order. The high order is obtained by setting the stage for followers to do the work

that is expected then giving feedback and praise to set the stage to achieve more (Oberfield, 2014). This type of leadership allows followers to develop and discover creativity and understand their potential. It strengthens followers' willingness to do what is expected, rewarding them for acceptable performance or outcomes and clarifying role expectations when followers do not meet them. The creativity aspect of transactional leadership is an important factor, because it leads to innovation. Positive behavior showcased by leaders to followers is a vital precursor for employees' creativity (Ebrahimi, Chamanzamin, Roohbakhsh, & Shaygan, 2017).

FRLT is a tool used to understand leaders' leadership styles as perceived by their followers from the followers' perspectives and job roles. It is more universal than approaches that focus on one particular leadership style. To implement FRLT, Bass and Avolio (1995) developed the MLQ to measure how leadership styles relate to job satisfaction. The MLQ is detailed in Chapter 3.

Review of the Literature

This section of the chapter contains a review of the seminal work on leadership styles and a review of work on job satisfaction and gender relevant to the study. Creswell (2014) described a theory as a set of constructs or variables along with an explanation of how they relate, which provide meaning for a particular phenomenon and understanding of why it exists. The review of the literature revealed that leadership style and employee job satisfaction are linked: Dissatisfied employees will not produce the desired outcomes of the organization (Babalola, 2016). Satisfied employees inspire confidence and support their leader's mission to achieve company goals (Alonderiene & Majauskaite, 2016; Randeree & Ghaffar Chaudhry, 2012). As Babalola (2016) said, "Adopting a leadership style that works best for an organization and its employees remains

one of the most effective and efficient means by which organizations achieve their objectives and that of employees' satisfaction" (p. 936). The significant difference between seminal work on transformational and transactional leadership and more recent research is how a leader's role is characterized regarding the type of leadership style he or she matches, and which style is most beneficial for the follower. Seminal work focused on the leader's role for leader and worker efficiency. More recent research has focused on the leader's behavior for building relationships with his or her followers and establishing mutual understanding to help them achieve their professional and organizational goals. The measures for transformational and transactional leadership have remained the same but drawn on various samples and populations throughout time.

Downton (1973) first introduced transformational leadership theory. He explained it as a process of changing behavior to push people to do more than they usually would. Burns (1978) developed the theory using the element of power that leaders use to change employee behavior, which is either transformational or transactional. He described people as having specific wants and needs, which create motivation, which in turn changes behavior: The need to accomplish inspires the follower to achieve success. When the leader and follower hold the same values, relationships form, which create an atmosphere in which they grow and discover. When followers believe a leader cares about their welfare, they are inspired to follow. Weber (1947), House (1977), Burns (1978), and Bennis and Nanus (1985) developed charismatic leadership theory, which is one element used in transformational leadership (Mekraz, 2011). *Charisma* is a Greek word meaning divine gift (Williams, 2017). Weber (1947) explained charisma as a strong bond between a leader and a follower. A charismatic leader has a magnetic personality and possesses the power to influence and inspire followers to achieve goals set by the organization

and leader. Charismatic characteristics form an element of transformational leadership and include having a strong sense of vision, confidence, and desire. Transformational leadership goes a step further by getting employees to see beyond their own needs and self-interest for the good of the organization or group (Williams, 2017). Transformational leaders put their employees' needs before their own and bear the risks involved. Because of this, they are respected and trusted.

Anderson and Sun (2017) discussed transformational leadership and charismatic traits, which are among the most dominant styles of leadership in organizations. In essence, charismatic leaders manipulate followers to accomplish the goals the leaders have set (Anderson & Sun, 2017). According to Anderson and Sun, transformational leadership consists of four dimensions: (a) charisma, which is idealized influence; (b) inspirational motivation, which occurs when leaders inspire others to see their vision and challenge their followers with high expectations and meaningful tasks; (c) intellectual stimulation, which is when leaders stimulate creativity in their followers; and (d) individualized consideration, which is when leaders understand the wants and desires of their followers and act as mentors and coaches to help them achieve their potential. These are similar to the five points discussed in seminal literature. Transformational leadership is linked to job satisfaction and leader effectiveness. The personality characteristics observed in transformational leaders are creativity, openness to new ideas, openness to change, willingness to take risks, value-based motivation, belief in followers, pragmatism, and self-confidence (Brandt & Edinger, 2015).

Transactional leadership came from the social learning theory of Bandura (1977), the social exchange theory of Hollander (1979), Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory, and the path-goal theory of Evans (1970) and House and Mitchell (1974; see also Mekraz, 2011). In

transactional leadership, the leader needs to give clear directions and deadlines for the required tasks so that the follower understands what is necessary for the exchange of payment, recognition, merit, promotion, or bonuses (Witges & Scanlan, 2014). Contingent rewards establish trust between the leader and the follower and associated positively with transformational leadership (Witges & Scanlan, 2014). Anderson and Sun (2017) decomposed transactional leadership into three facets: contingent reward, passive or active MBE, and passive-avoidance. This is also similar to the two components of seminal literature, with the addition of passive avoidance, which, as with passive-avoidant leadership, implies nonintervention or abandonment of responsibility. Passive-avoidant leadership is the absence of management, which allows followers to make their own decisions with very little to no guidance. Leaders may procrastinate, avoid making decisions, and avoid conflict. Transactional leadership is related to team performance, ethics of judgment, and employee creativity (Anderson & Sun, 2017). There is a certain level of follower optimism with contingent rewards.

Bass (1999) viewed the transactional and transformational leadership styles as complementary and indicated that they should not be replaced with different strategies. Transactional leadership is the foundation on which the attributes of transformational leadership can develop. Transactional leadership gives followers the structure or basis upon which fair decisions are made and allows followers to receive praise and rewards. From praise and rewards, followers feel empowered to strive for more (transformational leadership). Charismatic leadership, a component of transformational leadership, is the most successful way to empower followers (Rahman, Akhter, & Khan, 2017).

Antonakis and House (2014) expressed a differing viewpoint and expanded transformational and transactional leadership theory by adding a set of behaviors that they called

pragmatic leadership or practical leadership. Pragmatic leadership is a sensemaking model of how leaders respond to a crisis. Charismatic leaders use future-oriented, vision-based ideas (ideas already generated) in their responses, but pragmatic leaders focus on the causes of a crisis and think of attainable goals based on threats and opportunities in the current situation (Anderson & Sun, 2017). According to Anderson and Sun (2017), the differences are that charismatic leaders have a socialized orientation (they initiate action for society regardless of personal consequences), but pragmatic leaders have a personalized orientation (they initiate action to keep or increase power regardless of implications both personally and socially).

Anderson and Sun (2017) showed that pragmatic leaders are more flexible and can work with other leader types regarding problem solving and decision making but charismatic leaders conflict with other leaders. Pragmatic leaders use past success and failures as a basis or foundation for their current situation. Charismatic leaders use events in life that have guided them down a sudden, life-altering path that they tie to future goals and actions. Anderson and Sun stated that pragmatic leaders have an ethical dedication to others. Pragmatic or practical leadership is an element of transactional leadership, charismatic leadership is a trait of transformational leadership, and both are constructs of FRLT (Yammarino, 1993). Witges and Scanlan (2014) explained FRLT as leaders transforming followers: Leaders use a transaction to achieve a higher level of change driven by utilitarian motivation. A utilitarian design is practical, useful, and sensible. Existing research suggests that successful implementation of transformational leadership can produce outcomes such as employees' willingness to make extra effort, perception of leader effectiveness, and overall job satisfaction. Therefore, the complex relationship between transactional and transformational leadership practices invites further investigation (Witges, & Scanlan, 2014).

FRLT encompasses all three leadership categories. Bass (1985) laid the foundation of transformational and transactional leadership and developed the MLQ from previous research. The MLQ is a psychological inventory that contains 36 items related to leadership styles and nine items pertaining to leadership outcomes (Mind Garden, 2004b). Its purpose is to assess a full range of leadership styles linked to individual and organizational success (Mind Garden, 2004b). The MLQ has been adopted by the community and was widely used at the time of the study.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a changeable emotional feeling influenced by the type of leadership style, and it impacts the performance and commitment of employees (Alghamdi, Topp, & AlYami, 2018; Gyensare et al., 2016). Job satisfaction is a positive or a negative feeling or emotion about one's work that ultimately leads to organizational commitment, high levels of productivity, and employee motivation. Low levels of job satisfaction decrease employee morale, and demoralized employees do not stay committed to their companies (Mujkic et al., 2014; Randeree & Ghaffar Chaudhry, 2012). Job satisfaction can be viewed as the degree of job enjoyment. It can contribute to worker comfort or hostility (Josanov-Vrgovic & Pavlovic, 2014). There are two ways to for a company's leaders to look at job satisfaction: The first is as the level of emotion of employees toward their work, and the second regards aspects of the work such as pay, benefits, scheduling, and so on (Mujkic et al., 2014). National culture has a strong influence on employees' satisfaction. National culture consists of shared values, beliefs, and attitudes that affect behavior, perceptions, and ways of life. According to Hofstede (n.d.), there are five dimensions of national cultures: (a) power distance, which is how power and authority is distributed in a society and its business world; (b) individualism versus collectivism, which is

how work or trade is completed—as individual actions or group processes; (c) gender roles, which are the roles that males and females play in decision making; (d) accepting risk, which is whether citizens are highly averse to risk or embrace uncertainty and speculation; and (e) short-term or long-term focus, which is whether citizens live day-to-day or think long-term.

