

THE RELATIONSHIP OF LEADERSHIP STYLE OF THE DEPARTMENT HEAD
TO NURSING FACULTY PROFESSIONAL SATISFACTION
AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

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By

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The undersigned, appointed by the Dean of the Graduate School, have examined the dissertation entitled

THE RELATIONSHIP OF LEADERSHIP STYLE OF THE DEPARTMENT HEAD
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AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

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And hereby certify that in their opinion it is worthy of acceptance.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my loving husband, best friend, and soul mate, Phil. His unwavering support and love for me has been my biggest source of motivation for success, academically, professionally, and personally. I also dedicate this dissertation to my biggest fans in life, my three children, Cole, Jenna, and Finnegan, who I will always encourage to be lifelong learners. I pray that I can be an example of tenacity and perseverance to pursue educational goals and reach your dreams, even the ones that seem too grandiose to achieve.

Finally, I want to dedicate this dissertation to my personal Lord and Savior, Jesus Christ, who loves me despite my many imperfections and provides the continual strength to do things that I never thought were possible. He has proven once again that He has plans and hope for my future (Jer. 29:11) and that all good things are possible through Him (Phil. 4:19).

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Dr. Barbara N. Martin, Dissertation Supervisor

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research was to determine if there was a relationship between the leadership style of the nursing department head and the level of professional satisfaction and organizational commitment by nursing faculty members. The survey instrument was a self-constructed four point Likert scale designed by the researcher to determine the department heads leadership style as perceived by the nursing faculty, and assess the nursing faculty members' level of professional satisfaction and organizational commitment. The administration of the survey was implemented in a face-to-face format at five schools of nursing in two Midwestern states to 52 full-time baccalaureate nursing faculty. The researcher did not discover any relationship between department head perceived leadership style and organizational commitment and professional satisfaction using Kruskal-Wallis statistical analysis. However, the Pearson correlation revealed a positive relationship among transformational leadership, and organizational commitment and professional satisfaction. Further, the Pearson correlation revealed a negative relationship among transactional leadership, and organizational commitment and professional satisfaction. In addition, the research did discover a positive correlation between organizational commitment and professional satisfaction.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Background

The United States is in the midst of a critical shortage of registered nurses (Elgie, 2007). This shortage is expected to continue for the long term due to population growth, the rising proportion of elderly people, and economic growth (Auerbach, Buerhaus, & Staiger, 2003). In addition, professional nursing education faces innumerable obstacles at the onset of the twenty-first century such as a shortage of qualified nurses (National League for Nursing [NLN], 2005). Intricately tied to the nursing shortage is the nursing faculty shortage (American Association of Colleges of Nursing [AACN], 2011) and the requirement from the health care industry of more nurses. All the while, the capacity of the nursing education system is dwindling (AACN).

The shortage of registered nurses practicing at the bedside has resulted in the need for educational programs to increase the number of registered nursing graduates; however the nursing faculty shortage has limited student enrollments and has overall contributed to the decline in the number of nursing graduates (AACN, 2011). The latest study from the AACN (2010) reveals the current nursing faculty vacancy rate is at 6.9% with approximately 880 total vacancies within schools and programs of nursing in the United States. Various factors have contributed to the nursing faculty shortage including the number of individuals desiring to enter the profession, an inadequate number of teaching facilities, a decrease in the number of clinical sites, and an overall decrease in the availability of qualified nursing faculty (AACN, 2010). Furthermore, noncompetitive salaries, unreasonable classroom and clinical responsibilities (Trossman, 2002) and the obscure match between clinical practice and promotion and tenure requirements threaten

not only nursing education, but through an obvious linkage, nursing practice and the overarching nursing profession.

After conducting a review of literature, it was determined a paucity of literature existed noting the shortage of nursing personnel both in the field and in the classroom, and how that shortage could be attributed to the leadership style of the nursing department head. Further, it was determined the profession of nursing education would benefit from additional data revolving around the influence of leadership style on retention of qualified faculty in the baccalaureate nursing education setting. As a means to examine the literature, four constructs, transactional leadership theory, transformational leadership theory, professional satisfaction and organizational commitment were identified to guide this research.

Conceptual Underpinnings of the Study

Through the years various definitions of leadership have emerged, yet leadership remains as one of the least understood phenomena (Burns, 1978). Nonetheless, understood or not, Bass (1990) retorted it is the most critical factor in the success or failure of an institution. Kouzes and Posner (1995) noted that successful leaders are those who encourage the hearts of others. They involve others in pursuing common goals, and know how to influence others for the success of the organization, because “without influence, leadership does not exist” (Northouse, 2004, p. 3).

According to Tichy and Devanna (1986), leaders “create new approaches and imagine new areas to explore; they relate to people in more intuitive and empathetic ways, seek risk where opportunity and reward are high, and project ideas into images to excite people” (p. ix). While many definitions of leadership have been identified, effective

leadership practices have been the focus of numerous research studies (Kouzes & Posner, 1995). Researchers have asserted transactional leaders are preoccupied with *doing things right*, while transformational leaders are motivated to *do the right thing* (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Cameron & Ulrich, 1986). Furthermore, educational literature revealed transformational leadership was one leadership style that is effective in leading an organization in a time of change (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Finch, Gregson, & Faulkner, 1991; Siegrist, 1999).

Bass (1985) conceptualized leadership theory in terms of transactional and transformational characteristics. The components of transformational leadership enhance the effectiveness in motivating and encouraging followers to a full commitment to the vision of the leader (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Because nursing education is faced with a dilemma of noncompetitive salaries, unreasonable classroom and clinical responsibilities (Trossman, 2002), a decreased in number of individuals desiring to enter the profession, an inadequate number of teaching facilities, a decrease in the number of clinical sites, and an overall decrease in the availability of qualified nursing faculty (AACN, 2011), a strong leader in a tumultuous environment is needed. The nursing department head has the opportunity to influence the organizational culture in a positive manner, thereby influencing the quality of nursing education and subsequently the nursing profession. Because past research (Avolio & Bass, 1988; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Bass & Riggio, 2006) demonstrated that transformational leadership was effective in influencing followers from basic compliance of the vision of the leader to an active participant and follower of the vision of the leader, the focus of this study is transformational leadership and its counterpart, transactional leadership.

Transformational leadership

Shieh, Mills, and Waltz (2001) asserted nursing leaders have a significant impact in the delivery of high-quality education and raising faculty job satisfaction levels. Because nursing educators influence patient care delivery by its graduates, it is essential quality in nursing education is maintained. Transformational leadership stimulates feelings of trust, admiration, loyalty, and respect toward the leader, motivating subordinates to do more than they originally believed possible (Yukl, 2006). With nursing faculty experiencing unreasonable classroom and clinical responsibilities as well as noncompetitive salaries (Trossman, 2002), the department head is charged with motivating subordinates to move beyond what one originally believed possible. The transformational leader transforms and motivates followers by encouraging them to place the interest of the organization above their own, and appealing to their higher order needs (Bass, 1998). Further, research demonstrated the positive effect of transformational leadership on the variables of subordinate satisfaction, performance, and effectiveness (Avolio & Bass, 1988; Bass, 1997; Bycio, Hackett, & Allen, 1995; DeGroot, Kiker, & Cross, 2000; Dumdum, Lowe, & Avolio, 2002; Singer & Singer, 2001; Sosik, Kahai, & Avolio, 1998).

Four distinct types of leadership behaviors of transformational leaders were identified by Bass (1990) and Bass and Avolio (1990). Idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration arose from the original work of Bass (1985). The fourth behavior, inspirational motivation was an outcome of revised theory by Bass and Avolio (1990). These components make transformational leaders effective in motivation and empowering followers to a full commitment to the vision of the leader

(Bass & Avolio, 1994). However, transformational leaders display these behaviors to varying degrees and abilities.

Idealized influence refers to the attributes and behaviors of the transformational leader. Socialized charisma and charismatic leader action is imperative to the transformational leader (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003; Conger & Kanungo, 1987) and is an essential component to arousing subordinates to exceed expectations (Bass, 1985; House & Howell, 1992). Charisma has been deemed the most compelling factor of transformational leadership (McLaurin & Al-Amri, 2008), yet cannot stand alone (Bass, 1985; Weese, 1994).

Transformational leaders heighten individual and team commitment through inspirational motivation (Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003). Inspirational motivation exhibited by the leader, rouses followers to transcend ambitious goals by heightening their expectations (Antonakis et al., 2003). As a result, followers exert additional effort on behalf of the organization, as a result of increased self-worth, job performance, and organizational commitment (Bass, 1985).

The transformational leader employs intellectual stimulation encouraging subordinates to be proactive, creative, and innovative in their thinking (Bass, 1985). Enhancing the capabilities of the follower to seek alternate perspectives and developing new ways to perform job roles enhances variety and autonomy (Antonakis et al., 2003; Bass & Avolio, 1990; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006), ultimately providing workers with an increased feeling of accomplishment and professional reward (Emery & Barker, 2007). If problems arise, leaders focus on “what” problems instead of “who’s to blame”. If necessary, the views of the leader can be questioned, re-evaluated, and altered (Avolio,

1999). As a result, creative thinking is enhanced which leads to greater product innovation and positive effects for their organizations (Avolio).

The concern for the needs of the subordinate as a person and employee, in addition to mentoring, coaching, and teaching reflect the behavior of individualized consideration (Keller, 1992; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006). As a result the subordinate feels “trust, admiration, loyalty and respect toward the leader” (Yukl, 2006, p. 262) as followers have a sense that their leader is caring for their individualized needs (Emery & Barker, 2007).

Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership is associated with a leader-follower transaction or exchange that may stimulate compliance with the bottom line. It is not necessarily associated with stimulation of enthusiasm or commitment on behalf of the subordinate (Yukl, 2006). Leadership behaviors of transactional leaders include active management by exception, passive management by exception, and contingent reward.

Active management by exception (Bass, 1990) involves proactive intervention by the manager who is focused on monitoring task execution for any mistakes or complaints that were likely to occur before problems arose (Bass, 1985). Leaders engaging in this type of behavior are often regarded as critical or punishing (Bass & Avolio, 1990), only providing “rewards when followers meet agreed-upon objectives” (Emery & Barker, 2007, p. 81). However, with the concern that novice faculty are not being appropriately mentored (AACN, 2010), it is essential to acknowledge that mentoring, coaching, and teaching garners a sense of commitment and dedication from followers of transactional leaders (Keller, 1992; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006); but only when such actions are

employed by the department head and/or designated persons responsible for the mentoring of novice faculty.

Found to be ineffective and often resulting in subordinate stress, anxiety, and hostility when overused is the transactional leadership behavior of passive management by exception (Bass, 1998). This is a negative transaction as the reactive leader only employs correcting action when problems arise or performance is not as expected (Tepper & Percy, 1994). Novice faculty members, who are ill-prepared for the challenges of nursing education (AACN, 2010) need to be proactively mentored and acculturated into the academic nursing environment, not reactively remediated when errors or lack of performance is displayed.

Contingent reward is based upon economical and emotional exchanges between leaders and followers in an exchange-based relationship (Bass, 1985; Bogler, 2001; Chan & Chan, 2005). Further, contingent reward uses incentives and rewards, including money, praise, or promotion to motivate followers to complete required work (Avolio, 1999; Chan & Chan). Recent budget cuts and constraints within the higher education setting limit monetary rewards used as a motivational tool for higher education professionals therefore it is essential to evaluate other motivational means employed by the nursing department head other than incentives and rewards.

Despite the dearth of research on leadership theory in nursing academic leaders, one can attempt to understand how leadership style is connected with professional satisfaction and organizational commitment of subordinates. Paying particular attention to the leadership style of the nursing department head may provide the opportunity for nursing programs to evaluate leadership style as a determining factor in the attrition

and/or retention of qualified nursing faculty. As Gormley (2003) postulated, the behavior of the “dean or chairperson...strongly influences nursing faculty job satisfaction” (p. 177). Further, the correlation between the leadership style and the impact the leader has on the organizational culture, may contribute to professional satisfaction, thus decreasing nursing faculty attrition rates and increasing organizational commitment. Research has suggested that in environments where the department head was perceived to be impersonal and aloof in dealing with nursing faculty, overall job satisfaction decreased (Donahue, 1985), subsequently resulting in organizational attrition. At a minimum, evaluation of these factors will create awareness surrounding this intensifying issue “as the current [nursing] faculty workforce rapidly advances toward retirement and the pool of younger faculty dwindles” (Berlin & Sechrist, 2002, p. 50). Using leadership theory, specifically transformational and transactional leadership theories, as the conceptual underpinnings of this study will guide future research and assist in filling the void in the literature related to nursing education.

Statement of the Problem

“Over the past several years, the deficit of [nursing] faculty has reached critical proportions as the current faculty workforce rapidly advances toward retirement and the pool of younger replacement faculty decreases” (AACN, 2005, p. 3). The AACN has evaluated factors thought to be contributing to the nursing faculty shortage such as 1) faculty age; 2) faculty resignation and retirement; 3) salary differentials; 4) tuition costs and loan burden for graduate study; 5) diminishing pipeline of graduate school enrollees and graduates; 6) age of doctoral recipients and time to degree; 7) faculty workload and role expectation issues; and 8) alternate career choices.

To further compound the nursing faculty shortage, nurses who enter academia do so late in their career which does not lend itself to a lengthy academic career (Lewallen, Crane, Letvar, Jones & Hu, 2003). Further statistics reveal nurses under the age of 45 who have completed doctoral degrees in nursing have begun to steadily decrease with fewer than 43 percent of current nursing doctoral graduates committed to an academic role (Hessler & Ritchie, 2006). Awareness regarding the nursing faculty shortage has entered public discussion, and policy makers are aware that the ever-increasing nursing shortage cannot be adequately addressed while an insufficient number of nursing faculties exists (Brady, 2007).

Salary and age (AACN, 2011) among other reasons cited as contributing factors to the faculty shortage by the AACN are considered in research regarding the nursing faculty shortage; however, a paucity of published literature exists concerning how leadership style of the nursing department head contributes to the faculty shortage. It is essential the nursing school program administrator be aware of professional dissatisfiers so as to “institute changes that might attract and retain qualified nurse educators” (Barrett, Goldenberg & Faux, 1992, p. 1003).

Nursing leaders have important roles in delivering high-quality education and raising faculty job satisfaction levels (Shieh et al., 2001). Regardless of the attention given to professional dissatisfiers, nursing leaders in the academic setting are often not prepared to take the rein of a school or department (Redman, 2001). Disch, Edwardson, and Adwan (2004) discovered in their study of Minnesota’s nursing faculty’s satisfaction with individual, institutional, and leadership factors that only 44 percent of nursing

faculty had confidence in the nursing leader's direction. Yet, the nursing faculty agreed that they were committed to their profession and careers.

Unfortunately, many administrators in higher education generally (Austin, Ahearn, & English, 1997; Hecht, 2006; Ruben, 2006) and nursing education specifically (Kenner, Pressler, & Loving, 2007; Pressler & Kenner, 2007; Ryan & Irvine, 1996) have no formal leadership education or training. Academic leaders are often chosen based solely on academic accolades, rather than leadership experience (Goldenberg & Waddell, 1990), as evidenced by Bright and Richards (2001) who compared the most common course to deanship as the accidental tourist – leaders begin as faculty, progress to departmental administration or faculty governance roles, and then to the deanship. The demand for innovative leadership is increasing in academic institutions as the pressure to deliver high quality education with minimal resources intensifies (Clement & Vandenberghe, 2001) and the nursing faculty shortage exacerbates. However, an even greater challenge exists – these educational leaders face unique burdens because academic faculty “perpetuate the fantasy” that they do not need leadership (Austin et al., 1997, p. 2).

Purpose of the Study

“There is little controversy regarding the positive links between leadership and follower attitudes, such as trust, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment, and behaviors” (Bono & Judge, 2003, p. 554). There is a growing body of research investigating the impact of transformational and transactional leadership on followers within various organizations (Bensimon, 1993; Chan & Chan, 2005, Doherty & Danylchuk, 1996; Dvir, Eden, Avolio, Shamir, 2002; Emery & Barker, 2007; Stordeur,

Vandenberghe, D'hoore, 2000). Nonetheless, relatively little attention has been given to leadership styles within schools of nursing and the impact a specific leadership style has on professional satisfaction and organizational commitment of subordinates within the system. The way a leader “implements the leadership role can have a significant work impact on the work environment and organizational commitment” (McGuire & Kennerly, 2006, p. 179). Consequently, the purpose of the current study was to provide beneficial data to postsecondary stakeholders that can be collected and potentially analyzed to: a) add to the nursing literature; b) explore how leadership style can affect professional satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Research Questions

The research questions for this study were designed to reveal quantitative comparison data amongst the independent and dependent variables. Utilizing a quantitative approach, the following research questions guided this study:

1. What is the relationship between professional satisfaction and the level of position or tenure of nursing faculty?
2. What is the relationship between organizational commitment and the level of position or tenure of nursing faculty?
3. What is the relationship between leadership style (transactional or transformational) of the nursing department head and nursing faculty professional satisfaction?
4. What is the relationship between leadership style (transactional or transformational) of the nursing department head and nursing faculty organizational commitment?

5. What is the relationship between nursing faculty professional satisfaction and nursing faculty organizational commitment?