The dimension of the power distance of a national culture involves the elements of authority and power: Leaders who have a considerable degree of authority over followers have a high power distance, and leaders who have less authority over followers have a low power distance (Wang, Chiang, Tsai, Lin, & Cheng, 2013). This is meaningful because individuals perceive and react to authority differently; a follower's view of the power distance may influence and impact direct orders from his or her leader. The gender-role dimension of national culture represents an understanding of how the gender of a leader affects how his or her behavior is evaluated. Sex-role stereotypes may play a factor. For instance, researchers found that women expected to be sympathetic, nurturing, and compassionate. Male leaders were evaluated on initiating structure and task-oriented processes (Bartol & Butterfield, 1976; Huang & Gamble, 2015; Hwang & Ramadoss, 2017). Leaders portraying behaviors of the opposite sex are evaluated negatively by their followers because of gender-role stereotypes (Ebrahimi et al., 2017; Hwang & Ramadoss, 2017). Transformational leaders are change oriented, because they can influence followers to perform beyond expectations using intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, idealized influence, and individualized consideration (Liu & Liao, 2013). Transformational leaders can change their behavior based on their followers' needs. Power distance can play an important role in how transformational leaders influence their followers. According to Fein et al. (2015), when organizational leaders consider cultural factors of their employees and develop intercultural competence, including effective communication, listening

skills, and so on, they can create long-term organizational effectiveness and overall employee job satisfaction. Such leaders can match their leadership styles with their employees' desires and expectations.

Gender

This study investigated gender as a moderator between leadership style and job satisfaction. Gender is a psychosocial construct determined by an individual's experience of being male or female (Winter, 2015). According to Collins et al. (2014), "men and women respond differently to various aspects of social relationships" (p. 661). Collins et al. (2014) suggested looking at gender in the workplace to see if there is a relationship between gender and leadership style and whether this relationship influences overall employee job satisfaction.

Gender is a concept defined by genetics, has gone through significant changes over time, and can differ between cultures (Shateri, Aminikhah, Ardakani, & Ardakani, 2016). Gender refers to social roles, attributes, behaviors, beliefs, values, relative power, and influence on society based on being male or female (Shateri et al., 2016). Gender can influence the relationship between manager and employee (Jackson et al., 2014). Nonbinary gender has become a classification that shapes leaders' behaviors and actions. A nonbinary-gender person expresses a combination of masculinity and femininity through behavior, interests, or mannerisms (Leitch & Stead, 2016). Society has granted certain norms to male leaders and female leaders, and these norms can vary between different social and organizational contexts. Gender stereotypes impact awareness of how men and women should behave (Cenkci & Özçelik, 2015; Ebrahimi et al., 2017; Wolfram & Gratton, 2014). Gender shapes how a leader communicates, establishes relationships, and builds rapport with employees. Gender may also

affect how a leader is excluded, included, marginalized, or denied via gendered norms (Leitch & Stead, 2016).

Eagly and Johnson (1990) and Eagly, Karau, and Makhijani (1995) suggested that gender differences can vary because there is not a good fit between gender roles and particular leadership roles. Their findings revealed that if a leader's behavior is different from what is expected by society (the norm), it will have a bearing on how followers evaluate them. If a woman leads with control, structure, and aggressiveness, she is likely to receive negative feedback from followers, because these are seen as inappropriate female behaviors (Rhee & Sigler, 2015). However, a man leading in the same manner may be seen as behaving congruously with the stereotypical male role and would consequently be rated positively by followers (Cenkci & Özçelik, 2015; Wolfram & Gratton, 2014). Taylor (2017) found the opposite, stating that when female leaders use their norm or stereotypical role combined with characteristics of the male stereotypical role, they are rated more effective than males. The relationship between the manager and follower is crucial because it can have a bearing on organizational effectiveness, employee wellbeing, overall job satisfaction, and commitment. Commitment occurs when an employee feels valued and respected: The employee's level of loyalty and emotional attachment increases, making it more difficult to leave (Babalola, 2016).

Another aspect of gender is how the role or job is viewed. Men and women may value different job characteristics and vary in their evaluations of jobs (Hauret & Williams, 2017). Women may value their role as a homemaker rather than their role as a manager and attain additional satisfaction from this role. According to Luo (2016), women are more easily satisfied with their current jobs than their male counterparts because they place value on other interests and desires outside of work that help them achieve overall happiness and success on the job.

Women's job satisfaction is also explained by their having lower expectations regarding wages (Hauret & Williams, 2017).

Gender can influence the relationship between manager and employee (Jackson et al., 2014). Gender correlates with attitudes and gender congruence matters (Grissom, Nicholson-Crotty, & Keiser, 2012). Researchers have found that a manager's effectiveness, communication style, ability to persuade, and trustworthiness produce specific characteristics that subordinates use to make judgments that can impact critical downstream workplace processes and outcomes (Collins et al., 2014; Jackson et al., 2014). Gender is salient and having a gender-balanced workplace can eliminate gender prejudices and sex-role stereotyping (Rodríguez-Ruiz et al., 2016).

It is possible that male subordinates expect one type of leadership style from a female leader, and female subordinates expect one kind of leadership style from a male leader (Collins et al., 2014). The gender of the leader has a significant effect on both job satisfaction and transformational leadership style (Alghamdi et al., 2018). Collins et al. (2014) used leader-member-exchange theory in their study to determine the relationship between leaders and followers. The authors found that female leaders possessed higher levels of empathy, nurturing capabilities, and trust from followers than their male colleagues. The influential findings of Collins et al. support use of the equity approach and socioemotional support to encourage equal treatment and consistent norms of both genders. The outcome of the study was an increase of job satisfaction among different gender types by tailoring leader behavior to subordinate gender. This was done through recruitment, ongoing training, development, and an overall understanding of employees at the organizations studied.

Researchers have used FRLT and the MLQ in hundreds of studies; some of its evolution has come from participants in these studies. Bass, Avolio, and Atwater (1996) researched differences in transformational and transactional leadership between female and male direct reports. They showed that female leaders were more nurturing, empathetic, caring, and expressive than male leaders, all transformational leadership traits (Alvesson, Due Billing, & Powell, 2014). Bass et al. also found that women were less qualified in management positions than males. The authors compared men and women on dimensions of autocratic versus democratic, direct versus participative, and task-oriented styles of leadership. Bass et al. found little difference between male and female leadership styles.

Charismatic leadership is highly esteemed by inspirational individuals who act as role models for followers. Bass et al. (1996) mentioned that some followers may not want to mirror their leaders, which results in a key difference from charismatic leaders. Reviewing studies performed between 1986 and 1994 that examined male and female differences regarding transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant leadership in follower descriptions, Bass et al. reported that only women raters appeared to see women leaders as highly effective and satisfying.

Women are more charismatic than men, and women engage in contingent rewards of their followers. Researchers have studied different organizations and found different results in for-profit versus nonprofit organizations, where transactional leadership is preferred and stimulates productive teamwork from employees. Transactional leadership is task-oriented and stereotyped as a male leadership style (Alvesson et al., 2014; Powell, 1990). In educational settings, the “transformational leadership style is accompanied by a higher level of job satisfaction when compared to transactional leadership style” (Alonderiene & Majauskaite, 2016,

p. 161). Okoji (2015) found a mixture of leadership styles to be effective and enhance job performance among teachers in Nigeria. In construction management, no one leadership style is appropriate for all situations (Randeree & Ghaffar Chaudhry, 2012). There has been little research regarding what impact, if any, gender has for front-line employees using FRLT. This study of gender, leadership style, and job satisfaction provided an opportunity to find out whether things have evolved recently.

Effective leadership has a positive effect on employee morale, productivity, and ethical behavior along with the future success of an organization (Weisberg & Dent, 2016). Leadership development is needed for an organization's health, to remain ethical, and to advance employees within the organization (Weisberg & Dent, 2016). FRLT, and its associated instrument the MLQ, encompasses charismatic (transformational), pragmatic (transactional), and passive-avoidant leadership styles. It is a diverse tool used to measure a follower's leadership style from their perspective and their current job role. It is more universal than focusing on one particular leadership style.

Findings

Job satisfaction is influenced by leadership style (Alonderiene & Majauskaite, 2016). Gender can affect a manager's effectiveness, communication style, ability to persuade, and trustworthiness, creating specific characteristics that subordinates use to make judgments that can impact important downstream workplace processes and outcomes (Collins et al., 2014; Jackson et al., 2014). The leader's role is significant as it pertains to overall job satisfaction and organizational effectiveness. Researchers have found positive outcomes from feedback obtained via transactional leadership (Alonderiene & Majauskaite, 2016). Others have found that the use of behaviors related to all aspects of transformational leadership and the contingent reward of

transactional leadership are needed to increase job satisfaction (Amin, Khan, & Tatlah, 2013). According to Josanov-Vrgovic and Pavlovic (2014), employees are most satisfied with the aspects of promotion, recognition, working skills, safety, and the nature of the work itself.