Research Hypotheses

In order to answer the aforementioned research questions, the following hypothesis were explored in this study:

Null Hypothesis 1 (H_01): There is no difference in professional satisfaction by position level or tenure among nursing faculty.

Alternative Hypothesis 1 (H_A1): There is a difference in professional satisfaction by position level or tenure among nursing faculty.

Null Hypothesis 2 (H_02): There is no difference in organizational commitment level by position level or tenure among nursing faculty.

Alternative Hypothesis 2 (H_A2): There is a difference in organizational commitment by position level or tenure among nursing faculty.

Null Hypothesis 3 (H_03): There is no relationship between the leadership style (transactional or transformational) of nursing department heads and professional satisfaction of nursing faculty.

Alternative Hypothesis 3 (H_A3): There is a relationship between the leadership style (transactional or transformational) of nursing department heads and professional satisfaction of nursing faculty.

Null Hypothesis 4 (H_04): There is no relationship between the leadership style (transactional or transformational) of nursing department heads and the organizational commitment of nursing faculty.

Alternative Hypothesis 4 (H_{A4}): There is a relationship between the leadership style (transactional or transformational) of nursing department heads and the organizational commitment of nursing faculty.

Null Hypothesis 5 (H_{05}): There is no relationship between the professional satisfaction and organizational commitment level of the nursing faculty member.

Alternative Hypothesis 5 (H_{A5}): There is a relationship between professional satisfaction and organizational commitment level of the nursing faculty member.

Limitations and Assumptions

There are limitations or potential weaknesses involved with all research studies (Creswell, 2003; Heppner & Heppner, 2004). The limitations of this study consisted of sample size for the study, the constraints of the leadership theory selected, the perceived leadership style of the department head who consented to the research, the assessment instrument, and the methodology of the study.

First, like many research studies, sample size was a limitation of this research. Geographically, the population of this study was limited to five baccalaureate nursing programs in the Midwest region of the United States. As a result, the findings of this study may not be safely applied to associate degree nursing programs as the sample selected is not representative of varying nursing degree programs. Further, the geographical Midwest region may not be representative of other regions within the United States.

Second, an abundance of leadership theories and definitions exist and a researcher may elect to use any one of them as the lens through which to study the research topic. This study purposely focused on transactional and transformational leadership theory,

two of the most popular theories for examining leadership (Yukl, 2006), inevitably limiting the research by the bounds of these two theories.

Third, the nursing department heads who gave consent for their faculty to participate in the study may have self-awareness of their leadership style as transformational leadership. If the only department heads who practice transformational leadership consented, this could lead to skewed data and decreased reliability.

Fourth, survey instruments have been found to be effective at describing the characteristics of a specific population (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003) as surveys "...are used to measure attitudes, opinions, or achievement..." (Wiersma, 2000, p. 157). The researcher (Creswell, 2003) can then generalize findings from the data, collected from a sample of a representative population. Nonetheless, surveys also present inherent concerns. For the purpose of this study, the following limitations affiliated with the survey instrument were acknowledged:

1. The findings of the survey may be limited by the validity and reliability of the instrument utilized and created by the researcher (Fraenkel & Wallen).
2. The findings of this study were based on Likert style questions which do not allow participants to construct their own response, supplement with rationale the basis for their responses, or allow the researcher to probe for additional insight.
3. The findings of this study were based on a four point Likert scale. In order to avoid the middle value often labeled as "neutral" or "neither agree nor disagree", the Leadership style, Organizational Commitment, and Professional

Satisfaction Questionnaire (LSOCPS) (Appendix C) was designed using a four-point Likert scale, or forced choice method.

Fifth, the researchers' bias on the subject at hand including prior experience in the baccalaureate nursing education setting, may create the opportunity for bias towards the influence of leadership style on faculty professional satisfaction and organizational commitment. These prior lived experiences may hinder objectivity or influence the researchers perspective on the research process (Herr & Anderson, 2005).

The underlying assumptions of the study consisted of acknowledging that (a) leadership behavior is based upon the interaction between the leader and follower and is modified according to the current situation; (b) participants based their responses upon their own experiences; and (c) responses were honest and the survey instrument was interpreted as intended.

Design Controls

In an attempt to eliminate the geographical limitation, five baccalaureate schools of nursing were selected to represent the sample population. The purposive sample was deemed appropriate as a means to obtain information from five respective baccalaureate schools of nursing which reside in two different Midwestern states and consequently must adhere to different compliance measures as mandated by their respective State Board of Nursing.

In an effort to control the limitations that were bound by the constraints of the selected leadership theories, an extensive literature review was conducted to determine what leadership theories would be most applicable to nursing higher education. As a

result of this review, the leadership theories identified became apparent as the most popular and widely applied theories to leadership (Yukl, 2006).

The survey was created by the researcher based on the literature in order to address the identified research questions. The survey was piloted to a sample of 12 registered nurses to “reveal ambiguities, poorly worded questions, questions that [were] not understood, and unclear choices” (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003, p. 404). Following the analysis of the survey, unclear questions were revised and again, administered to the 12 registered nurses, prior to administering to the purposive sample population. In order to ensure reliability, the research instrument developed by the researcher was tested and retested to achieve an approach alpha coefficient.

In order to encourage participation and prevent hesitancy on behalf of the respondents, the survey was administered in paper-pencil format in a face-to-face environment. Utilizing a paper-pencil format also protected the anonymity of the respondents eliminating the need to disclose email addresses as necessary with Internet surveys and altogether prevented the respondent from accessing an unfamiliar web link. The paper-pencil survey responses comprised of closed-ended questions were scrutinized as intensely as quantitative statistical analysis allows and subsequently valid conclusions were derived from the Likert style survey.

In order to control the researchers’ bias, the researcher paid careful attention throughout the literature review, research design process, and construction of the questionnaire. Questions were written objectively and were applicable to the participant and designed to answer the research questions of the study(Cone & Foster, 2006).

Finally, requests for faculty participation were sent to eight department heads of programs of nursing in the Midwestern region. The first five programs of nursing to respond were selected to participate in the research. Using this random selection process assisted with the limitation of only having department heads who perceive their style of leadership as transformational, participate.

Definitions of Key Terms

In order to provide a more thorough understanding of the conceptual underpinnings, the following definitions were applied to form the basis of this research.

Department Head. The official head of a department or division (a cluster of academic disciplines or related teaching fields, i.e. mathematics, business, nursing) who has supervisory responsibilities for faculty. The department head holds varying degrees of authority and power over the faculty of their respective department (Ruhl, 1995). Department head is synonymous with department chair or dean, but is hereafter referred to as department head.

Organizational Commitment. The relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization. "Conceptually, it can be characterized by at least three factors: 1) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values; 2) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; and 3) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization" (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982, p. 27).

Professional Satisfaction. The degree to which a person reports satisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic features of the job (Warr, Cook, & Wall, 1979).

Transactional Leadership. “A style of leadership which caters to the self-interests of followers. It uses contingent reinforcement: constructive rewards, praises and promises for follower success in meeting commitments to the leaders, and negative feedback, reproof, or disciplinary action to correct failure to meet those commitments” (Bass, 1999, p. 5).

Transformational Leadership. A style of leadership characterized as the ability to elicit support and participation from followers through personal qualities (Avolio & Bass, 1988; Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1990), and is comprised of the four following attributes: idealized influence with two subcategories, behaviors and attributes; inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Avolio & Bass).

Summary

There are many challenges facing nursing education. However, an important aspect of any department is the leadership of the department head, the roles of such a position within the college, and the effect of the leadership on the faculty (Ruhl, 1995). The success or failure of a department may be inextricably linked to the success of the overarching institution. Through research of leadership styles of nursing department heads, and the impact this leadership has on nursing faculty, this study will help determine ineffective and effective adoptions of leadership style for future nursing academic leaders.

In Chapter Two, issues that relate to the research and comprise the constructs of the research are presented. Additionally, detailed in Chapter Two is the literature in relation to transactional and transformational leadership, as well as professional

satisfaction and organizational commitment. In Chapter Three, an introduction to the methodology and design selection is presented. Further, the population sample and sample size with corresponding evaluation tools are discussed. Provided in Chapter Four are the statistical data from which an analysis of the data is drawn. Finally, presented in Chapter Five is a discussion of the findings of the research, conclusions, and their implications for theory.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

“Overshadowed by the enormous shortage of staff nurses, the impending shortage of nursing faculty is of equally grave concern. Given that many of the strategies currently being proposed to improve the shortage of clinical nurses are predicated on encouraging more people to enter nursing schools, the question ‘Who will teach them?’ has to be raised” (Disch et al., 2004). In 2005, the AACN published a white paper containing a compilation of information about a critical nursing faculty shortage. According to this paper, a shortage of nursing faculty had reached critical proportions. Then, in 2009, the AACN confirmed that almost 50,000 qualified applications to professional nursing programs in the United States were denied admission, primarily because of nursing faculty shortages. Even more recently, AACN’s report on *2010-2011 Enrollment and Graduations in Baccalaureate and Graduate Programs in Nursing* report revealed “U.S. nursing schools turned away 67,563 qualified applicants from baccalaureate and graduate nursing programs in 2010 due to an insufficient number of faculty, clinical sites, classroom space, clinical preceptors, and budget constraints” (AACN, 2011). Nursing schools are limited in the number of students that can be admitted to baccalaureate programs when there are insufficient numbers of faculty to teach (Rich & Nugent, 2010). This situation is unlikely to improve, as almost two-thirds of nursing faculty will reach retirement age by 2021 (NLN, 2006). As indicated by the noted facts, the two shortages are inextricably linked.

Private and public agencies alike have proposed solutions to the insufficient numbers of nursing faculty in order to attract younger nurses to the academic environment (Rich & Nugent, 2010). Efforts are increasing to both recruit and retain nursing faculty (Gazza & Shellenbarger, 2005; O'Brien-Pallas, Duffield, & Alksnis, 2004). Thus, the ultimate goal is to not only attract qualified nurses to academia, but to retain the qualified faculty once they get there. It is imperative to recognize that evaluation of retention begins with the analysis of leadership style. Shamir (1999) asserted leadership style can affect motivation and professional satisfaction of subordinates, subsequently influencing the level of organizational commitment. For example, the effectiveness of transformational leadership on the variables of subordinate satisfaction, performance, and effectiveness has been commonly measured with positive results (Aviolo & Bass, 1988; Bycio, Hackett, & Allen, 1995; DeGroot, Kiker, & Cross, 2000; Dumdum, Lowe, & Avolio, 2002; Singer & Singer, 2001; Sosik, Kahai, & Avolio, 1998).

Measures to increase job satisfaction and promote retention “are needed to decrease stress and frustration among novice teachers and to improve teachers’ satisfaction with the work environment” (Rich & Nugent, 2010, p. 229). Rich and Nugent asserted disillusionment can occur when experienced and qualified practitioners turn to teaching without adequate mentoring. Conley (2005) ascertained that certain factors referred to as push factors (conditions that move faculty toward a desire to retire) and pull factors (circumstances that make continuing to work more appealing) may contribute to the attrition or retention of nursing faculty.

Other (and substantially more) researchers have studied the relationships among job satisfaction, organizational commitment, transformational leadership and transactional leadership (Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996; Bogler, 2001; Glisson & Durick, 1988; Maeroff, 1988; Medley & Larochelle, 1995; Morrison, Jones, & Fuller, 1997, Rossmiller, 1992). However, research regarding leadership and faculty job satisfaction in nursing higher education has had little attention (Shieh et al., 2001). Furthermore, while research has been completed recognizing the importance of job satisfaction to staff nurses, little research has involved the evaluation of professional satisfaction among nursing educators (Barrett et al., 1992, Donohue, 1986; Moody, 1996; Snarr & Krochalk, 1996). Also since followers' satisfaction and commitment are associated with transformational leadership and, to a lesser degree, transactional leadership (Koh, Steers, & Terborg, 1995) and since relatively very little attention has been given to leadership styles within schools of nursing, it is imperative to fill this gap and analyze leadership style as a push or pull factor in the nursing faculty satisfaction and commitment within the academic environment.

This review of literature will provide an understanding of the constructs involved, present evidence of their connectivity, and provide a theoretical basis for the proposed relationship structure. Moreover, the justification for selecting and analyzing nursing department head leadership style through the lens of transactional and transformational leadership will be provided after providing insight on various other styles of leadership commonly seen in the higher education setting. Using leadership style as the theoretical framework, the interrelated constructs, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, professional satisfaction, and organizational commitment, will be discussed as

a means to provide further information regarding the importance of this studies framework.

Leadership

“The answer to the question ‘what is effective leadership?’ is ‘it **all** depends’” (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989, p. 15). Leadership is one of the least understood but most observed phenomena (Burns, 1978); yet, it is often regarded as the most critical factor in the success or failure of an institution (Bass, 1990). Numerous definitions of leadership exist but perhaps the one definition most widely recognized by researchers is that of Burns (1978) which defined leadership as actions of the leader which influences the actions of his or her followers.

Yukl (2006) posited “[l]eadership is the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives” (p. 8). Senge (1996) asserted “[l]eaders are those people who ‘walk ahead,’ people who are genuinely committed to deep change in themselves and in their organizations. They lead through developing new skills, capabilities, and understandings. And they come from many places within an organization” (p. 45). Lastly, Grogan (2003) implied “[l]eadership becomes the capacity to involve others honestly by respecting and legitimizing different perspectives” (p. 24). The understanding of leadership has been molded by the thought that what leaders do is determined grossly by the nature of those being led and the culture of the organizations in which they work (Schein, 1992; Siegrist, 1999).

The definitions of leadership associate to the number of theories that exist. To further understand the diverse definitions of leadership as well as to emphasize the

selection of transformational and transactional leadership as the most pertinent styles to evaluate nursing leadership style, various leadership styles found within the literature will be presented.

Other Leadership Theories

Participative Leadership

The participatory leadership model according to Yukl (2006) “involves efforts by a leader to encourage and facilitate participation by others in making important decisions” (p. 81). The leader uses delegation for power-sharing, giving others responsibility and authority for decision-making while empowering individuals to determine their own work roles (Yukl). Delegation translates into a power-sharing relationship by giving others responsibility and authority in making decisions.

Yukl (2006) posited five potential benefits of participative leadership, the first being improved *decision quality*. Followers must “trust [their] leader and view the process as legitimate and beneficial” (Yukl, p. 84). Followers, regardless of how thin they are stretched, are typically willing to participate in new endeavors if they perceive an explicit link between the means and ends of the task as well as relevant spheres of participation to which they can offer a unique voice (Anderson, 1998).

The second potential benefit of participative leadership as posited by Yukl (2006) is *decision acceptance*. Leithwood, Jantzi, and Steinbach (2000) noted the decision making processes of the group “ought to be the central focus for leaders” (p. 12). As subordinates gain more ownership in the decision-making processes guiding the organization, they are likelier to integrate such decisions into their practice with minimal dissent.

The third benefit of participative leadership as posited by Yukl (2006) is *satisfaction with the decision process*. Within this component lies the concept of *procedural justice* (Yukl); if followers believe they have had a dignified and respected voice, they are more likely to accept process outcomes regardless of how unappealing they may be. Such an approach requires educational leaders to embrace the benefits of health conflict. They must not be afraid to engage in difficult dialogues necessary for airing grievances. Bolman and Deal (2003) reminded individuals that “[c]onflict has benefits as well as costs: a tranquil, harmonious organization may very well be apathetic, uncreative, stagnant, inflexible, and unresponsive” (p. 198). Educational leaders must, therefore, seek out forms of authentic participation which encourage consultation with subordinates, challenge the status quo, and seek out legitimate alternatives that have been previously unexplored.

The fourth benefit of participative leadership as posited by Yukl (2006) is *development of participant skills*, which increases the learning curve in the midst of change. Leaders, however, must be quite humble and trustworthy to realize such empowerment. Hackman and Johnson (2000) noted “an empowering leader acts more like a lead goose than a head buffalo” (p. 151). Further, Schlecty (2000) noted “a participatory leader is a leader who is strong enough to trust others with his or her fate, just as he or she expects their trust in return” (p. 184).

Finally, the fifth benefit of participative leadership as posited by Yukl (2006) is *objectives for different participants*. The capacity to respond to internal and external demands for change will flourish with an expanded network of downward, lateral, upward, and outsider consultation. Bottery (1996) wrote, “If teachers are not alone in

facing a lack of trust, and an attack upon their professional autonomy, it would seem to make sense to look at what kind of common response can be made with other professionals” (p. 186). Nonetheless, Whetten and Cameron (1985) cautioned to differentiate “between legitimate needs strongly advocated and strong advocacy” (pp. 462-463).

The participatory leadership model supports shared decision-making through additional means of empowerment. Hackman and Johnson (2000) conjectured a distribution of power “enhances groups’ performance and may be the key to organizational survival” (p. 143). The shared power structure influences the organization to empower others to shape the leadership. Further, the model “encourages and facilitates participation in others” creating a shared decision-making leadership structure (Yukl, 2006, p. 112).

Distributive Leadership

As a unique theory, yet complementary to participative leadership, distributive leadership focuses on the interaction of many people rather than the actions of one central figure. Distributive leadership is focused on groups of people working together or in concertive action (Gronn, 2002). Gronn remarked, “Time is up for the leader with the vision” (p. 426); instead, it is time for the vision of the collective group to assume the forefront. Spillane, Halverson, and Diamond (2001) stated distributive leadership emerges in and through interactions between leaders, followers, and situations, noting “...the interplay between the practices of multiple leaders is essential to understanding how leadership is displaced among several organizational members” (p. 25). Similarly,

Maxcy (2006) focused on what subordinates can do rather than who is doing it and challenged the notion of the leader.

Another property of distributive leadership is coordination, or “managing the dependencies between activities” (Gronn, 2002, p. 433). Coordination is created by clustering groups of people who collectively work to achieve a common goal. Such synergy can create a result greater than the sum of each individual’s practice (Spillane et al., 2001). Spillane et al. further noted this proper coordination provides opportunities for collaboration essential to the distributive leadership process.

When analyzing distributive leadership the focus must be on how leaders involved others in carrying out micro tasks and exploring the process that a leader uses to interact with others (Spillane et al., 2001). Distributive leadership is becoming more critical for leaders to be effective when more and more expectations are placed upon them (Gronn, 2002). For this reason, member participation is vital to the leadership success within the organization.

Laissez-faire Leadership

Unlike participative or distributive leadership theories, researchers (Antonakis et al., 2003; Antonakis & House, 2002; Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1997; Bass & Avolio, 2000) further distinguished a laissez-faire leadership style characterized by the absence of leadership and portrayed as a non-leadership factor (Avolio & Bass, 1988). Bass and Avolio (1994) developed the Full Range Leadership Model whereby preferred leadership styles are identified as transformational, transactional, or laissez-faire. Laissez faire leadership indicates an absence of leadership and results in leaders avoiding decision making, delegating authority and responsibility, not responding to requests, making no

attempt to empower followers or to recognize their needs, and being frequently absent (Bass, 1998). Laissez-faire leaders provide little or no effort to assist the subordinate in personal growth (Northouse, 2004). This style of leadership is generally considered as the most ineffective form of leadership and is implied to always be an inappropriate way to lead (Den Hartog, Van Muijen, & Koopman, 1997).

Rationale for Leadership Theory Selection

The role of the department head as leader is one of the most difficult and challenging in higher education (Ruhl, 1995). Chairs, directors, and deans are positioned as middle managers between faculty and higher institutional administration (Austin et al., 1997; Buller, 2007) and are burdened with numerous responsibilities including promoting the vision articulated by upper management (Buller), policy-making and analysis, program development and evaluation, faculty mentoring and advocacy, mediation between administration and faculty (Austin et al.), strategic planning, mission development, salary decisions, and personnel management and training (Fagin, 1997). Academic leaders may have up to 50 different functions and responsibilities as expectations of their role requirements and assume up to 28 roles in their daily duties (Tucker, 1984). In addition, department heads are responsible for the quality of their faculty even though most faculty work independently (Hecht, Higginson, Gmelch, & Tucker, 1999).

All the while, nursing department heads must be visionary leaders attentive to trends in the industry, responsive to change, all while dealing with academic goals and daily operational tasks (Ryan & Irvine, 1996) and have the ability to “[understand] what motivates people, [predict] how they will behave in response to [their] leadership

attempts, and [direct] their behavior” (Hersey, 1992, p. 20). Leaders may be conferred the opportunity to lead, not because they are appointed by senior managers; rather they lead because they are perceived and accepted by subordinates as leaders (Boseman, 2008). Because strong leadership is essential for management effectiveness (Scoble & Russell, 2003), it is relevant to evaluate persistent leadership theories in connection to organizational commitment and professional satisfaction.

In addition to other factors, it was important to consider the broad sample of faculty members when narrowing the leadership theories of choice for this study. The AACN (2011) conjectured that the current nursing faculty workforce is dwindling as tenured and experienced faculty reach retirement age, and fewer younger nurses are choosing to enter the field of academia (Hessler & Ritchie, 2006). Nursing schools face serious obstacles that may potentially jeopardize faculty satisfaction, resulting in difficulties in both the recruitment and retention of nursing faculty. Clearly effective leadership for higher education in nursing is essential to resolve this longstanding issue associated with professional satisfaction, organizational retention, and recruitment. As stated in the NLN 2005 position statement, *Transforming Nursing Education*, “[w]e can no longer rely on tradition, past practices, and good intentions” (p.1). In essence, it is time to “refocus our lens” to solve the faculty shortage issue (Bellack, 2004, p. 244), and utilize “different lenses...to see dimensions clearly...and integrate input coming from various perspectives” (Starck, Warner, & Kotarba, 1999, p. 265).

As experienced nursing faculty are replaced with younger, novice faculty, the issue became apparent that novice nursing faculty may not be ready to partake in leadership decision made evident through the participative leadership lens in which a

shared decision-making structure is highlighted (Yukl, 2006). Novice faculty members enter academia from the clinical environment, and are ill-prepared for the challenges of nursing education (AACN, 2005). Similarly, novice faculty may also not be prepared for a distributive leadership style because of their unfamiliarity with the academic environment. The assumption that novice nursing faculty member could participate to an acceptable level, one which is congruent to that of their more experienced peers, is not realistic and may lead to frustration or increased attrition. Rich and Nugent (2010) asserted disillusionment can occur when nursing clinicians turn to teaching without adequate mentoring. Therefore, to examine a laissez-faire leadership style in which leaders provide little or no effort to assist the subordinate in personal growth (Northouse, 2004) it appears to not be a time worthy activity.

Furthermore, inspirational motivation exhibited by the leader, rouses subordinates to exert additional effort on behalf of the organization, and enhances the subordinates' sense of self-worth, job performance, and organizational commitment (Bass, 1985). Similarly, the rewards used by the transactional leader include praise and recognition, merit increases, promotions, bonuses, or honors. The ultimate outcome of employing such leadership behavior is enhanced role clarity, job satisfaction, and improved performance (Bass).

The impact transformational leadership has on organizations is evident in the literature (Avolio & Bass, 1988; Bass, 1997; Bycio, Hackett, & Allen, 1995; Singer & Singer, 2001; Sosik, Kahai, & Avolio, 1998). The transformational leader is capable of (a) articulating a vision that is attractive and clear, (b) explaining the way the vision will be attained, (c) acting optimistically and with confidence, (d) expressing confidence in

followers, (e) using symbolism to emphasize critical values, (f) setting an example for others to follow, and (g) empowering the people to achieve the vision (Bass, 1998). The transformational leader “engages followers in such a way as to raise them to new levels of morality and motivation” (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989, p. 10). As emphasized by Covey (1991), the goal of transformational leadership is to “transform people and organizations in mind and heart; enlarge vision, insights, and understanding, and bring about changes that are permanent, self-perpetuating, and momentum building” (p. 187). Because there is a need for academic leaders, specifically nursing education leaders, to mobilize subordinates and bring about significant changes in faculty to affect retention and recruitment statistics, it became apparent to choose transformational leadership as an obvious theoretical lens to view effective leadership.

There is a growing body of research investigating the impact of transformational and transactional leadership on followers within various organizations (Bensimon, 1993; Chan & Chan, 2005, Doherty & Danylchuk, 1996; Dvir et al., 2002; Emery & Barker, 2007; Stordeur, Vandenberghe, & D’hoore, 2000). Nonetheless, according to Bass (1999), “[m]uch more explanation is needed about the innerworkings of transformational leadership” (p. 24), despite a growing body of research on the impact of transformational leadership in predicting outcomes such as job satisfaction and work performance (Boerner Eisenbeiss, & Griesser, 2007; Fuller, Patterson, Hester, & Stringer, 1996; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramanian, 1996; Stashevsky & Koslowsky, 2006; Zagorsek, Dimovski, & Skerlavaj, 2008). Since transformational and transactional leadership is the conceptual underpinning utilized in this inquiry further discussion of each is warranted.

Transformational and Transactional Leadership Theory

Research demonstrates transformational leadership has a large influence on followers' performance and innovation than transactional leaders (Boerner et al., 2007). In addition, transformational leadership has been positively related with team cohesiveness, work unit effectiveness and organizational learning (Lowe et al., 1996; Stashevsky and Koslowsky, 2006; Zagorsek et al., 2008). Transformational leaders also help in the acceptance of organizational change (Bommer, Rubin, & Baldwin, 2004) especially when it is about accepting technology and acquisition (Nemanich and Keller, 2007; Schepers, Wetzels, & Ruyter, 2005).

As Avolio (1999) noted, every leader exhibits behaviors that can be characterized as transformational or transactional; however, effective leaders most often display transformational leadership behavior. "The contrasting of transactional leadership with transformational leadership should not be construed to mean the models are unrelated" (Hater & Bass, 1988, p. 696); however, a difference between transformational and transactional leadership is the fulfillment and constant changing of expectations (Bass, 1985; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Burns, 1978). Followers of the transformational leader, like those of transactional leaders, are nonetheless rewarded, albeit in a different way. Rewards for the transformational follower are internal instead of external and are linked to goal achievement (Avolio & Bass, 1988). Shamir, House, and Arthur (1993) asserted the transformational leader focuses on the self-esteem and self-concept of the employee, while the transactional leader is concerned with material needs of the employee. Nonetheless, Bass (1999a) deviated from Burns when he contended that transactional and transformational leadership reflect two separate dimensions rather than opposite ends of

one continuum (Doherty & Danylchuk, 1996). Transactional leaders accept and preserve the organizational climate (Bass), whereas transformational leaders introduce a new culture through modification of beliefs, goals, and redefining how group members perceive their roles (Bensimon, 1993).

Yukl (2006) referred to the transactional leader as a ‘manager’ and the transformational leader as a ‘leader’. Foster (1986) further identified the dissimilarities of a manager and leader, and affirmed a manager is concerned with the running of the organization, while a leader is concerned with the development and change of the institution and of the people within it. According to Burns (1978), transactional leaders “approach their followers with an eye to trading one thing for another: jobs for votes, subsidies for campaign contributions” (p. 4), while the transformational leader promotes subordinate growth, moving them toward higher, more universal needs and purposes. Transformational leaders provide charisma, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration. By contrast, transactional leaders maintain the status quo, specifying and clarifying tasks which followers perform (Bass, 1985; Burns).

Through transformational leadership, the focus shifts to a leader who seeks to transform the organization by moving in new directions, inspiring, being creative, and improving quality, while exceeding expectations of subordinates, promoting self-accountability and confidence (Davis, 2003). In addition, the transformational leader recognizes the affective and emotional needs and responses of the followers (Bono & Judge, 2003). Nonetheless, Bass (1985) relayed all leaders are transactional to some extent. Yukl (2006) supported Bass’ claim and asserted both leadership and management

process “are necessary for the success of an organization” (p. 6) as “effective leaders use a combination of both types of leadership” (p. 262).

Transactional Leadership Theory

Development of concept. Burns (1978) was the first to utilize the terms transactional and transformational leadership. Burns posited transactional leadership is based on bureaucratic authority and legitimacy within the organization, emphasizing work standards, assignments, and task-oriented goals. In addition, Burns believed that transactional leaders relied heavily upon organizational rewards and punishments to influence employee performance. Burns summarized his concept of transactional leadership as:

Such leadership occurs when one person takes the initiative in making contact with others for the purpose of an exchange of valued things. The exchange could be economic or political or psychological in nature: a swap of goods or of one good for money; a trading of votes between candidate and citizen or between legislators; hospitality to another person in exchange for willingness to listen to one’s troubles. Each party to the bargain is a conscious of the power resources and attitudes of the other. Each person recognizes the other as a person. Their purposes are related, at least to the extent that the purposes stand within the bargaining process and can be advanced by maintaining that process. But beyond this the relationship does not go. The bargainers have no enduring purpose that holds them together; hence they may go their separate ways. A leadership act took place, but it was not one which binds the leader and followers together in a mutual and continuing pursuit of higher purpose. (p. 19)

More current research, (Aldoory & Toth, 2004; Greiman & Addington, 2008; Riaz & Haider, 2010) has been completed on transactional leadership evolving the transactional leadership theory through research of applied practice. Active transactional leadership behavior has been positively associated to follower attitudes and work performance (Avolio, Waldman, & Einstein, 1988; Bass & Avolio, 1990; Waldman, Bass, & Yammarino, 1990). Some research indicates that the transactional leadership style

provides high satisfaction and organizational identification as compared to transformational leadership style (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005; Wu, 2009), and have substantial influence on the followers (Boseman, 2008). Contrastingly, other research studies (Avolio et al., 1988; Bass, 1985; Howell & Avolio, 1993; Kirby, Paradise, & King, 1992; Podsakoff, Todor, & Skov, 1982) on transactional leadership behavior indicate poor attitudes and decreased work performance among followers.

Components of transactional leadership theory. Hater and Bass (1988) and Howell and Avolio (1993) continued to research the impact of transactional leadership in the organizational setting. The researchers identified three components of transactional leadership: active management by exception, passive management by exception, and contingent reward.

Management-by-exception can be active or passive in nature (Bass, 1990). “Active transactional leadership involves an interaction between leader and follower that emphasizes a more proactive positive exchange...providing appropriate rewards when followers meet agreed-upon objectives” (Emery & Barker, 2007, p. 81), intervening before something goes wrong, and keeping an eye out for deviations from the norm (Bass, 1985). “Employees under the quid pro quo approach of transactional leaders might find fault or dissatisfaction with the equity of their reward system” (Emery & Barker, p. 81), as active transactional leaders react with correction, criticism, and/or punishment (Bass & Avolio, 1990).

“Passive transactional leadership, or management-by-exception, allows the status quo to exist as long as the old ways are working” (Emery & Barker, 2007, p. 80). Once the status quo is determined to not be effective, the passive leader waits to observe what

happens (Bass, 1985). “In the management-by-exception approach, the transactional leader is more apt to be perceived as someone who is actively searching for deviations” portraying “that one mistake outweighs ten successful contributions” (Emery & Barker, p. 81). Although passive management-by-exception may occasionally be required such as when a leader supervises a significant number of subordinates, it has generally been found to be ineffective and can result in stress, anxiety, and hostility in subordinates when overused (Bass, 1998).

“The transactional image of leadership refers to exchange relationships between the leaders and their followers” (Bogler, 2001, p. 663), through contingent reinforcement linking leaders with their followers in an exchange process (Bass, 1985; Chan & Chan, 2005). The transactional leader sets goals, gives directions, and uses rewards to reinforce behaviors. The leader may employ manipulation as a means to control the situation and the followers (Bass). Transactional leaders expect followers to achieve agreed-upon objectives, but do not encourage followers to assume greater responsibility for developing and leading themselves and others within the organization (Bass; Burns, 1978). The leader defines a list of performance and achievement objectives against which rewards in terms of money, praise, and promotion will be given in exchange for completion of the work (Chan & Chan).

Research in the transactional leadership area. Follower positive attitudes and work performance have been identified with the use of active transactional leadership behavior (Avolio et al., 1988; Bass & Avolio, 1990; Waldman et al., 1990). Contrastingly, other research studies related to passive transactional leadership behavior indicated poor attitudes and decreased work performance among followers (Avolio et al., Bass, 1985;

Howell & Avolio, 1993; Kirby et al., 1992; Podsakoff et al., 1982). While transactional leadership (Avolio et al.) is effective in explaining and predicting level of work tenacity and performance, it does not address why subordinates may exert work ethic beyond what is required. In order to address why subordinates exceed established goals and demonstrate persistent organizational commitment, transformational leadership theory must be discussed.

Transformational Leadership Theory

Development of concept. Adopting either transformational or transactional leadership style benefits the success of the organization (Laohavichien, Fredendall, & Cantrell, 2009), but in various ways. Burns (1978) envisioned transformational leadership at one end of a continuum and transactional leadership at the other end (Bass, 1985).

Burns summarized his concept of transformational leadership as:

Such leadership occurs when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality. Their purposes, which might have started out as separate but related, as in the case of transactional leadership, become fused. Power bases are linked not as counterweights but as mutual support for common purposes. Various names are used for such leadership, some of them derisive: elevating, mobilizing, inspiring, exalting, uplifting, preaching, exhorting, evangelizing. The relationship can be moralistic, of course. But transforming leadership ultimately becomes moral in that it raises the level of human conduct and ethical aspiration of both leader and led, and thus it has a transforming effect on both. (p. 20)

Bass (1985) expanded upon Burns' work insisting transactional and transformational leadership theories were not polar opposites of the same continuum, but rather that transformational leadership theory augmented and complimented transactional leader behavior (Hater & Bass, 1985; Howell & Avolio, 1993; Kouzes & Posner, 2007; Morrison et al., 1997; Waldman et al., 1990; Wallin, Cameron, & Sharples, 2005; Watts & Hammons, 2002; Yammarino & Bass, 1990).

Components of transformational leadership theory. “Transformational leaders’ exhibit charismatic behaviors, arouse inspirational motivation, provide intellectual stimulation, and treat followers with individualized consideration” (Dvir et al., 2002, p. 735). Transformational leadership transcends the organizational goals or individuals within the organization to a mutually satisfying vision reached through collaborative relationships (Leithwood, 1992). Transformational leadership, as proposed by Avolio and Bass (1988) is comprised of four attributes, with idealized influence broken down into two subcategories factors. These four attributes are idealized influence which consists of idealized attributes and idealized behaviors, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Avolio & Bass). Each of these factors will be defined and examples will be provided.