At the time of the study, it was unknown to what extent, if any, gender influences either perceived leadership style or employee job satisfaction. Further attention is needed to understand the relationship between subordinate gender and preferred leadership style (Douglas, 2012). Researchers have not focused on gender in relation to job satisfaction (Iyer, 2017). Future data collection needs to include questions on aspects of the job in relation to satisfaction to understand and address the growing gender differences, which could lead to more satisfied and productive workers (Luo, 2016; Şahin et al., 2017). According to Rodríguez-Ruiz et al. (2016), gender-integrated firms perform better than homogeneous firms.

Collins et al. (2014) found that to increase job satisfaction across genders it is best to tailor leader behavior to subordinate gender. This can be done through recruitment, ongoing training, development, and an overall understanding of employees in the organizations studied. Male leaders may need additional training or different approaches to team leadership training to improve their transformational leadership behaviors (Brandt & Edinger, 2015). Organizational leaders should consider cultural factors for their employees and develop intercultural competence (Fein et al., 2015). In addition, raising awareness of, and educating people about, gender biases can speed up the change in perception of how female and male leaders are evaluated (Taylor, 2017). The gaps in existing research indicated that quantitative research of transformational and transactional styles in specific fields of business such as banking and tourism was needed (Mujkic et al., 2014).

Leaders should be able to match their leadership styles with their employees' desires and expectations. A gender-balanced workplace can eliminate gender prejudices and sex-role stereotyping (Rodríguez-Ruiz et al., 2016). FRLT is best aligned with the research question. A leader can demonstrate characteristics of each of the full-range leadership behaviors, which can increase his or her overall effectiveness. The FRLT accounts for different characteristics of leadership styles and covers a more diverse set of followers than other theories. Organizational leaders who understand and “embrace the FRLT framework are committed to employing qualified leaders grounded with transformational practices to motivate and inspire employees to become leaders in their own right” (Witges & Scanlan, 2014, p. 70).

FRLT is measured by the MLQ. This questionnaire has been adopted and is used to research the community. Its Cronbach's α values indicated that it is valid and reliable in all dimensions of the general management field (Berkovich, 2016). FRLT is used in “applied psychology and actively applied in a wide array of disciplines; it is a best-known and best-validated measure to gauge the full-range leadership theory” (Antonakis et al., 2003, p. 747). In the end, aligning the personal needs of employees with those of their organization can help keep qualified employees happy and reduce the likelihood of turnover, absenteeism, errors, rule violations, and strikes (Babalola, 2016; Yan et al., 2015).

Critique of Previous Research Methods

A theoretical conflict existed between charismatic leadership and pragmatic leadership and its ethical values. Anderson and Sun (2017) extended the transformational and transactional leadership theories by adding pragmatic leadership, which may have a direct influence on how subordinates view leadership. Another ethical issue is knowing the difference between leadership style and leadership trait theories. Trait-based theories identify qualities that leaders

may have, such as integrity, assertiveness, empathy, and so on. Leadership style, however, is the function or set of methods used to manage or lead employees.

Collins et al. (2014) employed leader–member-exchange theory to determine the relationship between leaders and followers. In this study, female leaders had higher levels of empathy, nurturing capabilities, and levels of trust from followers than their male colleagues. The influential findings of Collins et al. support the use of the equity approach and socioemotional support to encourage equal treatment and consistent norms of both genders.

Future research on leadership style and job satisfaction could inform the growth of high-quality supervision and subordinate relationships from which organizations and everyone involved will benefit (Collins et al., 2014). Rahman et al. (2017) suggested identifying new ways to give employees more responsibility for their work to create an interest in what they do and new ways to train supervisors to be more productive and make a positive difference to their employees. Data from this study should assist organizational leaders to impact the quality of their staff. Improvements can be made to existing staff and enhancements can be made in the hiring process to create overall balance within organizations.

Summary

The purpose of the literature review is to understand the theory, phenomena, key variables, methods/history, and key findings. Most importantly to identify gaps in the existing literature that constituted the reason for this study. This chapter presented the scholarly research related to types of leadership styles and how they relate to job satisfaction especially with the moderator of gender. The chapter began with a section on the methods employed in the literature search. It then described the development of the theoretical orientation for the study. The central part of the chapter was the literature review, which covered seminal work on

leadership, job satisfaction, and gender. The findings section summarized the main points and gaps in the literature review, and the chapter concluded with a critique of methods used in previous research and opportunities for future studies. Chapter 3 describes the methods used to conduct the study.

CHAPTER 3. METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter begins with a restatement of the purpose of the study and the research questions and hypotheses. A description of the research design follows. Next, is information on the target population and sample. The following sections detail the procedures used to conduct the study, the instruments used to collect the data, and ethical considerations. The chapter concludes with a summary.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative, nonexperimental study was to answer the research question which asked: To what extent does gender moderate perceived leadership style and job satisfaction of front-line employees. The independent variable was leadership style, the moderating variable was gender, and the dependent variable was job satisfaction. The rationale for a nonexperimental research design was that this study collected data without making changes (variables such as gender cannot be manipulated) or introducing treatments, and it did not develop a new theory (Radhakrishnan, 2013). This study correlated the independent and dependent variables, which were observed without manipulating the independent variable (Radhakrishnan, 2013).

Leadership is the art of influencing, inspiring, and persuading others to do something of value. Leadership style is the method of providing these directions to help motivate employees to reach organizational goals. Job satisfaction is a changeable emotional feeling influenced by the type of leadership style that impacts the performance and commitment of employees (Alghamdi et al., 2018; Gyensare et al., 2016). Gender refers to social roles, attributes,

behaviors, beliefs, values, relative power, and influence on society based on being male or female (Shateri et al., 2016).

Job satisfaction is influenced by leadership style (Alonderiene & Majauskaite, 2016). Gender can affect a manager's effectiveness, communication style, ability to persuade, and trustworthiness causing specific characteristics that subordinates use to make judgments that can impact important downstream workplace processes and outcomes (Collins et al., 2014; Jackson et al., 2014). It is possible that male subordinates expect one type of leadership style from a female leader, and female subordinates expect one type of leadership style from a male leader (Collins et al., 2014).

It is unknown to what extent, if any, gender influences perceived leadership style or job satisfaction. Further attention is needed to understand the relationship between subordinate gender and preferred leadership style (Douglas, 2012). Fein et al. (2015) suggested exploring other variables such as job satisfaction and emphasized the need to explore a diverse population. This study provided an opportunity to investigate whether there is a correlation between gender and leadership style.

According to Rodríguez-Ruiz et al. (2016), gender-integrated firms perform better than homogeneous firms. However, there has been little research regarding what impact, if any, gender has for front-line employees using the FRLT. With this important data, an organization could improve existing staff and enhance the hiring process. In the end, aligning the personal needs of employees with those of the organization can help keep qualified employees happy; reduce the likelihood of turnover, absenteeism, errors, violations of rules, and strikes; and create organizational balance (Babalola, 2016; Yan et al., 2015).

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The study was designed to answer one research question and three subquestions. This section presents those questions along with their associated formal hypotheses.

Research Question

To what extent does gender moderate perceived leadership style and job satisfaction of front-line employees?

H1₀: Gender is not a significant moderator between perceived leadership style and employee job satisfaction.

H1_a: Gender is a significant moderator between perceived leadership style and employee job satisfaction.

Subquestion 1

To what extent does perceived leadership style influence employee job satisfaction?

H2₀: There is no significant relationship between perceived leadership style and employee job satisfaction.

H2_a: There is a significant relationship between perceived leadership style and employee job satisfaction.

Subquestion 2

To what extent, if any, does gender influence perceived leadership style?

H3₀: Gender does not significantly influence perceived leadership style.

H3_a: Gender does significantly influence perceived leadership style.

Subquestion 3

To what extent, if any, does gender influence employee job satisfaction?

H4₀: Gender does not significantly influence employee job satisfaction.

H4_a: Gender does significantly influence employee job satisfaction.

Research Design

The study used a quantitative, nonexperimental, predictive research design to examine the moderating effect of gender on the relationship between perceived leadership style and job satisfaction. A quantitative approach tests objective theories by examining relationships among variables. These variables can be measured, and the data collected can be analyzed using statistical procedures (Creswell, 2014).

This study used a Qualtrics survey panel made up of a stratified, gender-balanced, random sample of front-line employees in the banking sector. A random stratified sampling technique was used for precision to ensure that the sample had equal numbers of male and female participants. In addition, the use of random stratified sampling complies with research principles to reduce bias and errors of validity and reliability. Participants were asked validating questions to force certain responses before completing the survey instruments. Data were collected using structured questions (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). Participants completed the MLQ and the JSS after answering the validating questions. The data analysis consisted of a two-way ANOVA. ANOVA is used to predict outcomes (Field, 2013). It is considered the best fitting model regarding regression (Field, 2013). Regression analysis was used to investigate relationships between the variables (Babalola, 2016; Field, 2013).

Target Population and Sample

This section describes the target population, sample, and power analysis, which was used to calculate the study's sample size.

Population

The larger target population consisted of male and female front-line banking employees in the United States, specifically those who self-report as front-line employees, such as teller, bank marketing representative, loan officer, customer service representative, and so on. A front-line employee is one who is in a nonexecutive position and is subordinate to a leader (Bateman & Snell, 2016).

Qualtrics recruited participants from its online database of potential participants. The surveys were administered online to the selected, random target population. Qualtrics database of potential participants is domestic and international. The extensive database meant there was a high likelihood of reaching the needed number of participants with the necessary gender balance.