Bass and Avolio (1990) defined idealized influence (idealized behaviors) with respect to how followers perceive and act toward the leader. Attaining charisma in the eyes of followers is an essential step in becoming a transformational leader (Bass, 1990). Charisma and charismatic leadership have often been considered tantamount with transformational leadership (Conger & Kanungo, 1987) as charismatic leaders exert a tremendous amount of influence (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Howell & Frost, 1989). Leaders who display idealized influenced, regarded as the charismatic component in transformational leadership theory, represent the highest level of transformational leadership displayed by the trust and confidence shown to the leaders by their followers (Bass & Avolio, 1997). Leaders with these attributes are highly admired, respected, trusted, and have a high level of self-confidence, self-esteem, and self- determination.

They are regarded as role models and demonstrate high standards of ethical and moral conduct (Chan & Chan, 2005).

Through idealized influence (idealized attributes), the transformational leader motivates followers to do more than was originally expected by raising an awareness of the importance and value of the designated outcomes, transcending the followers own self-interests, and altering or expanding the followers' needs on Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Bass, 1985; House & Howell, 1992; Maslow, 1954). Burns (1978) contended that transformational leaders exhibiting charismatic traits could raise the followers from a lower to a higher level of needs in accordance with Maslow's hierarchy. Charisma may be the most compelling factor of transformational leadership (McLaurin & Al-Amri, 2008), yet is not enough to be an effective leader (Bass; Weese, 1994).

Bass (1985) described intellectual stimulation as "the arousal and change in followers of problem awareness and problem solving, of thought and imagination, and of beliefs and values, rather than arousal and change of immediate action" (p. 99) "The effect of intellectual stimulation is based on cognitive rather than emotional appeal" (Doherty & Danylchuk, 1996, p. 295) highlighting transformational leaders who steer clear of the status quo, encouraging "followers to question their old way of doing things" (Emery & Barker, 2007, p. 80) and to be proactive, creative, and innovative in their thinking (Bass; Chan & Chan, 2005).

Further, the transformational leader seeks to stimulate and promote better problem awareness and resolution among the followers through inspirational motivation (Bass, 1985). Bass and Avolio (1990) asserted transformational leaders enhance the followers' capabilities to think on their own, develop new ideas, and question outdated operating

rules by encouraging them to seek and develop new perspectives to perform job roles, thereby enhancing variety and autonomy (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006). Further, the transformational leader motivates followers through expressions of optimism, setting ambitious goals, and communicating an ideal vision (Antonakis et al., 2003).

Transformational leaders evaluate the followers potential in terms of their ability to fulfill current commitments, while simultaneously envisioning expansion of their current responsibilities (Dvir et al., 2002), providing “workers with an increased level of accomplishment and satisfaction” (Emery & Barker, 2007, p. 81) and arousing individual and team spirit (Antonakis et al., 2003).

Transformational leaders demonstrate individualized consideration (Bass & Avolio, 1990), concern for the needs of the followers, treating subordinates on a “one-to-one basis...[through] mentoring” (Emery & Barker, 2007, p. 80), coaching, and teaching to garner a sense of commitment and dedication to the organization (Keller, 1992; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006). Through task delegation and assignment of work the abilities, potential, and motivation of the individual is enhanced (Bass, 1985). Yukl (2006) asserted “the followers feel trust, admiration, loyalty, and respect toward the leader, and they are motivated to do more than they originally expected to do” (p. 262).

Followers have a sense that someone is caring for their needs since transformational leaders are focused on the individual development of their followers (Emery & Barker, 2007). Bass (1990) argued that transformational leaders “meet the emotional needs of each employee” (p. 21), while Ashkanasy and Tse (2000) contended “[t]ransformational leaders are sensitive to follower’s needs...they show empathy to followers, making them understand how others feel” (p. 232). Through honest

engagement with followers, trusting, warm relationships between leaders and followers ensue (Bommer, 2005). Subsequently, effective interpersonal relationships and individual development is enhanced as one-on-one relationships are cultivated (Bass, 1990; Weese, 1994) in this two-way exchange process highlighting mutual influence, trust, sharing, and concerns among leaders and followers (Chan & Chan, 2005; Hollander, 1985).

Implications for leaders. Bennis and Nanus (1985) and Cameron and Ulrich (1986) asserted transactional leaders are preoccupied with “doing things right”, while transformational leaders are motivated to “do the right thing”. Transformational leaders are open and prone to learning through social interaction (Bensimon, 1993), and are well-versed in listening and asking (Bennis & Nanus). Transformational-charismatic leadership involves leaders gaining the respect, trust, and confidence of followers and garnering support for the mission of the organization (Yammarino, Dubinsky, Comer, & Jolson, 1997). If the transformational leader suggests changes within the organization, the changes are often viewed as non-threatening or disrupting, “because it has been drawn from the organization, and it does not violate existing traditions and culture (Bensimon, p. 8). Additionally, the transformational leader attempts to influence improvements by “emphasizing strengths and improving (rather than changing) existing values and goals” (Bensimon, p. 14).

Described as charismatic, visionary, cultural, empowering, inspirationally motivating, and intellectually stimulating by Leithwood and Duke (1999), the transformational leader inspires followers to transcend personal agendas, to perform beyond expectations, and transform both the individual and the organization resulting in collective efforts to achieve organizational goals (Bass et al., 2003; Bass, 1985; Dunham

& Klafehn, 1990; Keegan & Hartog, 2004). Burns (1978) described transformational leadership as a relationship in which the leader encourages a follower to maximize their potential in an effort to pursue higher-order needs and group goals. Common themes of various approaches focus on leadership that is charismatic (Conger & Kanungo, 1988), visionary (Bennis & Nanus, 1985), and transformational (Bass, 1985). Followers are influenced to exert greater effort in the pursuit of higher-order needs, embrace a greater vision for their group and/or organization, and perform beyond expectations (Burns; Doherty & Danylchuk, 1996). “Its motivational potential surpasses that of leadership models characterized by leader-follower exchanges or transactions-providing for the needs of followers if their performance fulfills expectations” (Hater & Bass, 1988, p. 696).

Research in the transformational leadership area. Transformational leadership style has been positively related to leader effectiveness ratings, leader and follower professional satisfaction (Avolio et al., 1988; Seltzer & Bass, 1990; Wofford, Goodwin, & Whittington, 1998), increased follower efforts (Avolio et al.; Bass, Waldman, Avolio, & Bebb, 1987; Howell & Avolio, 1993; Seltzer & Bass, 1990; Yammarino, Spangler, & Bass, 1993), and overall organizational performance (Hater & Bass, 1988; Howell & Avolio; Seltzer & Bass; Waldman et al., 1990; Wofford et al.; Yammarino et al.). Furthermore, research findings have also conveyed that transformational leadership is associated with employee commitment to the organization, trust in the leader, as well as positive organizational citizenship behaviors (Bycio et al., 1995; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990). Additionally, transformational leader behavior results in enhanced performance, effort, and professional satisfaction (Avolio et al.; Geyer &

Steyrer, 1998; Hater & Bass; Howell & Avolio, Waldman et al.; Yammarino & Bass, 1990; Yammarino et al.).

Professional Satisfaction

“The education mission seems to be dependent on the way teachers feel about their work and how satisfied they are with it” (Bogler, 2001, p. 665). Therefore, “schools must give more attention to increasing teacher job satisfaction” (Heller, Clay, & Perkins, 1993, p. 75). Concern over faculty job satisfaction and turnover “has escalated over the past 10 years” (Disch et al., 2004, p. 323), thus emphasizing the urgency of paying attention to reasons behind faculty attrition.

Professional satisfaction, especially that of a teacher, is a difficult component to measure “because teachers are not unified in their perspectives about what makes them satisfied with their careers” (Woods & Weasmer, 2002, p. 186). Nonetheless, job satisfaction among nursing faculty has been studied by a number of researchers from various perspectives including the correlation among leadership characteristics and professional satisfaction (Bauder, 1982a; Bauder, 1982b; Kennerly, 1989; Pollock, 1986). Considering 50 percent of new teachers drop out of the profession in the first five years (Colbert & Wolff, 1992), the impending shortage of nursing faculty remains of great concern (Disch et al., 2004).

“The study of employee’s attitudes to their work and, more specifically, of job satisfaction, has contributed a substantial body of knowledge about what makes people happy or unhappy with their jobs” (Evans, 1997). Professional satisfaction is a multivariate human attitude that has been defined as “an effective response of the worker to his job...and is a consequence of the worker’s experience on the job in relation to his

own values, that is, what he wants or expects from it” (Smith, 1974, p. 234). It is suggested that job satisfaction is a state of pleasure gained from applying one’s values to a job (Locke, 1969). Spector (1997) believed that job satisfaction “can be considered as a global feeling about the job or as a related constellation of attitudes about various aspects or facets of the job” (p.2). Shann (1998) maintained professional satisfaction is “a predictor of teacher retention, a determinant of teacher commitment, and in turn, a contributor to school effectiveness” (p. 67).

Properties of Professional Satisfaction

Early researchers identified higher performance ratings by supervisors when employees were satisfied with their job (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969). More current research has demonstrated professional satisfaction reduces attrition rates, enhances collaboration among colleagues, enhances job performances, and positively impacts student outcomes yet “demands a conscious [continual] effort from the teacher...and administrators” (Woods & Weasmer, 2002, p. 188). Job satisfaction is often conceptualized as containing the following elements: the job itself, supervisor relationship, management beliefs, future opportunity, work environment, pay/benefits/rewards, and co-worker relationships (Morris, 1995) which comprise the intrinsic and extrinsic properties of job satisfaction.

According to Warr et al. (1979), professional satisfaction is the degree to which a person reports satisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic features of the job. To that end, it is essential to understand the intrinsic and extrinsic factors of professional satisfaction as research has identified. The satisfying and dissatisfying factors of teacher job satisfaction, pioneered by Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959), and discussed by Dinham and

Scott (1998) associate the satisfying factors, the “motivators”, with the higher order needs and the dissatisfying factors, the “hygiene factors”, with the lower order needs. The satisfying factors apply to the intrinsic reward of a profession, such as responsibility, the work itself, achievement, recognition, and opportunity for advancement. The lower order needs pertain to extrinsic matters of work such as supervision, work policies, working conditions, salary, and interpersonal relationships (Bogler, 2001).

Overwhelmingly, “motivators” are noted as intrinsic viewpoints to teaching, “such as pupil achievement, teacher achievement, changing pupil attitudes and behaviors in a positive way, recognition from others, mastery and self-growth, and positive relationships” (Dinham & Scott, 1998, p. 364). Satisfiers were applicable to teachers regardless of gender, experience, position held, location, and type of school (Dinham & Scott). Internal or intrinsic properties such as autonomy at work (Pearson, 1995), professional prestige and status, and personal development and self-esteem relate to aspects of professional satisfaction. The effect of perceived autonomy in the classroom has been examined and correlates positively with job satisfaction (Kreis & Brockoff, 1986). The perception of feeling empowered is another facet of professional satisfaction and accounts for professional growth, autonomy, self-efficacy, involvement in decisions, and professional respect (Rinehart, Short, Short, & Eckley, 1998). Nursing faculty ranked internal properties such as responsibility, achievement, academic freedom, and autonomy as more important than external properties (Marriner & Craigie, 1977).

On the other hand, “hygiene factors” were phenomena more extrinsic to the teaching and involved “educational policies and procedure..., poor supervision, being treated impersonally by employers ...and increased administrative workloads” (Dinham

& Scott, 1998, p. 364). A lack of control and poor leadership resulted in increased dissatisfaction and subordinate stress (Dinham, 1993). Extrinsic properties of job satisfaction refer to the physical aspects of the work environment and to the benefits of which the job contributes (Pearson, 1995) such as the administration, fringe benefits, working hour's conditions and salary (Herzberg, 1966). Lenz and Waltz (1983) noted that external properties such as salary, geographical location, and the reputation of the school were the most important factors for faculty in accepting and maintaining a faculty position.

Professional Satisfaction and Transformational Leadership

Previous research studies have revealed that transformational leadership is positively tied to job satisfaction (Bass, 1998; Bogler, 2001; Maeroff, 1988; Medley & LaRochelle, 1995; Morrison et al., 1997, Rossmiller, 1992). Superiors, who demonstrate transformational behaviors such as paying personal attention to the needs and interests of subordinates, provide an environment for intellectual stimulation and challenges, raise expectations and motivation, and encourage subordinates to view their occupation as more rewarding and central to their life (Bogler, 2001). Transformational leaders elevate the needs of followers on Maslow's hierarchy from basic needs to self-actualization (Bass, 1985), likely resulting in stronger employee satisfaction.

Professional Satisfaction and Transactional Leadership

Research of transactional and transformational leadership help predict subordinates' satisfaction with their leader (Bennett, 2009). In a study conducted by Chen, Beck, and Amos (2005), subordinates reported satisfaction with the contingent reward dimension of transactional leaders. Further research indicated transactional leadership

style promotes high professional satisfaction and organizational identification as compared to transformational leadership style (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005; Wu, 2009), despite transactional leaders having significant and substantial influence over the subordinates (Boseman, 2008). Research on transformational leadership did dispute the above findings asserting that the effective communication skills of transformational leaders prevent the occurrence of work-related problems (Berson & Avolio, 2004), which ultimately enhances professional satisfaction among subordinates (Nemanich & Keller, 2007; Scandura & Williams, 2004) who in turn become more organizationally committed (Rafferty & Griffin, 2004; Scandura & Williams).

Professional Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment

“It is important to study teacher job satisfaction because of its effect on teacher retention” (Bogler, 2001, p. 666). Professional satisfaction has been recognized as a component of organizational commitment and research demonstrates that job satisfaction is a predictor of organizational commitment (Kovach, 1977; Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974; Price, 1977). Hall, Pearso, and Carroll (1992) asserted teachers who were planning to leave the profession reported less satisfaction and an increase in negative attitude toward teaching as a career and toward the school administration. Ostroff (1992) and Mathieu (1991) affirmed job satisfaction is positively correlated with teacher quality and retention, and with organizational commitment and performance in relationship to academic achievement, student behavior, student satisfaction, teacher turnover, and administrative performance. Lambert (1991) studied faculty retention and attrition and uncovered that nursing faculty satisfied with their current teaching position cited convenience of work schedules and positive interpersonal relationships with colleagues

and students. On the contrary, low salary and excessive workload were identified as the most likely factors to cause them to leave.

If nursing department heads are able to determine what faculty want from their job and obtain information regarding what motivates the individual faculty member, then administrators can provide “a satisfying and autonomous work environment” (Barrett et al., 1992, p. 1008) allowing the faculty to meet needs necessary for self-actualization and promotion of personal professional satisfaction. Fuller, Barnett, Hester, and Relyea (2003) observed “people are likely to become committed to an organization when they feel the organization is committed to them” (p. 789). As a result of achieving higher order needs, faculty would be more inclined to remain in their current position, resulting in greater productivity and less turnover (Somech & Bogler, 2002). Heller, Clay, and Perkins (1993) asserted “schools must give more attention to increasing teacher job satisfaction” (p. 75), because educational missions are dependent upon “the way teachers feel about their work and how satisfied they are with it” (Bogler, 2001, p. 665). Mowday, Porter, and Dubin (1974) concluded organizational commitment is a better and more stable predictor of turnover than job satisfaction and is an important area for continued research.

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is one of the most researched variables in the arena of organizational behavior, since it is assumed to affect the behavior of subordinates and their contributions to the organization (Ricketta, 2002). Over the past 30-40 years, the concept of organizational commitment has been studied in the sociology and psychology fields, but “[o]rganizational commitment of nurse faculty has not been well studied” (Gormley & Kennerly, 2009, p. 109). There is a need to further research factors affecting

nursing faculty organizational commitment. Prior research studies in business management (Coyle-Shapiro & Morrow, 2006; Goulet & Frank, 2002) and education (Buck & Watson, 2002; Somech & Bogler, 2002) have been applied to the nursing shortage in clinical environments; however, the nursing faculty shortage has not been widely studied in relation to organizational commitment in the current nursing faculty workforce (Gormley & Kennerly).

In general, organizational commitment should lead to outcomes related to improved relationships and performance, and a reduction in turnover or intent to leave (Rylander, 2003). Organizational commitment is a multidimensional concept (Blau, 1964) with different forms of commitment, leading to a general definition of the employee possessing a "bond" to the organization. Organizational commitment research has shown that organizational commitment leads to improved employee job satisfaction, productivity, longevity, and employee well-being; while also decreasing employee absenteeism and turnover (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002).

Nonetheless, "a better understanding of the relationships between work role balance and organization commitment is needed to foster an academic climate and culture that maximizes faculty effectiveness and encourages [nursing] faculty retention" (Gormley & Kennerly, 2009, p. 109). Nursing faculty in academic settings face unique challenges posed by organizational expectations. "Understanding how faculty can better achieve work role balance while developing and sustaining organizational commitment is important to organizational success in recruiting and retaining faculty" (Gormley & Kennerly, p. 108). Through development of positive working relationships amongst the department head and nursing faculty, faculty are more inclined to perceive the

organization as a desirable workplace and be more committed to stay (Gormley & Kennerly). Work environments that encourage inclusiveness in decision making and administrative processes are more likely perceived by faculty as positive and are associated with higher job satisfaction and enhanced work performance (Levin, 1995; Neumann, 1990).

The degree of faculty commitment to the university also has important implications for the faculty and university (Mowday et al., 1982). Committed employees tend to perceive greater rewards and have increased job satisfaction and improved retention enhancing the benefits for the employee and organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Mowday et al.). For example, committed employees are more likely to engage in creative and innovative work that sustains an organization's competitive advantage (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). “[F]aculty members who not only join their university, but continue to remain actively involved in innovative research activities; prepare new materials and approaches for teaching; build, assess, and reform academic programs; maintain high levels of academic standards; participate in academic decision making; and work closely and actively with their students” (Neumann & Finaly-Neumann, 1990, p. 77) are vital to organizational viability.

Components of Organizational Commitment

Meyer and Allen (1997) contend that organizational commitment by an employee is comprised of three components in which they identified as ‘affective commitment’, ‘normative commitment,’ and ‘continuance commitment’. Affective commitment is described as “...the employee’s emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organization” (p. 11) because they *want* to. Normative commitment is

used to indicate the feeling of obligation to continue employment in the organization because they *ought* to. Continuance commitment indicates the decision to continue within the organization based on the feeling that the employee *needs* to do so (p. 11).

Personal Characteristics of Organizational Commitment

There are mixed research findings whether personal characteristics influence organizational commitment. DeCotis and Summers (1987) argued that a commitment profile does not exist, therefore there is no association between one's personal characteristics and their commitment to an organization. However, Mowday et al. (1982) and Steers (1977) investigated the role of personal characteristics and discovered that personal traits such as age, tenure, and education level, in addition to experiences that a person brings to an organization, can predict their level of organizational commitment.

Age. Age has been positively correlated to organizational commitment (Buchanan, 1974; Hall, 1977; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991). Research supports the belief that organizational commitment is significantly linked to productivity, dedication, efficiency, and length of tenure (Angle & Perry, 1981; Blau & Boal, 1989; Chelte & Tausky, 1987; Hoy, Tartar & Kottkamp, 1991; Mowday et al., 1982). As age increases, tenure does as well, therefore tenure is argued to result in the link between age and commitment (Lincoln & Kalleberg, 1985; Williams & Hazar, 1986).

Tenure. Research indicates that organizational tenure is positively related to organizational commitment (Kushman, 1992; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997). As an individual's length of service with a particular organization increases, he, or she may develop an emotional attachment with the organization that makes it difficult to

switch jobs (Meyer & Allen). Meyer and Allen also suggested that typically uncommitted employees leave the organization while those with high commitment remain.

Education. A negative relationship between education and commitment has been noted by Koch and Steers (1978) and Glisson and Durick (1988). The lower a person's education, the more restricted the individual may be to the present job (Angle & Perry, 1981) and therefore the greater commitment to the current organization. Mowday et al. (1982) asserted that higher educated individuals may also have higher expectations than the organization is able to meet leading to lower organizational commitment.

Organizational Commitment and Transformational Leadership

Glisson and Durick (1988) reported that leadership is positively associated with and is a significant predictor of organizational commitment. In addition, unsurprisingly, transformational leadership was found to correlate positively with commitment (Bass, 1998; Bycio et al., 1995). Brown and Posner (2001) asserted that leaders must establish a vision, shape a culture consistent with that vision, and inspire people to use their talents and abilities in achieving that vision. To be successful, this approach not only requires transformational leaders, but also results in a need for leadership development (Brown & Posner). Bass (1985) suggested that organizations require extra-role behaviors from their employees to be productive, and that transformational leadership will produce these behaviors. The willingness to make this extra effort is described by the commitment of the employee (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002).

Organizational Commitment and Transactional Leadership

Previous research (Kovach, 1977; Mathieu, 1991; Ostroff, 1992; Porter et al., 1974; Price, 1977) affirmed professional satisfaction is positively correlated with organizational commitment. In addition, in past research, professional satisfaction has been affiliated with leadership styles other than transactional leadership (Berson & Avolio, 2004), which ultimately enhance professional satisfaction among subordinates (Scandura & Williams, 2004; Nemanich & Keller, 2007) who in turn become more organizationally committed (Scandura & Williams; Rafferty & Griffin, 2004). Koh et al. (1995) reiterated transformational and transactional leadership had an influence on the organizational commitment of teachers. In summary, Nguni, Slegers, and Denessen (2006) suggested that teachers' who value commitment were more affected by transformational leadership factors, whereas commitment to stay was more affected by transactional leadership factors, but in a negative way.

Summary

Leadership is one of the least understood but most observed phenomena on earth (Burns, 1978). It is also often regarded as the most critical factor in the success or failure of an institution (Bass, 1990). Through the lens of leadership, it is essential to analyze how transactional and transformational leadership influences professional satisfaction and organizational commitment within the nursing profession. Because studies addressing the leadership style of nursing department heads are limited, it is imperative to fill this gap and analyze leadership style as a key factor in retention of nursing faculty within the academic environment. The aforementioned constructs, transformational and transactional leadership, professional satisfaction, and organizational commitment, are

noted to have been intertwined in previous research (Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996; Bass, 1998; Bogler, 2001; Glisson & Durick, 1988; Maeroff, 1988; Medley & Larochelle, 1995; Morrison, Jones, & Fuller, 1997, Rossmiller, 1992), yet the paucity of analyzing these constructs from an academic nursing perspective indicates a need for additional research. This research may enhance the gap found within nursing literature.

In Chapter Three, methods, procedures, and instruments utilized to collect the data for this study are discussed. Data analysis is described in Chapter Four. In Chapter Five, the summary, implications, and recommendations for further research abstracted from the data are presented.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH AND METHODOLOGY

Introduction

Nursing education faces great challenges (AACN, 2011) as the nursing educator workforce ages and nears retirement (Trossman, 2002). In a time of a national nursing shortage, nursing schools are forced to deny qualified applications due to an insufficient number of nursing faculty (AACN; Bellack, 2004; Brady, 2007). As a result, it is essential that academic nursing leaders employ successful strategies to increase the professional commitment and satisfaction of nursing faculty resulting in retention of faculty. Consequently, nursing leaders have important roles in delivering high-quality education and raising faculty job satisfaction levels (Shieh et al., 2001).

Outlined in this chapter are the methods by which the leadership styles of the nursing department heads were studied. The study focuses on the relationship of nursing department heads' leadership style to faculty professional satisfaction and organizational commitment. Presented in this chapter are the research design, the research questions, data collection procedures, and data analysis plan.

Overview of Purpose and Problem

The American Association of Colleges of Nursing reported “nursing schools turned away 67,563 qualified applicants from baccalaureate and graduate nursing programs in 2010” (AACN, 2011, no page). The AACN attributes the faculty shortage to budget constraints, an aging faculty, and increased job competition from clinical sites (AACN). The paucity of literature evaluating effective leadership styles in nursing education articulates the need for this type of research study. In an attempt to determine if

transformational leadership is the most effective leadership style for assisting in organizational change, retaining nursing faculty, and promoting organization vision as the literature supported (Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Siegrist, 1999), the variables will be researched and correlated.

Research Questions

Within the context of this study, the following research questions were addressed:

1. What is the relationship between professional satisfaction and the level of position or tenure of nursing faculty?
2. What is the relationship between organizational commitment and the level of position or tenure of nursing faculty?
3. What is the relationship between leadership style (transactional or transformational) of the nursing department head and nursing faculty professional satisfaction?
4. What is the relationship between leadership style (transactional or transformational) of the nursing department head and nursing faculty organizational commitment?
5. What is the relationship between nursing faculty professional satisfaction and nursing faculty organizational commitment?

Research Hypotheses

In order to answer the aforementioned research questions, the following null hypothesis were explored in this study:

Null Hypothesis 1 (H₀₁): There is no difference in professional satisfaction by position level or tenure among nursing faculty.

Alternative Hypothesis 1 (H_{A1}): There is a difference in professional satisfaction by position level or tenure among nursing faculty.

Null Hypothesis 2 (H_{02}): There is no difference in organizational commitment level by position level or tenure among nursing faculty.

Alternative Hypothesis 2 (H_{A2}): There is a difference in organizational commitment by position level or tenure among nursing faculty.

Null Hypothesis 3 (H_{03}): There is no relationship between the leadership style (transactional or transformational) of nursing department heads and the professional satisfaction of nursing faculty.

Alternative Hypothesis 3 (H_{A3}): There is a relationship between the leadership style (transactional or transformational) of nursing department heads and the professional satisfaction of nursing faculty.

Null Hypothesis 4 (H_{04}): There is no relationship between the leadership style (transactional or transformational) of nursing department heads and the organizational commitment of nursing faculty.

Alternative Hypothesis 4 (H_{A4}): There is a relationship between the leadership style (transactional or transformational) of nursing department heads and the organizational commitment of the nursing faculty member.

Null Hypothesis 5 (H_{05}): There is no relationship between the professional satisfaction and organizational commitment level of the nursing faculty member.

Alternative Hypothesis 5 (H_{A5}): There is a relationship between professional satisfaction and organizational commitment level of the nursing faculty member.

Population and Sample

The population sample for this investigation involved nursing faculty members, holding no administrative titles, from five universities with schools of nursing located in four cities, residing in two different Midwestern states. In this Midwest region, 87 cities, urban and rural, and 15 counties comprise the greater metropolitan area (Executive Office of the President - Office of Management and Budget, 2008; U.S. Census Bureau, 2009). On one side of the state line within a 115 mile radius, eight baccalaureate schools of nursing reside (Missouri Board of Nursing, 2011). On the alternate side of the state line within a 62 mile radius, five baccalaureate schools of nursing reside (Kansas State Board of Nursing, 2011). The intent of analyzing programs found within the greater metropolitan area is of significant interest because the vacancy rate in this region is 9.2%, higher than the national average of 6.9% (AACN, 2010).

Cumulatively, the selected nursing programs have prepared baccalaureate nursing graduates for over 286 years and are accredited by the Commission on Collegiate Nursing Education (CCNE) or are in the process of seeking accreditation by the CCNE. The CCNE is an autonomous accrediting agency, committed to the improvement of public health and ensures the quality and integrity of baccalaureate and graduate nursing education programs preparing effective registered nurses (CCNE, 2011). Faculty members in both programs are well-credentialed faculty with the majority having graduate and/or doctoral degrees. Cumulatively, these programs have the capability to graduate 364 baccalaureate nursing students each year.

Appropriate sampling “is an important step in the research process because it helps to determine the quality of inferences made by the researcher that stem from the

underlying findings” (Collins, Onwuegbuzie, & Jiao, 2006, p. 83). Sampling criteria has been narrowed to the full-time nursing faculty members, male or female, tenured and non-tenured, employed by five baccalaureate nursing programs in the two Midwestern states. The purposive sample population, used to meet practical study requirements (Seidman, 2006) will include faculty members in such positions as instructors, assistant professors, associate professors, and professors. The sample was purposive in that the pool of potential faculty members represented the range of nursing faculty and sites that reflected the widest variation of the larger population under study (Seidman) and “directly reflect[ed] the purpose of this study and guide[d] in the identification of information” (Merriam, 1998, p. 61).

Prior to the faculty member’s participation in the survey, informed consent was obtained by the respective department head of the nursing school (Appendix A). Once the consent was obtained by the department head, a pre-survey letter (Appendix B) was distributed to all study participants to explain the purpose and importance of the study, the risks and the benefits, and the voluntary nature of participation.

Research Design

The study was conducted in three chronological phases: (1) development of a survey instrument (questionnaire) by the investigator, (2) distribution of questionnaires to the five selected nursing programs, and (3) analysis of data. Phase 1 included conducting a synthesis of key literature in order to develop a content valid questionnaire. Then using the test retest statistical procedure, the reliability of the instrument was established. Phase 2 included selecting five baccalaureate nursing programs in the Midwest in order to

distribute the questionnaire, and Phase 3 involved quantitative data analysis of the individual questionnaire responses.

A quantitative approach utilizing surveys was the methodology of preference used to gather empirical and descriptive data, and to determine the relationship among the independent and dependent variables in this study. Using a quantitative approach and statistical data supports the strength of the argument “particularly the soundness of its logic and the quality of its evidence” (Booth, Colomb, & Williams, 2003, p. 241). The researcher using a qualitative design exhausts all possibilities of data gathering resulting in a “prolonged time in the field” in order for the researcher to gain “an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon under study” enhancing “credibility to the narrative account” (Creswell, 2003, p. 196).

Creswell (2003) asserted “[i]ndividual researchers have freedom of choice. They are “free” to choose the methods, techniques, and procedures of research that best meet their needs and purpose” (p.12). Once a problem of interest is defined, a research design is selected by paying heed to the particular aspects of quantitative, qualitative, and mixed method design and the characteristics of each. For example, while the quantitative lens magnifies the development of knowledge using postpositivist claims, the qualitative lens enhances knowledge through a constructivist epistemological viewpoint. Further, quantitative research is designed to test concepts, hypotheses, and theories, while qualitative research is designed to inductively build concepts based on data collection through narratives, open-ended questions, observations, and interviews (Creswell, 2003).

“Concerns about validity and reliability are common to all forms of research” (Merriam, 1998, p. 212). The rigor and quality of a quantitative design is demonstrated

through statistical significance and the ability to prove or disprove predetermined hypotheses constructing newfound knowledge. Rigor in quantitative design can be identified in the presentation of data through tables, bar charts, and line graphs which enable a visual representation of data distinguishing the approach as distinctively quantitative (Booth et al., 2003). In addition this design offers professionals the ability to abbreviate the review of a study, and present the results of the study to others in a timely, aesthetically pleasing manner.

The implication of a quantitative research design requires an awareness of benefits and limitations of data collection and results reporting solely through an objective representation. Using a quantitative design, data can be collected from a sample population. This allows the researcher to generalize from a sample to a greater population in order for inferences to be made (Creswell, 2003). Reliable and substantial quantitative data collection requires the participation of others to complete and resubmit surveys in a timely fashion, not to mention the importance of answering questions truthfully. Nonetheless, administration of surveys and questionnaires yields results much quicker than data collection through a qualitative approach which requires time interviewing and observing, sifting through artifacts, transcription of conversations, and subsequent triangulation of data (Merriam, 1998).

Using statistical programs such as the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for Windows, version 18.0, requires knowledge of the computer based program, selection of appropriate statistic tests, survey result aggregation, and subsequent data entry. The analysis of the data allows the researcher to draw conclusions, and to pursue trends. An example would be the use of correlational analysis in which “variables, tightly

controlled through design or statistical analysis, provide measures...for testing a theory” (Creswell, 2003, p.153).

Rationale for Use of a Quantitative Design

Because the quantitative approach will provide the data necessary to prove or disprove the study hypotheses, and draw conclusions regarding the relationship among the independent and dependent variables, the quantitative approach has been determined as the most efficient means of data collection. The quantitative approach optimized the trending of survey responses and provided the opportunity to examine the leadership characteristics of the five baccalaureate degree nursing program department heads. In addition, the statistics demonstrate the relationships between the department heads’ leadership style and professional satisfaction and the effect on the organizational commitment of the faculty. The distinction of quantitative as opposed to qualitative research was highlighted by the use of postpositivist claims examining the cause and effect thinking (Creswell, 2003) among the identified independent and dependent variables. Utilizing quantitative data gathering methods allowed the researcher to stay distanced from the data, to maintain a methodological approach to reflexivity, to eliminate influences of unexpected variables (Coghlan & Brannick, 2005), and to legitimately assess relationships amongst the variables (Field, 2005).

Data Collection and Instrumentation

Instrumentation

There are numerous questionnaires and surveys designed to collect data on leadership style, specifically the *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire* (MLQ) (Bass & Avolio, 1997). However, the MLQ has received criticism by past researchers (Bessai,

1995; Carless, 1998; Tejada, Scandura, & Pillai, 2001; Tepper & Percy, 1994, Yukl, 2006) and lacks discriminant validity of some scales as they tend to measure the same behaviors (Avolio & Bass, 2004). In addition, the MLQ is costly to administer and lengthy to complete. For the aforementioned reasons, the researcher opted to develop a questionnaire specific to the research questions of this study.

Based on a comprehensive literature review of the main constructs of leadership, professional satisfaction, and organizational commitment, a Likert scale questionnaire, the Leadership Style, Organizational Commitment, and Professional Satisfaction Questionnaire (LSOCPS) (Appendix C) was designed. The validity of the questionnaire was established by cross-referencing generated statements to the literature (Appendix D) (Angle & Perry, 1981; Antonakis et al., 2003; Avolio, 1999; Avolio & Bass, 1988; Bass, 1985; Blau & Boal, 1989; Bogler, 2001; Burns, 1978; Chan & Chan, 2005; Chelte & Tausky, 1987; Conger & Kanungo, 1987; Dinham & Scott, 1998; Emery & Barker, 2007; Herzberg et al., 1959; Hoy et al., 1991; Kreis & Brockhoff, 1986; Kushman, 1992; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Neumann & Finaly-Neumann, 1990; Rinehart et al., 1998; Rylander, 2003). The survey was a validating quantitative data model (Creswell & Clark, 2007) designed to investigate the correlation among the independent variables, transformational and transactional leadership theory (questions 1-20), and the dependent variables, professional satisfaction (questions 21-28) and organizational commitment (questions 29-36).