Sample

The study relied on stratified random sampling of equal numbers of male and female front-line U.S. banking employees. The Qualtrics recruitment service allowed for effective recruitment and qualified verification of participants. The gender balance was necessary to determine whether gender had a moderating effect on the relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction. The sample inclusion criteria required participants

- to be full-time or part-time employed;
- to have been employed for a minimum 1 year;
- to be a front-line or entry-level employee; and
- to be employed in the banking industry.

The sample exclusion criteria rejected contractual or temporary employees, those with less than 1 year of full-time or part-time employment, exempt managers or supervisors, and non-

banking-industry employees. The intent of these criteria was to ensure that participants were representative of the needed target population for the study.

Power Analysis

G*Power (Version 3.1) is a tool that can compute statistical power analyses for different tests, compute an effect size, and present the power analysis via graphs (Field, 2013). G*Power (Version 3.1) for linear multiple regression with a fixed model and single regression coefficient was used to estimate the sample size for the study based on a 95% confidence level and 5% margin of error. The type of power analysis was a priori, with a medium effect size f^2 of .15, an α error probability of .05, and a confidence interval of .95. The computed minimum sample size was 90 participants. The sampling strategy was probability sampling using a stratified, random sampling design with $N =$ power analysis; male and female. The strengths of the sampling method are its randomness, lack of bias, and developed researched instruments. Studying the specific sample should permit generalization of conclusions to the population of interest (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). Another advantage of using a specific sample size was the production of more reliable results with fewer and less severe errors compared to larger sample sizes (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013).

Procedures

This section describes the procedures used to conduct the study. The first subsection describes the participant selection process. The next subsection explains how participants were protected during and after the study. Then data collection procedures are described, followed by the process used to analyze the data.

Participant Selection

1. An account was set up with Qualtrics, a third-party organization approved by Capella University, from which the validated survey could be administered.
2. With permission from the authors, the MLQ and JSS questionnaires were loaded into the Qualtrics survey file software platform.
3. Using Qualtrics, the proposed target population was selected using a stratified random gender-balanced sample of male and female front-line employees in the banking industry.
4. Qualtrics recruited a panel and administered the survey via e-mail.
5. Participants received a link via e-mail that directed them to the survey instrument.
6. The link included details of the study, its purpose, the time commitment required by the participant, the consent agreement, and qualifying questions (covering demographics and sample inclusion criteria).
7. After the participant clicked the link, they were asked to provide informed consent before completing the survey.
8. Participants agreed to Qualtrics's terms and conditions before completing the survey.
9. If the participant selected no to either of the above, the survey was not administered, and the participant was thanked for his or her time.
10. The demographics and qualifying portion of the survey included a gender question to distinguish male and female participants, a question about full-time or part-time status, a question about length of current employment, a request for the participant's role or title to ensure the participant was a front-line or entry-level employee, and an industry-related question to ensure the participant was from the banking industry.

11. If the participant did not qualify, he or she was not directed to complete the survey.

The system thanked the participant for his or her time and exited.

12. The survey was anonymous; however, the researcher's contact information was included in case participants had any questions or needed additional information.

13. Qualtrics tracked the response rate. Once the required number of responses was reached, the raw data were sent to the researcher for analysis.

14. Qualtrics removed data from their database.

Protection of Participants

Participants were protected during the study by providing informed consent before participating in the study. The informed consent provided information about the study, why they were asked to participate, the researcher's name and contact information, what would happen during the study, any risks associated with the study, who they could talk to about the study, and an option to consent to join the study. No participant was forced or received an incentive from the researcher to participate in the study. Participants were kept anonymous and could request a copy of the findings after completion. The researcher was never in direct contact with the participants. No one will be able to identify the participants in any written reports or publications.

The data were managed for proper protection and destruction. This included stripping data of internet protocol addresses ensure participant anonymity. The computer used by the researcher was password protected. Data were removed from Qualtrics's database once they were sent to the researcher. Once 7 years have elapsed, the data will be deleted from any stored files and the computer's hard drive by sanitizing the media by running a program to clean the computer and set the computer back to factory default settings. The USB drive will be destroyed

to its entirety. In addition, no hard data will be kept after 7 years from the completion of the study.

Data Collection

The researcher managed the data collection process in direct contact with Qualtrics, a third-party organization approved by Capella University. Qualtrics sent out a survey link via e-mail to each qualified participant. The steps were as follows:

1. The informed consent forms were provided to the participants and electronically signed by Qualtrics.
2. Participants were given instructions on the time required to complete the survey, which was estimated at 15 minutes.
3. Qualtrics collected all of the responses according to the protocol agreed between Qualtrics and the researcher.
4. The researcher accessed the Qualtrics website to obtain the data report and exported it to SPSS (Version 24) to complete the data analyses.

Qualtrics had a qualifying rate and validation parameter to eliminate participants who completed the survey before the median time permitted.

According to Qualtrics (2018), data collection proceeded as follows:

1. The survey was set up by the researcher using the Qualtrics survey file software platform.
2. Qualtrics screened participants using a double verification process.
3. Initially, Qualtrics conducted a soft launch for the first 20 responses to determine the average time participants took to complete the survey. (Soft launch lasted approximately 4–8 hours).

4. After the soft launch, Qualtrics used a 1/3 speeder check to screen out participants who took the survey in less than 8.5 minutes to prevent skewed data due to lack of participant time commitment.
5. A full launch is initiated.
6. All raw data are collected and retrieved using the analytical tool in the software platform.
7. Raw data are sent to the researcher for analysis.

Data Analysis

Prior to analysis, the data were reviewed for accuracy and completeness, and the data underwent preliminary descriptive statistical analysis to address missing and erroneous responses. SPSS (Version 24) was used to conduct all further analysis. The next step was to prepare the data for testing.

In SPSS (Version 24), the independent variables were leadership style and gender, which were nominal variables. A nominal variable has as values two or more unordered categories. For leadership style these were transactional (1), transformational (2), and passive–avoidant (3). When interpreting the data, the final results would be stated as more or less than the norm. According to Mind Garden (2004b), “the MLQ is not designed to encourage the labeling of a leader as transformational or transactional, rather it is more appropriate to identify as more or less than the norm” (p. 120). The MLQ is composed of nine scales and divided into three leadership styles (Bass & Avolio, 1995). To obtain the averages for each scale, responses were summed for questions pertaining to that particular scale, then the total was divided by number of responses for that scale. For gender, the values were male (1) and female (2). The dependent variable was job satisfaction, which was a scale variable. A scale variable has numeric value, is

continuous, is ordered, and represents a precise measurement (Field, 2013). Job satisfaction was labeled using a six-point Likert scale with values from 1 to 6. The following subsections describe the descriptive statistics calculations followed by the study's hypothesis testing.

Descriptive statistics. SPSS (Version 24) was used to calculate the descriptive statistics.

The following descriptive data was used:

1. Gender;
2. Full or part-time employment;
3. Length of time employed;
4. Banking industry; and
5. Role.

Data were examined for frequencies, central tendencies, and dispersions by graphic representations of the data points

Hypothesis testing. The two-way ANOVA, also known as factorial ANOVA, consists of two independent variables and dependent variable (Mertler & Vannatta-Reinhart, 2017). It is considered the best fitting model regarding regression (Field, 2013). Regression analysis (a component of ANOVA) explains or predicts relationships between variables (Babalola, 2016; Field, 2013). Results were considered significant if the associated *p*-value was less than .05. This test showed whether there was a relationship or interaction between the two independent variables in question. The two-way ANOVA tested the separate hypotheses of the study simultaneously in one analysis. To explain in further detail, the two hypotheses tested the significance of the levels of the two independent variables (leadership style and gender) separately. The third tested the significance of the interaction of the levels of the two independent variables to examine if gender had a relationship/interaction between leadership

style and job satisfaction (Mertler & Vannatta-Reinhart, 2017). The interaction hypothesis examined the effects of the factors by analyzing whether the effect of one independent variable is consistent at all levels of a second independent variable. The primary purpose of a two-way ANOVA is to understand if there is an interaction between the two independent variables and the dependent variable (Mertler & Vannatta-Reinhart, 2017).

There are two types of interactions: ordinal and disordinal interactions (Mertler & Vannatta-Reinhart, 2017). Ordinal interaction (parallel lines) is when the lines plotted do not cross; disordinal interaction (non-parallel lines) is when the plotted lines cross within the values of the graph (Mertler & Vannatta-Reinhart, 2017). Plotted lines refers to the estimated marginal plot of analysis. The significance of the interaction is important to determine if any interpretation of the main effects is needed (Mertler & Vannatta-Reinhart, 2017). The hypothesis was rejected if there was an interaction between the variables. If there was no interaction, a *t*-test was performed to examine leadership style and job satisfaction independently. According to Fields (2013), a *t*-test is used to understand the significance of individual coefficients and compare the means of two populations.