The Likert scale format is a recommended format to measure attitudes or opinions in a quantitative format (Creswell, 2003). Rea and Parker (2005) postulated the Likert scale elicits scaled responses from the respondents in ordinal increments from highly

favorable to highly unfavorable. Wholey, Hatry, and Newcomer (2004) asserted no more than four or five major rating levels should be utilized. In order to avoid the middle value often labeled as “neutral” or “neither agree nor disagree”, the LSOCPs Questionnaire was designed using a four point Likert scale, or forced choice method, which requires respondents to decide whether they lean more towards the “agree” or “disagree” end of the scale for each item. Respondents in this study assessed their level of agreement to the statement by indicating a 1 for “agree”; a 2 indicating “tend to agree”, a 3 indicating “tend to disagree” and a 4 indicating “disagree”.

The LSOCPs Questionnaire was field tested and judged by a sample population to ensure the survey’s face and content validity (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003) and clarity. Modifications were made to the survey based on feedback from the sample population until the participants believed the information was clearly presented and the instrument was formatted appropriately (Fraenkel & Wallen). Reliability was established through a test-retest method (Field, 2005; Fraenkel & Wallen; Heppner & Heppner, 2004) which is the most commonly used indicator of survey instrument reliability (Litwin, 1995). The sample group for the test-retest process consisted of 12 registered nurses completing the survey on two separate occasions and a period of two weeks separating the survey completion. “In general, r values are considered good if they equal or exceeded 0.70” (Litwin, p. 8). The Pearson correlation for the separate administrations of the test was $r = 0.914$, demonstrating good test-retest reliability.

Paper-pencil format was chosen in order to obtain participant responses. Although, Shannon, Johnson, Searcy & Lott (2002) conjectured electronic surveys are efficient in data gathering as they can be disseminated to an unlimited number of respondents with

little or no cost, the researcher was aware that there are limitations in the use of online surveys. Though most faculty members have computer access, not all are comfortable with web survey methodology or may be fearful of accessing unfamiliar links (NLN, 2003). Self-selection bias is another limitation of online survey research. Furthermore, due to volume of online requests, participants may be desensitized to worthwhile survey requests (Wright, 2005). In addition, online surveys have greater potential for multiple responses by the same participant (Konstan, Rosser, Ross, Stanton, & Edwards, 2005). In an effort to control these limitations, permission was obtained from the department head to attend a nursing faculty meeting in which the study was explained, consent obtained, and the survey administered by the researcher. The nursing faculty meeting was determined to be the most appropriate method to obtain the feedback of the majority of the nursing faculty members as these monthly meetings are typically mandatory for full-time faculty members.

Data Analysis

Using transformational and transactional leadership theory, as well as organizational commitment and professional satisfaction factors, a 36-item Likert scale questionnaire with a 4-point ordinal scale (scored from 1 = *Agree* to 4 = *Disagree*) was developed by the researcher to investigate the correlation among the variables (Table 1).

Table 1

Selected Items of the Study

Transformational Leadership

- The superior encourages creative and innovative thinking (Bass, 1985)
- The superior sets a good example to follow (Bass, 1998)
- The superior demonstrates genuine interest in career progression (Bass, 1998)
- The superior encourages me to question the old ways of doing things (Emery & Barker, 2007)

Transactional Leadership

- The superior sets professional goals for subordinates and directs them on how to achieve the set goals (Bass, 1985; Chan & Chan, 2005)
- The superior does not hesitate to comment on mistakes and errors (Bass & Avolio, 1990)
- The superior engages in quid pro quo type transactions (Burns, 1978; Emery & Barker)
- The superior interferes with work if something goes wrong (Bass, 1985)

Professional Satisfaction

- The subordinate expresses satisfaction with current workload responsibility (Dinham & Scott, 1998; Herzberg et al., 1959)
- The subordinate is recognized for workplace achievements (Dinham & Scott; Herzberg et al.)
- The subordinate feels there is opportunity for professional advancement (Dinham & Scott; Herzberg et al.)
- The subordinate is asked for opinions in organizational decision making (Rinehart et al., 1998)

Organizational Commitment

- The subordinate is committed to the vision of the department (Neumann & Finaly-Neumann, 1990)
 - The subordinate cares about the fate of the department/college/university (Meyer & Allen, 1997)
 - The subordinate is actively involved in departmental, college, and/or university activities (Neumann & Finaly-Nuemann)
 - The subordinate has no intent to leave the organization (Rylander, 2003)
-

Statistical Analysis Plan

Data were analyzed through a quantitative procedure. The survey data were entered into Excel from the paper-pencil surveys, and headings were converted for loading into SPSS, version 18.0. Summary statistics, including the computation of mean,

mode, ranges, standard deviation, and frequency counts were performed. The level of significance for accepting or rejecting the null hypothesis for research was set at $\alpha = .05$.

For research questions one and two, a Kruskal-Wallis non-parametric one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was employed. The Kruskal-Wallis test was selected because of its ability to test the relationship among the independent variables with two or more levels and ordinal dependent variable data. Further, the Kruskal-Wallis test does not assume that the data are normally distributed (Field, 2005). Research question one compared the different ranks and tenure of nursing faculty on the dependent variable of job satisfaction, while research question two compared the different ranks and tenure of nursing faculty on the dependent variable organizational commitment. For research questions three and four, the Kruskal-Wallis and Pearson's correlation coefficient was conducted. A Pearson correlation, r , was utilized to evaluate the strength of the correlation and to look for significance for each of the leadership styles in relationship to organizational commitment and professional satisfaction (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003). For research question five, a Pearson correlation, r , was utilized to analyze the non-parametric data collected at the ordinal level of measure (Field). The test determined the relationship between the dependent variables, professional satisfaction and organizational commitment. The .05 level of confidence was used to determine the statistical significance.

Researcher's Biases and Assumptions

In a dissertation, "it is necessary to address how one's bias is dealt with in the research", because researchers "all enter research with a perspective drawn from [one's]... own unique experience" (Herr & Anderson, 2005, p. 60). If these biases are not

addressed, then these evolving perspectives become articulated in the dissertation itself (Herr & Anderson).

Six years of the researcher's 11 years of nursing experience were spent in direct nursing education. Several of these years were spent as an Assistant Professor in a baccalaureate nursing education program. The experiences as an educator led the researcher to witness the various leadership styles of a multitude of department heads, as well as the disgruntled attitudes and high attrition rates in the settings in which she taught. Furthermore, as a clinical nurse, the researcher witnessed first-hand the lack of leadership skills of nurses managing nursing units and leading organizations. As a result, the researcher became interested in evaluating and analyzing the leadership style of nursing leaders in educational and clinical settings.

The researcher is aware that prior experience in the baccalaureate nursing educational setting has created the potential for bias towards the relationship of leadership on faculty professional satisfaction and organizational commitment. Furthermore, the researcher acknowledges that prior lived experiences in the baccalaureate nursing education arena could interfere with objectivity (Cone & Foster, 2006). This lack of objectivity had the potential to create bias, or influence the researcher's perspective on the research process (Herr & Anderson, 2005). Consequently, this noted bias also could have affected the question construction or wording in the LSOCPs Questionnaire that was developed to measure the effect of leadership style on professional satisfaction and organizational commitment, thus affecting the validity of the survey.

To counteract the possible influences of the researcher's professional experience in the baccalaureate nursing education arena, attention to these biases were given throughout the literature review and research design process (Stone et al., 2000). The relationship of the study's conceptual underpinnings to findings within the literature led to the development of survey items based upon research and triangulation of data from the literature. To limit bias, questions were written objectively, did not lead the respondent, and were applicable to the participant completing the survey (Cone & Foster, 2006). Furthermore the field testing of the instrument minimized these bias. Therefore, the quantitative method of survey research was used as a means to control subjectivity of judgment (Creswell, 2003). Quantitative research attempts to eliminate "the researcher's theories beliefs, and perceptual 'lens'" (Maxwell, 2005, p. 108).

Summary

In Chapter Three, the research design and methodology for studying the impact of leadership style on nursing faculty's professional satisfaction and organizational commitment were described. The statement of the problem, research questions and hypothesis, and the population and samples for this quantitative study were also identified. Further, data instrumentation, collection, and analysis were detailed to assist in the understanding and implementation of the study. A presentation of the data analysis, accompanied by interpretation and research findings, will be presented in Chapter Four, while a discussion of the results, findings, and conclusions will be found in Chapter Five along with implications and recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

To say that transformational leadership behavior is predictive of positive individual outcomes is somewhat self-evident (Lowe et al., 1996). Unsurprisingly, “[p]revious research has shown that subordinates’ perceptions of transformational leadership add to the prediction of subordinates’ satisfaction...beyond that of perceptions of transactional leadership” (Hater & Bass, 1988, p. 695). However, research also indicates that transactional leadership is not necessarily ineffective or results in dissatisfied subordinates, but that it is generally less effective and less satisfying for followers than transformational leadership (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1990; Hater & Bass, 1988). Bass suggested that transformational and transactional leadership are complementary to one another and are more likely to be displayed by the same individuals in varied amounts and intensities.

The purpose of this study was to determine if there was a relationship between the leadership style of the nursing department head and the professional satisfaction and organizational commitment of the nursing faculty members. The researcher utilized a quantitative Likert scale survey to obtain the perceived leadership style and level of organizational commitment and professional satisfaction of the nursing faculty member. Through the survey, the overall leadership style of the respective department head was identified as transformational or transactional leadership.

Data Collection Methods

The research project was approved by the University of Missouri Institutional Review Board (IRB) before conducting data collection. The researcher took precaution to protect the anonymity and privacy of the participants. A cover letter explaining the purpose of the study, the risks and the benefits, and the voluntary nature of participation preempted the obtaining of consent from the participants. All data were numerically coded and accessible only by the researcher. All data were kept confidential. Results were reported by removing identifying information from the surveys. All completed surveys were collected by the researcher without any way to identify the participants, their department head, or their affiliated school of nursing. Neither surveys nor compiled results were shared with the respective nursing department head.

All data were entered into and analyzed with SPSS, version 18.0. Frequency distributions of all variables were checked for outliers, missing data, and entry errors. Normal distributions of the dependent and independent variables were assessed.

Participants and Setting

A sample size consisted of 52 full-time baccalaureate nursing faculty participants (n=52) with each identifying himself or herself as a professor, associate professor, assistant professor, or instructor. In addition, the participants also revealed their tenure status as having achieved tenure, not yet having achieved tenure, or as not applicable. The participants completed the Leadership Style, Organizational Commitment, and Professional Satisfaction Questionnaire (LSOCPS) (Appendix C) in their respective school setting via paper-pencil format. The nursing department head was not present while the faculty members completed the questionnaire.

Data Analysis

The researcher conducted a frequency analysis of the responses for transformational and transactional leadership. The majority (76.9 percent) of participants rated their department head as having a predominately transactional leadership style. While a minority (23.1 percent) of participants rated their department head as assuming a transformational leadership style (see Table 2). After analysis of the participant's responses, the researcher began to analyze the data based on each of the research questions.

Table 2

Frequency of leadership style response by participants

	Frequency	Percent
Transactional Leadership Style	40	76.9
Transformational Leadership Style	12	23.1
Total	52	100

Findings for Research Question One

The researcher utilized the research questions as a guiding lens for the analysis of the data. The first research question was:

RQ1: What is the relationship between professional satisfaction and the level or position or tenure of nursing faculty?

In response to this research question, the researcher analyzed the responses of the survey to determine if there was a relationship across the categories of nursing rank and professional satisfaction. A Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to assess professional satisfaction across the categories of nursing professionals rank (i.e., Instructor, Assistant, Associate, and Professor). No significant difference was found, $H(3) = 2.06, p > .05$ (see

Figure 1), thus indicating there was no relationship between professional satisfaction and the level or position of nursing faculty.

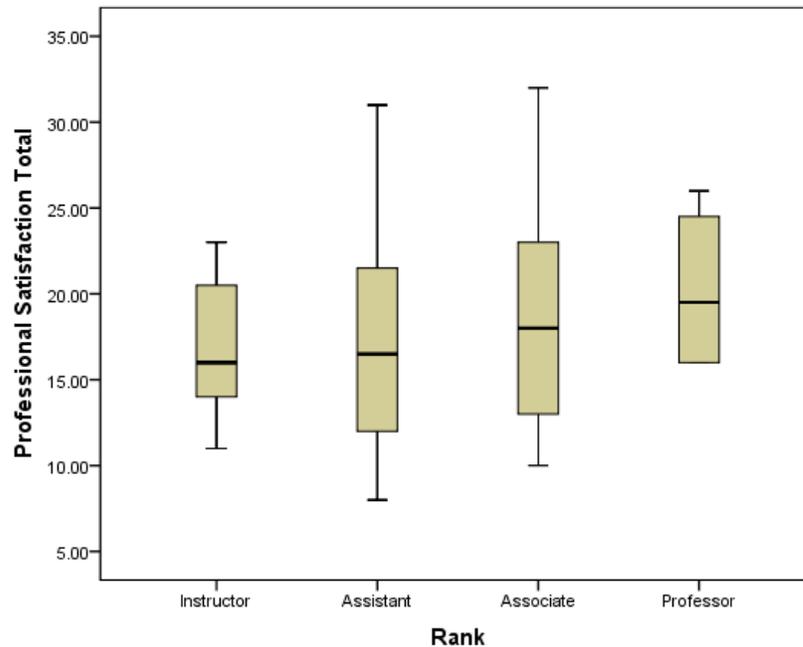


Figure 1. Relationship of professional satisfaction to nursing faculty rank

To further answer the research question, the responses of the survey were analyzed to determine if there was a relationship across the categories of nursing faculty tenure and professional satisfaction. A Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to assess professional satisfaction across the categories of nursing faculty tenure (i.e., yes, no, or not applicable). No significant difference was found, $H(2) = .07, p > .05$ (see Figure 2), thus indicating there was no relationship between professional satisfaction and the achievement of tenure or lack of tenure achievement by nursing faculty.

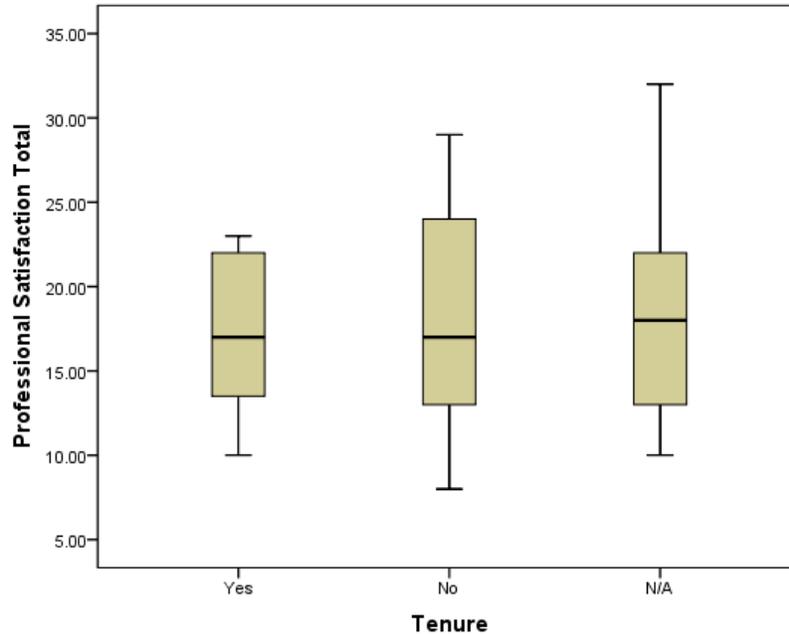


Figure 2. Relationship of professional satisfaction to nursing faculty tenure

Research Hypothesis Number One

The first hypothesis tested was hypothesis number one.

H₀₁: There is no difference in professional satisfaction by position level or tenure among nursing faculty.

Based on the analysis and the data presented in Figure 1 and Figure 2, the null hypothesis was retained by the researcher. The distribution of professional satisfaction is the same across categories of nursing faculty rank and tenure.

Findings for Research Question Two

The second research question was:

RQ2: What is the relationship between organizational commitment and the level or position or tenure of nursing faculty?

In response to this research question, the responses of the survey were analyzed to determine if there was a relationship across the categories of nursing rank and

organizational commitment. A Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to assess organizational commitment across the categories of nursing professionals rank (i.e., Instructor, Assistant, Associate, and Professor). No significant difference was found, $H(3) = 2.58, p > .05$ (see Figure 3), thus indicating there was no relationship between organizational commitment and the level or position of nursing faculty.