Instruments

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

The MLQ instrument created by Bass and Avolio (1995) was used to measure leadership style. The researcher obtained permission from Mind Garden (2004a). The MLQ has been used for the population of management personnel, researchers, consultants, leaders, supervisors, colleagues, peers, and direct reports, either as individuals or as groups (Bass & Avolio, 1995). The MLQ is a 45-item questionnaire (36 items pertaining to leadership style and nine items pertaining to leadership outcomes) developed to assess full-range leadership styles (Bass &

Avolio, 1995). The MLQ is composed of nine scales and divided into three leadership styles: (a) transformational (five scales), (b) transactional (two scales), and (c) passive–avoidant (two scales; Bass & Avolio, 1995). A five-point frequency scale used the following numerical anchors: 0 (*not at all*), 1 (*once in a while*), 2 (*sometimes*), 3 (*fairly often*), 4 (*frequently, if not always*; Justin & Heyliger, 2014).

The MLQ allows individuals to use the leader/self-form or rater-form to measure their perceptions regarding specific leadership behaviors (Statistics Solutions, 2018). The community has adopted this questionnaire.

Validity. Reliability was reported via Cronbach’s α . Bagheri, Sohrabi, and Moradi (2015) found the following:

The MLQ was measured for content and face validity by measuring internal consistency using Cronbach’s alpha formula; confirmatory factor analysis was used to examine the construct validity of the questionnaire; then data was analyzed using the SPSS software. The reliability coefficient of the questionnaire was acceptable (0.90). Confirmatory factor analysis showed that the scale had the appropriate goodness of fit. (p. 5)

Reliability. In addition to the Cronbach’s α values reported above, the MLQ was used 867 times from 1995 to 2018, and its repeated use signifies the reliability and validity of the instrument. It is known as a well-established instrument that has been extensively researched and validated (Statistic Solutions, 2018).

Job Satisfaction Survey

The JSS instrument created by Spector (1994) was used to measure job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is a predictor of psychological well-being that includes a person’s emotions and overall evaluation of their life that aids in achieving job values (Ibrahim, Zirwatul, Ohtsuka, Dagang, & Bakar, 2014). The JSS can be used free of charge for noncommercial educational and research purposes in return for the sharing of results. The JSS has been used for population

of individual workers and employees in the private and public sectors. The JSS is a 36-item scale with nine facets (pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication) that assesses how employees feel about their jobs and their attitudes toward aspects of their job (Ibrahim et al., 2014; JSS, 2001). Each facet is assessed with four items, and a total score is computed from all items. A summated rating scale format is used, with a six-point Likert scale for each item ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 6 (*strongly agree*; JSS, 2001). Higher scores on the JSS indicate higher levels of job satisfaction. The JSS has been adopted by the community in both the private and public sectors (JSS, 2001).

Validity. Cronbach's α ranges from .60 to .91, which indicates that the instrument is reliable (JSS, 2001). The θ coefficient specifically accounts for multidimensionality in an item set (Batura et al., 2016). Validity has been verified using confirmatory and exploratory factor analysis (JSS, 2011).

Reliability. Ogunkuade and Ojiji (2018) used interrater reliability and split-half reliability to determine the psychometric validity and reliability of the questionnaire. For both face and content validity, Cronbach's α was 0.75 (Ogunkuade & Ojiji, 2018).

Gender was obtained from the demographics portion of the survey. To investigate gender, the following question was asked: "I identify my gender as . . ." with responses of male, female, or other. The survey continued if the participant identified as either male or female.

Ethical Considerations

Following the guidance of the U.S. National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects (1979), the following principles were honored to protect the human rights of the participants: respect for persons, beneficence, justice, and informed consent. Regarding respect

for persons, individuals were treated as autonomous agents, were presented with potential harms and benefits of a situation, understood how those risks and potential benefits related to their personal goals and values, and understood how to make necessary changes based on this understanding. Persons with diminished autonomy were entitled to additional protections, and confidentiality policies were clearly described to participants. Each participant was treated ethically to secure his or her well-being. Justice was maintained by treating participants fairly in terms of bearing the burdens of, and receiving the benefits of, research. Finally, informed consent was obtained with an understandable language. After completion, participants could request a copy of the findings. After completion of the survey, data were stripped of internet protocol addresses to keep participants anonymous and managed for proper protection and destruction. The risks to the population for this study were not greater than minimal risk.

Summary

This chapter outlined the methods used to conduct the study. The chapter began with a restatement of the purpose of the study. The research questions and hypotheses were then presented, and the research design was discussed in detail. The chapter included detailed discussion of the target population, sample, and power analysis used to determine the appropriate sample size. Additionally, information about the procedures was discussed, including participant selection, protection of participants, data collection, and data analysis. Each instrument was discussed along with its validity and reliability. Lastly, ethical considerations were addressed. Chapter 4 presents the results of the data analysis.

CHAPTER 4. RESULTS

Background

This chapter describes the results of this quantitative, nonexperimental study and answers the research question: To what extent does gender moderate perceived leadership style and job satisfaction of front-line employees? A two-way ANOVA was used to conduct the analysis. The chapter begins with a description of the sample and continues with a comprehensive summary of the hypotheses tested and the results of the analysis. The chapter ends with a summary.

Description of the Sample

The study employed a stratified random gender-balanced sample of front-line employees in the banking industry in the United States. The sample size was estimated using a 95% confidence level, 5% margin of error, and a medium effect size f^2 of .15. The minimum sample size computed using G*Power (Version 3.1) was 90. A total of 92 participants (46 men, 46 women) were recruited.

Hypothesis Testing

In SPSS (Version 24) the independent variables were leadership style and gender, which were treated as nominal variables. For gender, the question which asked: “I identify my gender as . . .” was labeled Q2.1. Job satisfaction, the dependent variable, was treated as a scale variable. Job satisfaction was labeled using the six-point Likert scale (1–6). Recode values were used for specific questions in scoring the JSS, then scores for each of the nine facets (pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, coworkers, nature of work, and communication) were added; the sum of all facets made up the total job satisfaction score. For the MLQ, to see which respondents were more transformational, more

transactional, and more passive-avoidant, averages from each scale were calculated by summing the responses for questions pertaining to that scale and dividing the total by the number of responses for that scale.

Assumptions

Prior to analyzing the data, the following assumptions were applied to ensure that the chosen test was appropriate to investigate the effect, if any, that gender had on leadership style and job satisfaction. According to Mertler and Vannatta-Reinhart (2017), three assumptions were applicable:

1. The observations within each sample must be randomly sampled and must be independent of one another.
2. The distributions of scores on the dependent variable must be normal in the populations from which the data were sampled.
3. The distributions of scores on the dependent variable must have equal variances.

Assumption 1. The first assumption was the observations within each sample must be randomly sampled and must be independent of one another. The study sample was random, with equal numbers of men and women (Table 1). The gender balance was necessary to determine whether gender had a moderating effect on the relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction. Table 2 displays descriptive statistics and breaks them down by leadership style.

Assumption 2. The second assumption was that the distributions of scores of the dependent variable must be normal in the population from which the data were sampled. Figure 1 and Figure 2 are a normal P-P plot and bell curve, respectively, that verify that the error terms were normally distributed, $M = 148.35$, $SD = 33.16$, $N = 92$.

Table 1

Between-Subject Factors to Show Randomization Between Participants

Value label	Value	<i>n</i>
Overall leadership style		
Transactional	1	21
Transformational	2	53
Passive-avoidant	3	18
Gender		
Male	1	46
Female	2	46

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics for Total Job Satisfaction to Show Random Sampling Design

Overall leadership style and gender	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>
Transactional			
Male	149.36	28.86	11
Female	146.00	42.54	10
Total	147.76	35.12	21
Transformational			
Male	163.04	22.80	26
Female	161.11	24.17	27
Total	162.06	23.30	53
Passive-avoidant			
Male	109.67	31.48	9
Female	107.67	10.50	9
Total	108.67	22.79	18
Total			
Male	149.33	32.76	46
Female	147.37	33.88	46
Total	148.35	33.16	92

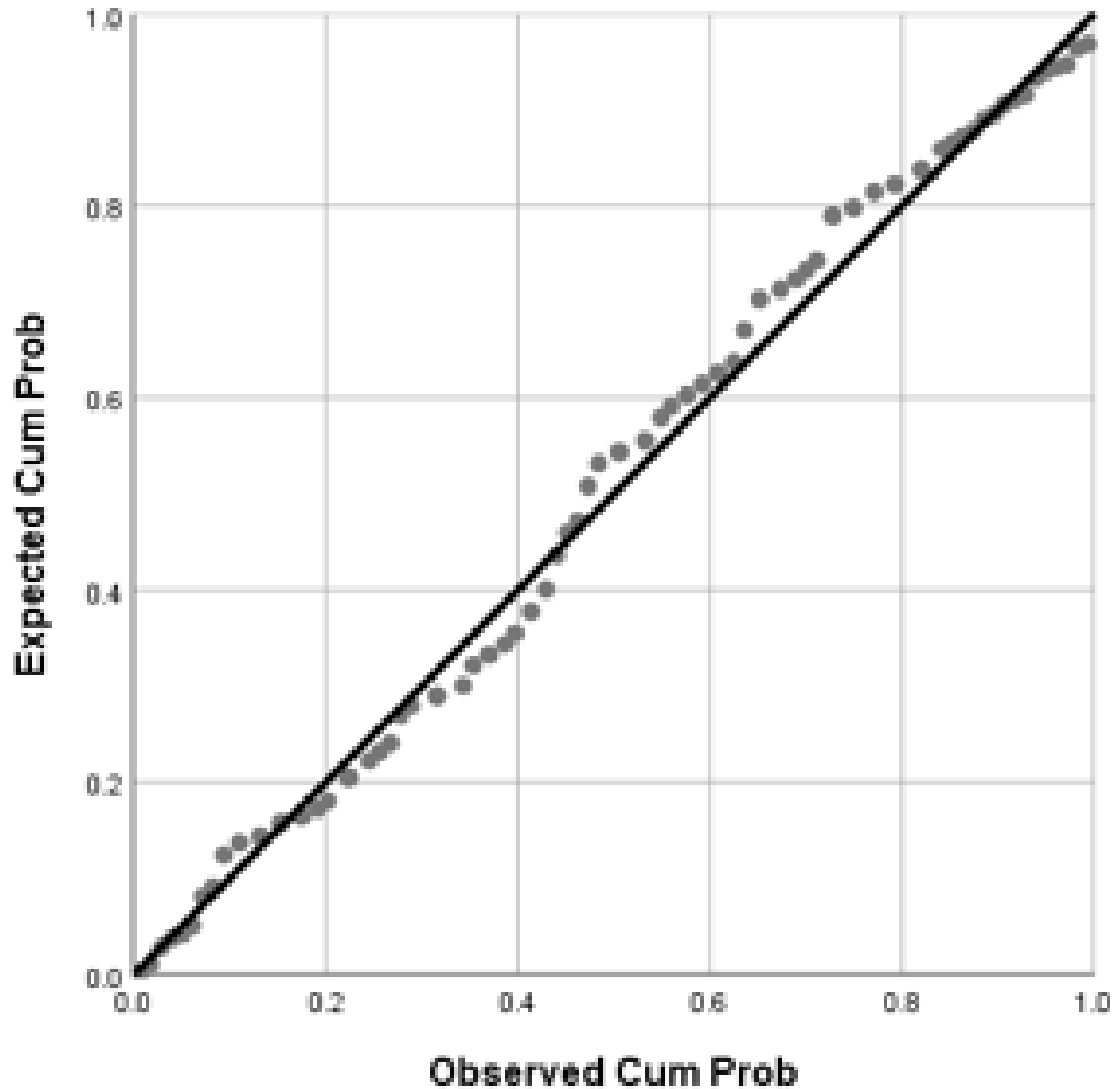


Figure 1. P-P plot for total job satisfaction to test normality.

Assumption 3. The final assumption was the distributions of scores of the dependent variable must have equal variances. The results of Levene’s test for equal variances are presented in Table 3 and do not indicate homogeneity of variance among groups, $F(5, 86) = 4.75$, $p = .001$, likely due to different sample sizes in each of the three types of leadership styles. As seen in Table 1 and Table 2, the variances in the different leadership style groups were not equal.

Because homogeneity was not achieved, non-parametric tests were performed to assess gender and leadership style. A Mann-Whitney test (Table 4 and Table 5) was used to for gender. The Mann-Whitney test did not show statistical significance, $p = 0.653$. A Kruskal-Wallis test (Table 6 and Table 7) was used for leadership style. The Kruskal Wallis did show statistical significance, $p = .000$. Levene's test indicated nonnormal data, while the nonparametric alternatives of a Mann-Whitney test and a Kruskal Wallis test both confirmed the main effects (gender and leadership style) tested with the two-way ANOVA.

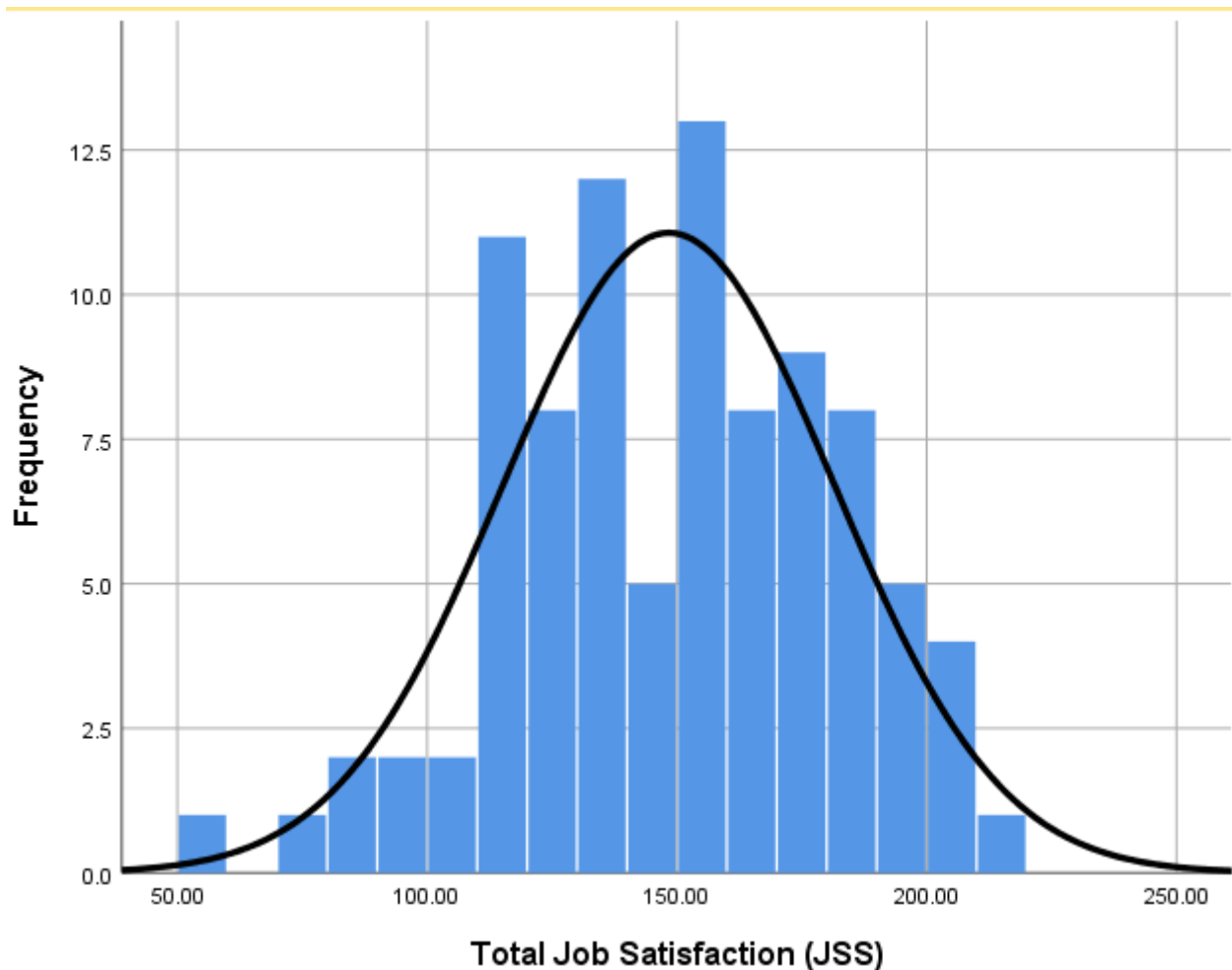


Figure 2. Bell curve of total job satisfaction. $M = 148.35$, $SD = 33.16$, $N = 92$.

Table 3

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances for Total Job Satisfaction

Based on	Levene statistic	df_1	df_2	p
Mean	4.75	5	86.00	.001
Median	2.65	5	86.00	.028
Median with adjusted df	2.65	5	60.31	.032
Trimmed mean	4.67	5	86.00	.001

Two-way ANOVA

For this study, a two-way ANOVA was used and tested the separate hypotheses simultaneously in one analysis. The primary purpose of a two-way ANOVA is to understand whether there is an interaction between two independent variables and a dependent variable (Mertler & Vannatta-Reinhart, 2017). Table 8 summarizes the results of hypothesis testing.

Table 4

Mann-Whitney Test for Total Job Satisfaction

Gender	n	Mean rank	Sum of ranks
Male	46	47.75	2196.50
Female	46	45.25	2081.50
Total	92		

Table 5

Test Statistics for Total Job Satisfaction

Statistic	Value
Mann-Whitney U	1000.50
Wilcoxon W	2081.50
Z	-.45
Asymptotic significance (2-tailed)	.653

Note. Grouping variable was gender.

Table 6

Kruskal-Wallis Test for Total Job Satisfaction

Overall leadership style	<i>n</i>	Mean rank
Transactional	21	45.05
Transformational	53	57.64
Passive-avoidant	18	15.39
Total	92	

Table 7

Test Statistics for Kruskal-Wallis Test for Total Job Satisfaction

Statistic	Value
Kruskal-Wallis <i>H</i>	33.73
<i>df</i>	2
Asymptotic significance	.000

Note. Grouping variable was overall leadership style.

Table 8

Summary of Hypothesis Testing

Question	Variables	<i>p</i>	Significance
Research question	Gender, leadership style, job satisfaction	.994	No significance: Hypothesis not rejected.
Subquestion 1	Leadership style, job satisfaction	.000	Significant: Hypothesis rejected.
Subquestion 2	Gender, leadership style	.994	No significance: Hypothesis not rejected.
Subquestion 3	Gender, job satisfaction	.698	No significance: Hypothesis not rejected.

Listed below are the research questions, corresponding hypotheses, and the associated results.

Research question. The research question was: To what extent does gender moderate perceived leadership style and job satisfaction of front-line employees?