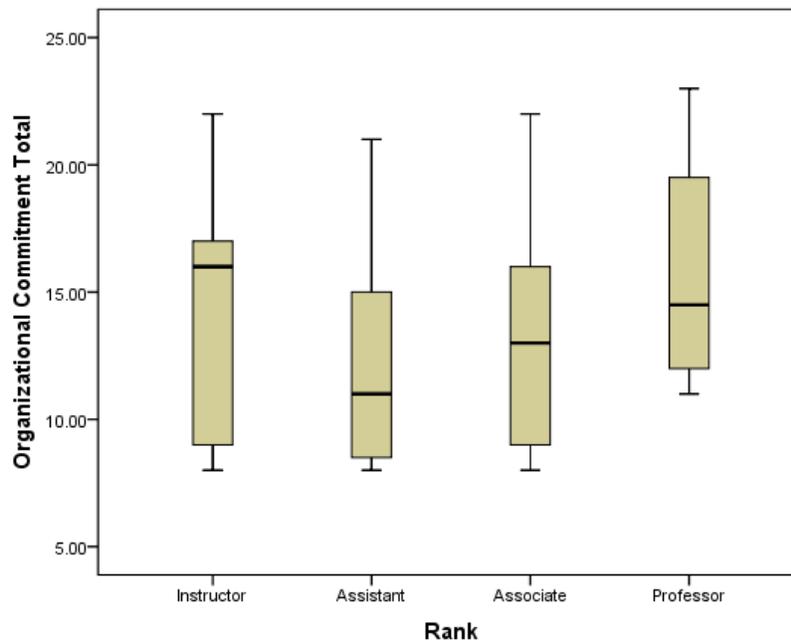


Figure 3. Relationship of organizational commitment to nursing faculty rank

To further answer the question, the researcher analyzed the responses of the survey to determine if there was a relationship across the categories of nursing faculty tenure and organizational commitment. A Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to assess organizational commitment across the categories of nursing professionals tenure (i.e., yes, no, or not applicable). No significant difference was found, $H(2) = 1.28, p > .05$ (see Figure 4), thus indicating there was no relationship between organizational commitment and the achievement of tenure or lack of tenure achievement by nursing faculty.

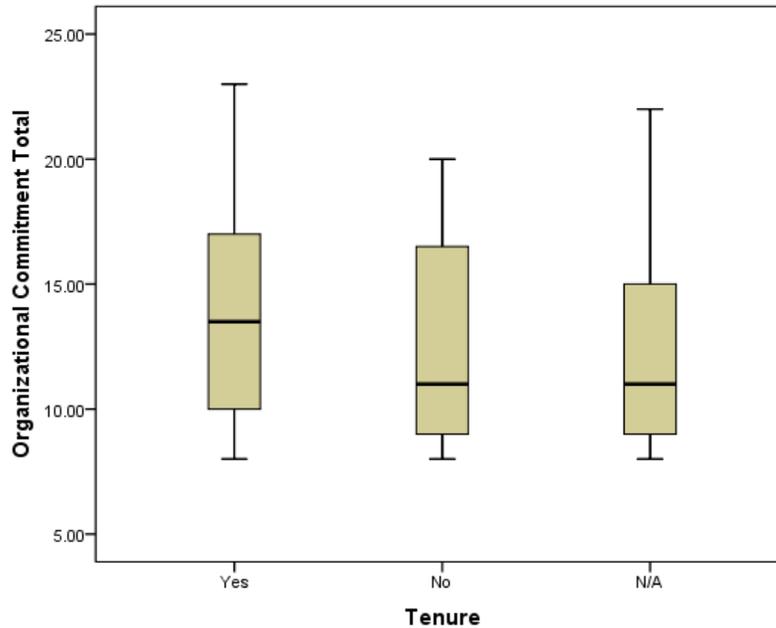


Figure 4. Relationship of organizational commitment to nursing faculty tenure

Research Hypothesis Number Two

The second hypothesis tested was hypothesis number two.

H₀2: There is no difference in organizational commitment level by position level or tenure among nursing faculty.

Based on the analysis and the data presented in Figure 3 and Figure 4, the null hypothesis was retained by the researcher. The distribution of organizational commitment is the same across categories of nursing faculty rank and tenure.

Findings for Research Question Three

The third research question was:

RQ3: What is the relationship between leadership style (transactional or transformational) of the nursing department head and nursing faculty professional satisfaction?

In response to this research question, the responses of the survey were analyzed to determine if there was a relationship between the leadership style of the department head

and the nursing faculty professional satisfaction. The majority (76.9%) of participants rated their supervisors as having a predominately transactional leadership style. To determine the relationship between leadership style and professional satisfaction a Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted. No significant difference was found, $H(1) = 2.16$, $p > .05$ (see Figure 5), thus indicating there was no relationship between the type of leadership style and professional satisfaction.

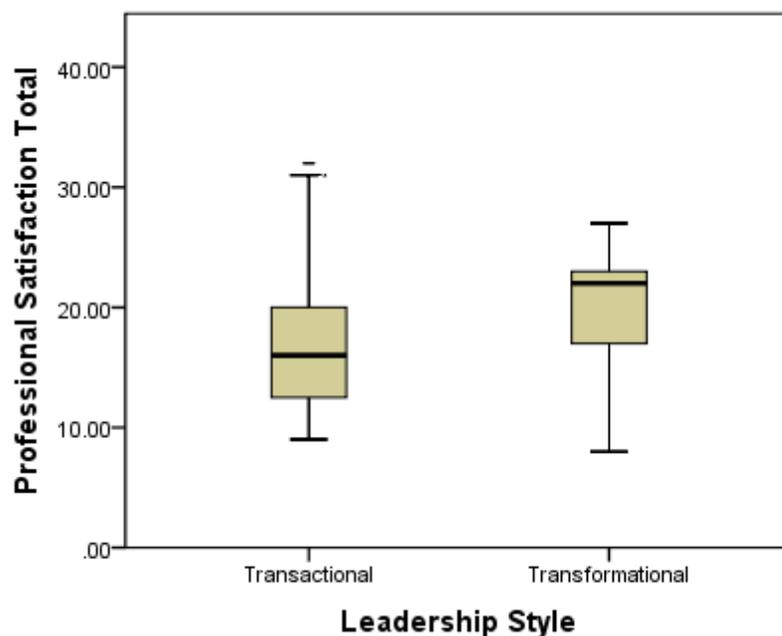


Figure 5. Relationship of leadership style to professional satisfaction

To further determine the relationship between professional satisfaction and the two leadership styles, transactional and transformational, a Pearson's r was conducted. The Pearson's r revealed a significant positive relationship between transformational leadership and professional satisfaction $r = .62$, $p < .001$. The Pearson's r revealed a significant negative relationship between transactional leadership and professional satisfaction $r = -.46$, $p < .05$ (see Table 3).

Table 3

Relationship between professional satisfaction and leadership style

	Transformational Leadership Total	Transactional Leadership Total	Professional Satisfaction Total
Transformational Leadership Total	1	.76**	.62**
Transactional Leadership Total		1	-.46*
Professional Satisfaction Total			1

**Correlation is significant at < 0.001. *Correlation is significant at = 0.001.

Research Hypothesis Number Three

The third hypothesis tested was hypothesis number three.

H₀₃: There is no relationship between the leadership style (transactional or transformational) of nursing department heads and professional satisfaction of nursing faculty.

Based on the analysis and the data presented in Figure 5 and Table 3, the null hypothesis was retained by the researcher. The distribution of nursing faculty professional satisfaction is the same across transformational and transactional leadership style.

Findings for Research Question Four

The fourth research question was:

RQ4: What is the relationship between leadership style (transactional or transformational) of the nursing department head and nursing faculty organizational commitment?

In response to this research question, the responses of the survey were analyzed to determine if there was a relationship between the leadership style of the department head

and the nursing faculty organizational commitment. To determine the relationship between leadership style and organizational commitment a Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted. No significant difference was found, $H(1) = 2.77, p > .05$ (see Figure 6), thus indicating there was no relationship between the type of leadership style and organizational commitment.

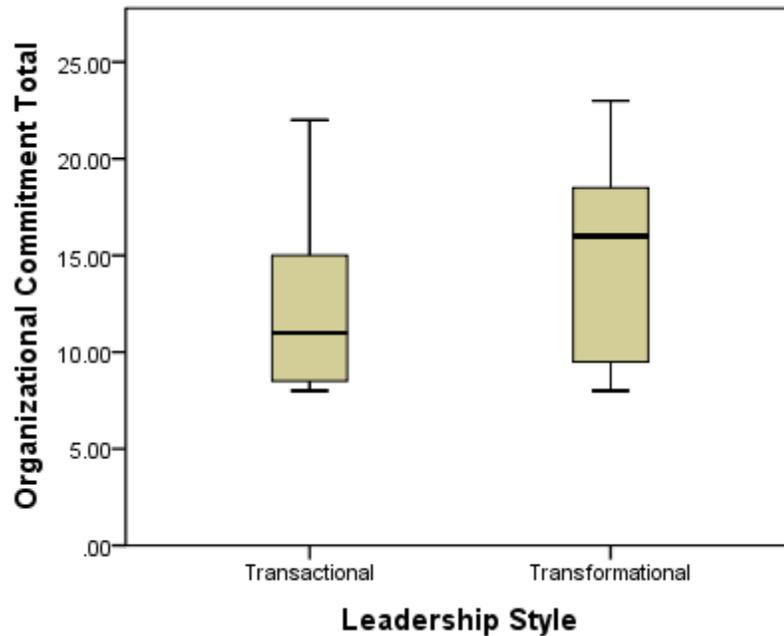


Figure 6. Relationship of leadership style to organizational commitment

To further determine the relationship between organizational commitment and the two styles of leadership, transactional and transformational, a Pearson's r was conducted. The Pearson's r revealed a significant positive relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment $r = .51, p < .001$. The Pearson's r revealed a significant negative relationship between transactional leadership and organizational commitment $r = -.54, p < .001$ (see Table 4).

Table 4

Relationship between organizational commitment and leadership style

	Transformational Leadership Total	Transactional Leadership Total	Organizational Commitment Total
Transformational Leadership Total	1	-0.76**	0.52**
Transactional Leadership Total		1	-0.54**
Organizational Commitment Total			1

**Correlation is significant at < 0.001 .

Research Hypothesis Number Four

The fourth hypothesis tested was hypothesis number four.

H₀₄: There is no relationship between the leadership style (transactional or transformational) of nursing department heads and the organizational commitment of nursing faculty.

Based on the analysis and the data presented in Figure 6 and Table 4, the null hypothesis was retained by the researcher. The distribution of nursing faculty organizational commitment was the same across transformational and transactional leadership style.

Findings for Research Question Five

The fifth research question was:

RQ5: What is the relationship between nursing faculty professional satisfaction and nursing faculty organizational commitment?

In response to this research question, the responses of the survey were analyzed to determine if there was a relationship between nursing faculty professional satisfaction and nursing faculty organizational commitment. To determine the relationship between organizational commitment and professional satisfaction a Pearson's r was conducted.

The Pearson's r revealed a significant relationship $r = .63, p < .001$ (see Table 5), thus revealing a relationship between organizational commitment and professional satisfaction.

Table 5

Relationship between organizational commitment and professional satisfaction

	Organizational Commitment Total	Professional Satisfaction Total
Organizational Commitment Total	1	.63**
Professional Satisfaction Total		1

** Correlation is significant at < 0.001 .

Research Hypothesis Number Five

The fifth hypothesis tested was hypothesis number five.

H₀₅: There is no relationship between the professional satisfaction and organizational commitment level of the nursing faculty member.

Based on the analysis and the data presented in Table 5, the null hypothesis was rejected by the researcher. Statistical analysis revealed there was a correlation between professional satisfaction and organizational commitment level of the nursing faculty member.

Summary

Analyses of the data collected from the LSOCPs Questionnaire provided an answer to the five proposed research questions. From the data analysis, it was concluded that there was a significant relationship among professional satisfaction and organizational commitment. Additionally, the findings indicated that transformational and transactional leadership style of the nursing department head was not related to the nursing faculty members' professional satisfaction or organizational commitment.

However, the correlational analysis revealed a negative relationship between

transactional leadership and professional satisfaction and organizational commitment, and a positive relationship between transformational leadership and professional satisfaction and organizational commitment. In Chapter Five, a discussion of the findings of the study with limitations and design control are included, as well as the implications for practice and recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER FIVE

FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

The researcher conducted a study investigating the relationship among professional satisfaction and organizational commitment in relationship to nursing department head leadership style. Baccalaureate nursing faculty members were asked to complete a Likert scale questionnaire which prompted answers related to professional satisfaction, organizational commitment, and their perception of their respective nursing department heads' leadership style. Provided in Chapter Five are the purpose of the study and the design and statistical procedures employed. In addition, findings and limitations are discussed, as well as the implications for practice and recommendations for further nursing research.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of the study was to evaluate various leadership styles of nursing department heads and the influence the leadership style had on nursing faculty member's professional satisfaction and organizational commitment. Also examined in the study was the relationship among faculty rank and tenure achievement to professional satisfaction and organizational commitment.

The review of literature highlighted the growing body of research investigating the impact of transformational and transactional leadership on followers within various organizations (Bensimon, 1993; Chan & Chan, 2005, Doherty & Danylchuk, 1996; Dvir et al., 2002; Emery & Barker, 2007; Stordeur et al., 2000). Yet this body of research revealed the paucity of attention that had been given to leadership styles within schools of

nursing and the impact the specific leadership style had on professional satisfaction and organizational commitment of nursing faculty members. In order to analyze the impact of transactional or transformational leadership on professional satisfaction and organizational commitment, in addition to the impact of tenure or faculty rank of commitment or satisfaction, the following research questions guided this study:

1. What is the relationship between professional satisfaction and the level of position or tenure of nursing faculty?
2. What is the relationship between organizational commitment and the level of position or tenure of nursing faculty?
3. What is the relationship between leadership style (transactional or transformational) of the nursing department head and nursing faculty professional satisfaction?
4. What is the relationship between leadership style (transactional or transformational) of the nursing department head and nursing faculty organizational commitment?
5. What is the relationship between nursing faculty professional satisfaction and nursing faculty organizational commitment?

In order to answer the aforementioned research questions, the following null hypotheses were evaluated:

Null Hypothesis 1 (H_01): There is no difference in professional satisfaction by position level or tenure among nursing faculty.

Null Hypothesis 2 (H_02): There is no difference in organizational commitment level by position level or tenure among nursing faculty.

Null Hypothesis 3 (H₀₃): There is no relationship between the leadership style (transactional or transformational) of nursing department heads and the professional satisfaction of nursing faculty.

Null Hypothesis 4 (H₀₄): There is no relationship between the leadership style (transactional or transformational) of nursing department heads and the organizational commitment of nursing faculty.

Null Hypothesis 5 (H₀₅): There is no relationship between the professional satisfaction and organizational commitment level of the nursing faculty member.

Design and Procedures

A wholly quantitative design was utilized in this study using data which supported the strength of the argument “particularly the soundness of its logic and the quality of its evidence” (Booth et al., 2003, p. 241). This current study was conducted in three chronological phases: (1) development of a survey instrument (questionnaire) by the investigator, (2) distribution of questionnaires to the five selected nursing programs, and (3) analysis of data. Phase 1 included conducting a synthesis of key literature in order to develop a valid questionnaire. Then using the test retest statistical procedure, the reliability of the instrument was established. Phase 2 included selecting five baccalaureate nursing programs in the Midwest and distributing the questionnaire, and Phase 3 involved quantitative data analysis of the questionnaire result.

The Leadership Style, Organizational Commitment, and Professional Satisfaction Questionnaire (LSOCPS) (Appendix C) was comprised of 36 Likert scale questions regarding perceived leadership style of their department head, organizational commitment, and professional satisfaction. The participants were asked to complete the

four point Likert scale indicating a 1 for “agree”; a 2 indicating “tend to agree”, a 3 indicating “tend to disagree” and a 4 indicating “disagree”. The paper-pencil survey took approximately 15 minutes to complete and the results were entered into Excel and headings were converted for loading into SPSS, version 18.0.

For research questions one and two, a Kruskal-Wallis non-parametric one-way analysis of variance was employed. The Kruskal-Wallis test was selected because of its ability to test the relationship among an independent variable with two or more levels and ordinal dependent variable data. Further, the Kruskal–Wallis test does not assume that the data are normally distributed (Field, 2005).

For research questions three and four, the Kruskal-Wallis and Pearson’s correlation coefficient were conducted. A Pearson correlation, r , was utilized to evaluate the strength of the correlation and to determine significance for each of the leadership styles in relationship to organizational commitment and professional satisfaction (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003).

For research question five, a Pearson correlation, r , was utilized to analyze the non-parametric data collected at the ordinal level of measure (Field). The test determined the correlational relationship among the dependent variables, professional satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Findings of the Study

Fifty-two full-time baccalaureate nursing faculty members from five different baccalaureate nursing programs in the Midwest participated in the study by voluntarily completing the 36-item Likert scale survey. From the data, it was concluded there was not a statistically significant relationship among leadership style, faculty rank, tenure, and

professional satisfaction. Furthermore, the data revealed there was not a statistically significant relationship among leadership style, faculty rank, tenure and organizational commitment.

The Pearson correlation revealed a significant correlation between the degree to which one exhibits transformational and transactional leadership style and the level of professional satisfaction and organizational commitment. These findings supported the belief that transformational leaders do have a positive influence on professional satisfaction and organizational commitment, while transactional leaders do have a negative impact on professional satisfaction and organizational commitment. However, the null hypotheses were retained based on the Kruskal-Wallis statistical analysis test which demonstrated no significant difference in the professional satisfaction and organizational commitment of nursing faculty members regardless if they perceived their leader as a transformational or transactional leader.

Finally, there was a significant correlation between organizational commitment and professional satisfaction. Based on these findings, it can be concluded that professional satisfaction influences organizational commitment, and vice versa. The discussion that follows will report the findings of this study in greater detail.