H1₀: Gender is not a significant moderator between perceived leadership style and employee job satisfaction.

H1_a: Gender is a significant moderator between perceived leadership style and employee job satisfaction.

Table 9 shows no statistical significance or interaction regarding gender and the relationship between perceived leadership style and job satisfaction, $p = .994$, $\eta_p^2 = .000$; there was 0% variance in the relationship between gender, overall leadership style, and total job satisfaction. Figure 3 presents parallel lines of male and female participants, indicating no statistical interaction or effect of gender. The null hypothesis was not rejected.

Table 9

Test of Between-Subject Effects for Total Job Satisfaction

Source	Type III SS	df	MS	F	p	η_p^2
Corrected model	38436.70	5	7687.34	10.73	.000	.384
Intercept	1433215.92	1	1433215.92	2000.65	.000	.959
Overall leadership style	38335.19	2	19167.59	26.76	.000	.384
Q2.1	108.79	1	108.79	0.152	.698	.002
Overall leadership style \times Q2.1	8.15	2	4.07	0.006	.994	.000
Error	61608.17	86	716.37			
Total	2124696.00	92				
Corrected total	100044.87	91				

Note. MS = mean square; SS = sum of squares.



Figure 3. Estimated marginal plot of total job satisfaction.

Subquestion 1. To what extent does perceived leadership style influence employee job satisfaction?

H2₀: There is no significant relationship between perceived leadership style and employee job satisfaction.

H2_a: There is a significant relationship between perceived leadership style and employee job satisfaction.

Table 9 shows a statistically significant interaction regarding perceived leadership style and job satisfaction, $p = .000$, $\eta_p^2 = .384$; there was a 38.4% variance in the relationship between overall leadership style and total job satisfaction. The null hypothesis was rejected.

Subquestion 2. To what extent, if any, does gender influence perceived leadership style?

H3₀: Gender does not significantly influence perceived leadership style.

H3_a: Gender does significantly influence perceived leadership style.

Table 9 shows no statistically significant interaction regarding gender and its influence on perceived leadership style, $p = .994$, $\eta_p^2 = .000$; there was 0% variance in the relationship between gender and overall leadership style. The null hypothesis was not rejected.

Subquestion 3. To what extent, if any, does gender influence employee job satisfaction?

H4₀: Gender does not significantly influence employee job satisfaction.

H4_a: Gender does significantly influence employee job satisfaction.

Table 9 shows no statistically significant interaction regarding gender and its influence on job satisfaction, $p = .698$, $\eta_p^2 = .002$; there was a 2% variance in the relationship between gender and total job satisfaction. The null hypothesis was not rejected.

According to Field (2013), the Pearson correlation coefficient is a measure of the strength of the linear relationship between two variables (leadership style and employee job satisfaction); a perfect positive linear relationship is indicated by $r = 1$. Of the questions examined in this study, one had a statistically significant relationship: There was a significant relationship between perceived leadership style and employee job satisfaction. Table 10 presents correlation coefficients between total job satisfaction and each of the nine facets of total job satisfaction. Pearson's r showed a statistically positive relationship between the nine facets of total job satisfaction and the total measure. These numbers were predictive with little variance, meaning that it was predicted and statistically accurate that participants were more satisfied with the nine facets of total job satisfaction. For example, the participants were more satisfied with contingent rewards: As appreciation, recognition, and rewards for good work increase, overall employee job satisfaction also increases (JSS, 2001).

Table 10

Pearson Correlation Between Total Job Satisfaction and its Nine Facets

Facet	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i> ^a
Pay	.882	.000
Promotion	.710	.000
Supervision	.806	.000
Fringe benefits	.783	.000
Contingent rewards	.928	.000
Operating conditions	.635	.000
Coworkers	.757	.000
Nature of work	.750	.000
Communication	.825	.000

Note. *N* = 92.

^aTwo-tailed.

Table 11 presents correlation coefficients between total job satisfaction and each of the five subscales of transformational leadership style. Pearson's *r* showed a statistically positive relationship for each of the five subscales.

Table 11

Pearson Correlations Between Total Job Satisfaction and the Five Subscales of Transformational Leadership Style

Subscale	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i> ^a
Inspirational motivation	.561	.000
Intellectual stimulation	.592	.000
Idealized behaviors	.478	.000
Idealized attribute	.667	.000
Individual Consideration	.634	.000

Note. *N* = 92.

^aTwo-tailed.

Table 12 presents correlation coefficients between total job satisfaction and each of the two subscales of transactional leadership style. Pearson's r showed a statistically positive relationship for contingent rewards; however, it presented a statistically negative relationship for active MBE. Participants preferred an exchange for a specific reward when performance, accomplishments, and efforts were met; they did not prefer to be reprimanded when their behavior did not meet expectations.

Table 12

Pearson Correlations Between Total Job Satisfaction and the Two Subscales of Transactional Leadership Style

Subscale	r	p
Contingent reward	.613	.000
Management by exception—active	-.074	.485

Note. $N = 92$.

^aTwo-tailed.

Summary

This chapter reported the results of the study based on the methods and procedures described in Chapter 3. The analysis determined that gender was not a significant moderator between perceived leadership style and employee job satisfaction. As such, these findings failed to reject the following null hypotheses: H1₀ (gender is not a significant moderator between perceived leadership style and employee job satisfaction), H3₀ (gender is not a significant influence on perceived leadership style), and H4₀ (gender is not a significant influence on employee job satisfaction). These results were somewhat surprising, given that a relationship was expected between gender, leadership style, and employee job satisfaction based on the literature reviewed in Chapter 2. Furthermore, the analysis revealed that there was a significant relationship between perceived leadership style and employee job satisfaction, rejecting null

hypothesis H2₀ (no significant relationship between perceived leadership style and employee job satisfaction). This result was not surprising: leadership style and employee job satisfaction have a consistent relationship, and this agrees with the literature review. These findings will be further discussed in Chapter 5.

The participants rated transformational leadership as their preferred leadership style over the transactional and passive-avoidant leadership styles. Furthermore, participants rated the idealized attribute characteristic the highest among the five subscales of transformational leadership style. An idealized attribute is a quality or trait such as power and charisma that a leader possesses. This trait gives employees the opportunity for personal development and achievement.

Participants rated contingent rewards as the highest component of overall job satisfaction. The participants valued appreciation, recognition, and rewards for good work. When these components were present, their overall job satisfaction increased. The final chapter, Chapter 5, discusses the conclusions drawn from the results as well as the limitations, implications, and recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER 5. DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter provides a discussion of the study's results and an interpretation of those results in the context of existing literature. It is organized into sections, beginning with a summary of the results that provides a framework for the more thorough discussion that follows. That is followed by a discussion section that explores the meaning of, and reasons for, the findings based on the study's research question and subquestions. After that, conclusions are drawn based on the study's results both theoretically and practically for the banking industry and business community. That is followed by an acknowledgment of the study's limitations, discussion of the implications, and recommendations for further research. The chapter ends with a conclusion that sums up the study and its meaning.

Summary of the Results

The study's research problem was the influence of gender on a leader's effectiveness, communication style, ability to persuade, and trustworthiness. These characteristics can influence how employees make decisions in the workplace, affecting overall operation and organizational outcomes (Collins et al., 2014; Jackson et al., 2014). The existing literature indicated that job satisfaction is influenced by leadership style (Alonderiene & Majauskaite, 2016).

The purpose of this quantitative, nonexperimental study was to assess the moderating effect of gender on the predictive relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction using a stratified, gender-balanced, and random sample of front-line employees in the banking industry. The sample was obtained via Qualtrics. A two-way ANOVA was used for analysis. Data were collected via the MLQ and the JSS, which use Likert-type scales. Participants had to

be employed in the banking industry, have been employed for a minimum of 1 year, and be front-line or entry-level employees. The analysis determined that gender was not a significant moderator between perceived leadership style and employee job satisfaction. The next section discusses and interprets these findings as they relate to the study's research question, subquestions, and hypotheses.

Discussion of the Results

The independent variables were leadership style and gender, and the dependent variable was job satisfaction. This study aimed to add the component of gender to FRLT, filling a gap in the existing literature, which had examined the relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction. Collins et al. (2014) applied leader-member-exchange theory to determination of the relationship between leaders and followers and their job satisfaction. Collins et al. suggested adding the element of gender because male and female subordinates may expect a certain type of leadership style based on their genders and the gender of their leader. Gender shapes how a leader communicates, establishes relationships, and builds rapport with employees. Gender may affect how a leader is excluded, included, marginalized, or denied through gendered norms (Leitch & Stead, 2016). A gender-balanced workplace may help eliminate gender prejudices and stereotyping (Rodríguez-Ruiz et al., 2016). The following sections interpret the study's results and their implications for each of the study's research questions, subquestions, and hypotheses.

Gender's Influence on Leadership Style and Job Satisfaction

The null hypothesis H₁₀ addressed the research question, which asked: To what extent does gender moderate perceived leadership style and job satisfaction of front-line employees? Based on the two-way ANOVA (Table 9), no significant interaction was detected, $p = .994$, $\eta_p^2 = .000$. In Figure 3, which presents estimated marginal means of male and female participants on

overall leadership styles, the parallel lines for male and female participants also indicated no effect of gender. The null hypothesis was not rejected. Gender was not a significant moderator between perceived leadership style and employee job satisfaction in front-line banking employees in the United States.

Leadership Style's Influence on Employee Job Satisfaction

The null hypothesis H₂₀ addressed Subquestion 1, which asked: To what extent does perceived leadership style influence employee job satisfaction? The two-way ANOVA (Table 9) detected a significant interaction that showed a 38.4% variance in the relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction. The null hypothesis was rejected. These findings supported the position of Josanov-Vrgovic and Pavlovic (2014), Gyensare et al. (2016), and Alghamdi et al. (2018) that a leader's role is important: The type of leadership style influences job satisfaction. Employee job satisfaction can influence productivity and commitment, which ultimately has a bearing on the organization's future success.

Gender's Influence on Leadership Style

The null hypothesis H₃₀ addressed Subquestion 2, which asked: To what extent does gender influence perceived leadership style? The two-way ANOVA (Table 9) did not detect a significant interaction between gender and leadership style. The null hypothesis was not rejected. This finding supported the findings related to the research question, which indicated that gender was not a significant moderator between perceived leadership style and employee job satisfaction in front-line banking employees in the United States.

Gender's Influence on Employee Job Satisfaction

The null hypothesis H₄₀ addressed Subquestion 3, which asked: To what extent does gender influence employee job satisfaction? The two-way ANOVA (Table 9) detected no

significant interaction between gender and job satisfaction. The null hypothesis was not rejected. This finding supported the findings related to the research question, which indicated that gender was not a significant moderator between perceived leadership style and employee job satisfaction in front-line banking employees in the United States.

Conclusions Based on the Results

Comparison of the Findings with the Theoretical Framework and Previous Literature

Leadership style has a significant influence on job satisfaction. According to Frazier (2015), increased job satisfaction correlates with employee performance, which results in significant organizational success. With an increase in job satisfaction, employees will perform beyond their expectations, which in turn benefits the organization. FRLT formed the theoretical foundation of this study and explained the effects of the relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction. FRLT accounts for transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant leadership styles and covers various kinds of followers. FRLT focuses on exchanges and relationships between leaders and followers that foster an environment of mutual trust; leader and follower have a shared vision in reaching organizational goals. Followers perform beyond expectations because they are inspired by their leader and feel that their leader has their best interest at heart.

The findings suggest that gender is not a moderator between perceived leadership style and employee job satisfaction in front-line banking employees in the United States. However, the findings do confirm the relationship between perceived leadership style and employee job satisfaction for this population, which supports FRLT and existing literature. According to the findings, followers rated transformational leadership higher compared to the transactional and passive-avoidant leadership styles. Table 11 shows that participants preferred idealized attribute

characteristics of transformational leadership, which supports Bass (1999), Toor and Ofori (2009), and Mathieu et al. (2015). Their findings showed that transformational leaders (idealized attribute) are respected and trusted, bear risk, and put their employees' needs before their own. This type of leadership reduces stress in employees, increases organizational commitment, and increases overall team performance (Mathieu et al., 2015). Idealized influence attributes are traits such as power and charisma that a leader possesses. When leaders use these traits to display role model behavior through personal achievements, character, and behavior, followers have an opportunity for development and achievement (Witges & Scanlan, 2014).

Interpretation of the Findings

The findings indicated that gender was not a moderator between leadership style and job satisfaction; however, they did show a positive relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction. According to Table 10, participants rated contingent rewards highest out of the components of overall job satisfaction. Contingent rewards are exchanges for a specific reward between leaders and followers based on good performance and behavior. They include appreciation, recognition, and rewards for good work (JSS, 2001). A leader needs to give clear directions and deadlines of required tasks so that followers understand what is needed for the exchange of payment, recognition, merit, promotion, or bonuses (Witges & Scanlan, 2014). Contingent rewards establish trust between a leader and follower. The findings support Witges and Scanlan's (2014) position that contingent rewards correlate positively with transformational leadership.

Limitations

Chapter 1 introduced the limitations of the study; the intent of this section is to describe all concerns that may have affected the findings. In Chapter 4, the data did not meet the

requirements for Assumption 3 (Table 3): Levene's test indicated nonnormal data, probably due to the different subsample sizes shown in Table 1 and Table 2. The researcher employed a Mann-Whitney test (Table 4 and Table 5) to compare genders, and the test did not show statistical significance, $p = 0.653$. The researcher also employed a Kruskal-Wallis test (Table 6 and Table 7) to compare leadership styles, but this test did show statistical significance, $p = 0.000$. These nonparametric tests did not measure an interaction effect; however, the two-way ANOVA indicated no interaction existed. The nonparametric Mann-Whitney and Kruskal Wallis tests both confirmed the main effects (of gender and leadership style) tested with the two-way ANOVA. One disadvantage of these tests is that they are appropriate only for situations that involve groups with equal sample sizes (Mertler & Vannatta-Reinhart, 2017). This is a limitation for study duplication; if another researcher were to duplicate this study, they should use the same sample sizes (all males or all females).

A second limitation was the assumptions of gender in the workplace. Jackson et al. (2014) mentioned that gender could affect a manager's effectiveness, communication style, ability to persuade, and trustworthiness, which could influence relationships between manager and leader. A theoretical assumption was that females adopt a more democratic and transformational style of leadership, with their stereotype of nurturing, people-oriented, and caring behavior, but males adopt a transactional style of leadership, with their stereotype of an aggressive demeanor (Powell, 1990; Şahin et al., 2017). In Europe, women have reported greater job satisfaction than men because of their lower expectations in pay and working hours (Hauret & Williams, 2017). The findings of this study suggest that gender is not a significant moderator between perceived leadership style and employee job satisfaction of front-line banking employees in the United States.

A third limitation was size restriction. The findings of this study are not generalizable beyond the banking industry in the United States. Furthermore, FRLT uses the MLQ as its measure, and the MLQ uses questions to assess behavior outcomes, favoring the relationship between the leader and the follower. This bias in the MLQ limits explanations of organizational effectiveness (Anderson & Adams, 2015; Frazier, 2015). Organizational effectiveness is defined as goal attainment. It is measured objectively and treats effectiveness in terms of skills and behaviors (Anderson & Adams, 2015).

The last limitation of this study was the use of self-report surveys, which also reduced the ability to generalize results beyond the sample population. Also, self-report surveys may result in response bias from participants who inaccurately answer the survey's questions by choosing reasonable and justifiable answers rather than true answers, despite the promise that participants and their responses would remain anonymous.

There were no delimitations presented in this study

Implications for Practice

Leadership is important; people often quit their bosses rather than their jobs. The expected outcome of the study was the discovery of a relationship between gender, perceived leadership style, and employee job satisfaction. Existing evidence suggests that female leaders are more transformational than their male counterparts because of societal norms such as task-oriented behavior for men and people-oriented behavior for women (Powell, 1990). Hauret and Williams (2017) noted that in Europe women report higher job satisfaction than men. However, the findings do not support gender as a moderator. Because of this, bankers should continue to disregard gender in their managerial decisions and to try to reduce disparities in the job

experiences of male and female leaders so that artificial gender contrasts do not surface in career success (Powell, 1990).

The findings do confirm a significant relationship between leadership style and employee job satisfaction. With this knowledge, the practical implication for banking stakeholders is that retaining skilled, satisfied employees may reduce the likelihood of turnover, absenteeism, errors, rule violations, and employee write-ups and keep businesses thriving (Yan et al., 2015). It can also reduce unnecessary expenses for organizations from the hiring process.

Overall job satisfaction is important because it contributes to an organization's success (Josanov-Vrgovic & Pavlovic, 2014). If managers can be sensitive to differences and preferences in their leadership styles, they can do what is needed to influence the quality of employees by training current employees and enhancing the hiring of new employees to create balance within the organization regardless of gender.

Recommendations for Further Research

Future research could incorporate qualitative methods to explore participants' emotions, thoughts, and perspectives regarding their job satisfaction, their leader's role, and organizational effectiveness. An example would be to explore how participants view the application of leadership style within the workplace and their views on organizational effectiveness. Organizational effectiveness is a plan or purpose set by a leader for employees' achievement and fulfillment in terms of their skills and behaviors.

Future researchers should examine additional factors, such as another industry with different populations or groups, different types of leadership including situational or combined leadership styles, and different theories such as social theory that can help explain actions and behaviors. This study did not record any employee's intent to leave; this could be an opportunity

for future studies. Regarding gender, future researchers could examine gender roles in the workplace, including cultures, stereotypes, and norms. Future research could also look at gender-based job satisfaction and whether women or men are more satisfied with their roles in the workplace and their working conditions.

Conclusion

This quantitative, nonexperimental study used FRLT, the MLQ, and the JSS to assess the extent to which gender was a moderator of the relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction using a stratified, random, and gender-balanced sample of front-line banking employees in the United States. The results indicated that gender was not a significant moderator between perceived leadership style and employee job satisfaction in this population.

Although other researchers have shown that gender does play a significant role in other industries, such as education, this study did not find empirical support for this role of gender in the U.S. banking industry. The findings were consistent with the importance of leadership style and its relationship with job satisfaction, as reported by previous researchers. Consequently, if future researchers investigate the variables of gender, leadership style, and job satisfaction, they should use different research designs, statistical techniques, and methodologies to advance knowledge regarding gender and the extent, if any, of its influence in the workplace.

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