Discussion of the Findings

Finding 1

There was not a significant difference in professional satisfaction or organizational commitment by position level or tenure among baccalaureate nursing faculty. Past research has recognized professional satisfaction as a component of organizational commitment and research demonstrates that job satisfaction is a predictor

of organizational commitment (Kovach, 1977; Porter et al., 1974; Price, 1977). Furthermore, prior research indicated that personal traits such as age and tenure can predict the level of organizational commitment (Buchanan, 1974; Hall, 1977; Kushman, 1992; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Mowday et al., 1982; Steers, 1977). Additional research also supported the belief that organizational commitment is significantly linked to productivity, dedication, efficiency, and length of tenure (Angle & Perry, 1981; Blau & Boal, 1989; Chelte & Tausky, 1987; Hoy, Tartar & Kottkamp, 1991; Mowday et al., 1982). As age increases, tenure does as well, therefore tenure is argued to result in the link between age and commitment (Lincoln & Kalleberg, 1985; Williams & Hazar, 1986). Despite previous research findings, there was no association or difference in level of professional satisfaction and organizational commitment across the various ranks of faculty and tenure in this study.

Finding 2

There was not a significant relationship between the leadership style (transactional or transformational) of nursing department heads and the professional satisfaction of nursing faculty. Within the review of literature, research was discussed which identified transactional leadership as a predictor of professional satisfaction (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005; Wu, 2009). Additional literature which asserted transformational leadership ultimately enhanced professional satisfaction was also presented (Bass, 1998; Bogler, 2001; Maeroff, 1988; Medley & LaRochelle, 1995; Morrison et al., 1997, Nemanich & Keller, 2007; Rossmiller, 1992; Scandura & Williams, 2004). These research findings were not supported in this statistical analysis.

Finding 3

There was a significant relationship between the degree to which transformational leadership style was evident and the level of professional satisfaction. In addition, there was a significant negative relationship between the degree to which transactional leadership style was evident and the level of professional satisfaction as evidenced by the correlational analysis. As a result of this analysis, research (Bass, 1998; Bogler, 2001; Maeroff, 1988; Medley & LaRochelle, 1995; Morrison et al., 1997, Nemanich & Keller, 2007; Rossmiller, 1992; Scandura & Williams, 2004) regarding the influence of transformational leadership on professional satisfaction is supported, while other research (Chen et al., 2005, Epitropaki & Martin, 2005; Wu, 2009) regarding the influence of transactional leadership on professional satisfaction is not supported.

Finding 4

There was not a significant relationship between the leadership style (transactional or transformational) of nursing department heads and the organizational commitment level of nursing faculty. Within the review of literature, research was discussed which identified transformational leadership to correlate positively with commitment (Bass, 1998; Bycio et al., 1995). In addition, Koh et al. (1995) reiterated transformational and transactional leadership had an influence on the organizational commitment of teachers while Nguni et al. (2006) suggested “commitment to stay was affected by transactional leadership factors, albeit in a negative way” (p. 161). These research findings were not supported in this statistical analysis.

Finding 5

There was a significant relationship between the degree to which transformational leadership style is evident and the level of organizational commitment and a significant negative relationship between the degree to which transactional leadership style is evident and the level of organizational commitment as evidenced by the correlational analysis. As a result of this analysis, research (Bass, 1998; Bycio et al., 1995; Koh et al., 1995; Nguni et al., 2006) regarding the influence of transformational and transactional leadership on organizational commitment is supported.

Finding 6

There was a significant relationship between the professional satisfaction and organizational commitment level of the nursing faculty member. Past research demonstrated that professional satisfaction is a predictor of organizational commitment (Bogler, 2001; Hall et al., 1992; Kovach, 1977; Mathieu, 1991; Mowday et al., 1974; Ostroff, 1992; Porter et al, 1974; Price, 1977). The findings of this statistical analysis support this notion and convey the importance of understanding and giving “more attention to increasing teacher job satisfaction” as asserted by Heller et al. (1993, p. 75), because educational missions are dependent upon “the way teachers feel about their work and how satisfied they are with it (Bogler, 2001, p. 665).

Limitations and Assumptions

There are limitations or potential weaknesses involved with all research studies (Creswell, 2003; Heppner & Heppner, 2004). The limitations of this study consisted of sample size for the study, constraints of the leadership theory selected, perceived

leadership style of the department head who consented to the research, assessment instrument, methodology of the study, and the researchers' bias .

First, like many research studies, sample size was a limitation of this research. Geographically, the population of this study was limited to five baccalaureate nursing programs in the Midwest region of the United States.

Second, an abundance of leadership theories and definitions exist and a researcher may elect to use any one of them as the lens through which to study the research topic. This study purposely focused on transactional and transformational leadership theory. These two theories have been identified as the most popular theories for examining leadership (Yukl, 2006), inevitably limiting the research by the bounds of these two theories.

Third, the nursing department heads who gave consent for their faculty to participate in the study may have had self-awareness of their leadership style as transformational leadership. If only department heads who practice transformational leadership consented, this could have led to skewed data and decreased reliability.

Fourth, survey instruments have been found to be effective at describing the characteristics of a specific population (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003) as surveys "...are used to measure attitudes, opinions, or achievement..." (Wiersma, 2000, p. 157). Nonetheless, surveys also present inherent concerns. For the purpose of this study, the following limitations affiliated with the survey instrument were acknowledged:

1. The findings of the survey may be limited by the validity and reliability of the instrument utilized and created by the researcher (Fraenkel & Wallen).

2. The findings of this study were based on Likert style questions which do not allow participants to construct their own response, supplement with rationale the basis for their responses, or allow the researcher to probe for additional insight.
3. The findings of this study were based on a four point Likert scale. In order to avoid the middle value often labeled as “neutral” or “neither agree nor disagree”, the LSOCPS Questionnaire was designed using a four-point Likert scale, or forced choice method.

Fifth, the researchers’ bias on the subject at hand including prior experience in the baccalaureate nursing education setting may create the opportunity for bias towards the influence of leadership style on faculty professional satisfaction and organizational commitment. These prior lived experiences may have hindered objectivity or influence the researcher’s perspective on the research process (Herr & Anderson, 2005).

The underlying assumptions of the study consisted of acknowledging that (a) leadership behavior is based upon the interaction between the leader and follower and is modified according to the current situation; (b) participants based their responses upon their own experiences; and (c) responses were honest and the survey instrument was interpreted as intended.

Design Controls

In an attempt to eliminate the geographical limitation, five baccalaureate schools of nursing were selected to represent the sample population. The purposive sample was deemed appropriate as a means to obtain information from five respective baccalaureate

schools of nursing which reside in two different Midwestern states that adhere to different compliance measures as mandated by their respective State Board of Nursing.

In an effort to control the limitations that were bound by the constraints of the selected leadership theories, an extensive literature review was conducted to determine what leadership theories would be most applicable to nursing higher education. As a result of this review, the leadership theories identified became apparent as the most popular and widely applied theories to leadership (Yukl, 2006).

The survey was created by the researcher based on the literature in order to address the identified research questions. The survey was piloted to a sample of 12 registered nurses to “reveal ambiguities, poorly worded questions, questions that [were] not understood, and unclear choices” (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003, p. 404). Following the analysis of the survey, unclear questions were revised and again, administered to the 12 registered nurses, prior to administering to the purposive sample population. In order to ensure reliability, the research instrument developed by the researcher was tested and retested to achieve an approach alpha coefficient.

In order to encourage participation and prevent hesitancy on behalf of the respondents, the survey was administered in paper-pencil format in a face-to-face environment. Utilizing a paper-pencil format also protected the anonymity of the respondents eliminating the need to disclose email addresses as necessary with Internet surveys and altogether prevented the respondent from accessing an unfamiliar web link. The paper-pencil survey responses comprised of closed-ended questions were scrutinized as intensely as quantitative statistical analysis allows and subsequently valid conclusions were derived from the Likert scale survey.

In order to control the researchers' bias, the researcher paid careful attention throughout the literature review, research design process, and construction of the questionnaire used to gather data. Questions were written objectively and were applicable to the participant (Cone & Foster, 2006) and pertinent to the study outcomes.

Finally, requests for faculty participation were sent to eight department heads of programs of nursing in the Midwestern region. The first five programs of nursing to respond were selected to participate in the research. Using this selection process assisted with the limitation of only having department heads who perceive their style of leadership as transformational, participate.

Implications for Practice

The findings of this study have direct implications for department heads and faculty members in baccalaureate nursing education. Further, the findings reiterate the importance of formal leadership training and preparation in order to lead nursing education through turbulent times in higher education. Moreover, this study has the potential to apply to department heads, outside the arena of nursing, leading faculty in other academic areas.

An overwhelming percentage of respondents perceived the leadership style of the nursing department head as transactional leadership (76.9%). This indicates the lack of leadership training or awareness by the nursing leaders in this study. Nursing leaders have a significant impact in the delivery of high-quality education (Shieh et al., 2001), and are charged with leading nursing programs that are increasingly complex, yet require strong and innovative leadership. As previously mentioned, many administrators in higher education (Austin et al., 1997; Hecht, 2006; Ruben, 2006), generally, and nursing

education (Kenner et al., 2007; Pressler & Kenner, 2007; Ryan & Irvine, 1996), specifically have no formal leadership education or training.

Transformational leadership has been identified in the literature (Avolio et al., 1988; Seltzer & Bass, 1990; Siegrist, 1999; Wofford, Goodwin, & Whittington, 1998) as a predominant style for effective leaders because it empowers followers to move from mere compliance, to a strong commitment of the vision of the leader. The nursing department head is charged with motivating subordinates to move beyond what one originally believed possible through transformation, motivation, and encouragement, appealing to the faculty members' higher order needs (Bass, 1998). The overwhelming percentage of transactional leadership traits as perceived by nursing faculty implicates the dire need for nursing department heads to become more aware of their implemented leadership style, and perhaps for greater leadership training.

Because the study revealed the correlation among professional satisfaction and organizational commitment independent of leadership style, it is essential to garner a sense of understanding as to the professional satisfiers and dissatisfiers of nursing faculty. Research has proven that professional satisfaction and organizational commitment have an inverse relationship (Hellman, 1997; Meyer et al., 2002) as evidenced by a high level professional satisfaction with a low intent to leave an organization. This requires nursing leadership to gain more insight at a granular level to the professional satisfiers and dissatisfiers of nursing educators.

Cultivating an environment in education which promotes professional satisfaction is essential for the continual growth and sustenance of an organization specifically as nursing professionals attempt to “refocus [their] lens” to solve the faculty shortage issue

(Bellack, 2004, p. 244). As more and more novice faculty members transition to nursing education, there is a greater need for tenured and experienced faculty to proactively mentor and acculturate less experienced nursing faculty into the academic nursing environment (AACN, 2010).

Nursing department heads are burdened with numerous responsibilities including promoting the vision articulated by upper management (Buller, 2007), policy-making and analysis, program development and evaluation, faculty mentoring and advocacy, mediation between administration and faculty (Austin et al., 1997), strategic planning, mission development, salary decisions, and personnel management and training (Fagin, 1997). Faculty management may be one of the most, if not the most, important responsibility for the department head in order to deter employee attrition and to defy intellectual drain resulting from employee departure (Middlebrook, 1999).

Recommendations for Further Research

This study highlights the need for further research as evident in the recommendations below. First, further research should be done to evaluate the impact of gender on leadership style, and its impact on professional satisfaction and organizational commitment. Because this study did not include schools of nursing with male leaders, a potential research study could analyze male leaders in nursing to determine the differences between male and female leaders in nursing education and the impact of gender on professional satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Moreover, elaborating on this current study to directly explore the relationship between commitment and satisfaction of novice or newly hired nursing faculty members and their perceptions of leadership in comparison to tenured faculty members could

further the body of knowledge. Results of this proposed study could enhance mentorship and onboarding programs to retain novice nursing faculty members in nursing education.

Additional information on individual professional satisfiers and dissatisfiers in nursing education would supplement a study analyzing what factors contribute to organizational commitment and lead to professional satisfaction aside from nursing leadership. For example, the evaluation of specific satisfiers and dissatisfiers such as compensation packages, flexible work schedules, on-the-job recognition, university support, advancement opportunities, and research support among other factors should be evaluated (Middlebrook, 1999). In addition, examining the individual and employment characteristics of the nursing faculty may provide greater information on contributing factors of professional satisfaction and organizational commitment. If nursing leaders are able to understand individual and employment characteristics of retained nursing faculty, this may help in decreasing the attrition rate of qualified faculty while enhancing the recruitment and retention of nursing faculty.

To further enhance this research, further studies could “compare and contrast quantitative statistical results with qualitative findings or to validate or expand quantitative data” (Creswell & Clark, 2007, p. 62). Combining quantitative and qualitative methods to gain a better understanding of the findings is recommended “because each approach provides a different perspective on the topic” (Hammond, 2005, p. 241). Incorporating questions designed to elicit further information would supplement the quantitative data helping to validate the quantitative theories while the qualitative data provides rich insight of dialogue, discussion, and additional information not discovered in the survey (Heppner & Heppner, 2004; Merriam, 1998). The goal of a mixed method

approach is “to draw from the strengths and minimize the weaknesses of both in single research studies and across studies” (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 15) and “fit together the insights provided by qualitative and quantitative research into a workable solution” (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, p. 16). Qualitative data enriches and explains the quantitative results (Creswell & Clark, 2007), thus enhancing conclusions drawn in this study and in future studies of this nature. In addition to adding a qualitative component to the research to gain further insight on the statistical findings, a modified Likert scale, such as an eight point scale, would enhance the evaluation of transactional and transformational leadership on a continuum, thus allowing the respondents greater opportunity to score the requested variables.

Finally, further comparisons should be made between other schools of nursing in other states and in various levels of nursing programs (associate and graduate level) to continue to investigate how nursing leaders across the country lead and influence nursing faculty professional satisfaction and organizational commitment. In addition further research could also evaluate and compare nursing faculty who teach in a face-to-face format versus an online format.

Conclusions

From the data analysis, there are three significant conclusions that can be drawn. First, the leadership style of the department head did not demonstrate a direct relationship on professional satisfaction and organizational commitment. However, the greater the faculty member perceived the department head to be a transformational leader, the greater professional satisfaction and organizational commitment was positively influenced. In addition, the greater the faculty member perceived the department head to

be a transactional leader, the greater professional satisfaction and organizational commitment was negatively influenced. Using the Pearson correlation findings, research (Bass, 1998; Bogler, 2001; Maeroff, 1988; Medley & LaRochelle, 1995; Morrison et al., 1997, Nemanich & Keller, 2007; Rossmiller, 1992; Scandura & Williams, 2004) supports transformational leadership as a positive influencer to professional satisfaction. Moreover, the Pearson correlation findings which associated transformational leadership with stronger organizational commitment can be associated to past research (Bass, 1998; Bycio et al., 1995; Koh et al., 1995; Nguni et al., 2006).

Second, it can be concluded from this data set that nursing department heads predominantly employ a transactional leadership style. Because nursing leadership requires innovation and continual multitasking, it is imperative that the nursing department head employ a leadership style which influences follower performance and innovation, team cohesiveness, work unit effectiveness, organizational learning, and impacts organizational change such as that of transformational leadership (Boerner et al., 2007; Bommer et al., 2004; Lowe et al., 1996; Stashevsky and Koslowsky, 2006; Zagorsek et al., 2008). Although Bass (1985) relayed all leaders are transactional to some extent and Yukl (2006) asserted “effective leaders use a combination of both types of leadership” (p. 262), transactional leadership is not the recommended leadership practice to move nursing education forward as transactional leadership has been associated to poor attitudes and decreased work performance among followers (Avolio et al., 1988; Bass, 1985; Howell & Avolio, 1993; Kirby et al., 1992; Podsakoff et al., 1982). In addition, because the majority of nursing department heads were perceived as or are practicing transactional leadership, the Pearson correlation revealed that nursing faculty

members are less professionally satisfied and organizationally committed than their counterparts under transformational leadership.

Finally, it is apparent from this study and numerous studies preceding it, that there is a significant correlation between professional satisfaction and organizational commitment. Previous research demonstrated (Hall et al., 1992; Kovach, 1977; Ostroff, 1992; Mathieu, 1991; Porter et al., 1974; Price, 1977) that professional satisfaction is a significant predictor of organizational commitment. It can be suggested from this data set that it is essential to understand the professional satisfiers of nursing faculty in order to retain and attract qualified baccalaureate nursing faculty.

Summary

There are many challenges facing nursing education. The time to “refocus our lens” (Bellack, 2004, p. 244) to solve the nursing faculty shortage is imminent. Nursing schools are limited in the number of students that can be admitted to baccalaureate programs when there are insufficient numbers of faculty to teach (Rich & Nugent, 2010) and this situation appears unlikely to improve, as almost two-thirds of nursing faculty will reach retirement age by 2021 (NLN, 2006). The two shortages are irrevocably linked as the “deficit of educators is a key impediment to filling the growing demand for nurses generated by an aging population and a weak supply of new nursing graduates” (Allan & Aldebron, 2008, p. 286). It is imperative nursing research continues to investigate additional factors contributing to the nursing faculty shortage in order to propose strategies to ease the nursing faculty shortage.

The purpose of this research was to determine if there was a relationship between the leadership style of the nursing department head and the organizational commitment

and professional satisfaction of nursing faculty members. While professional satisfaction and organizational commitment was positively correlated, no other relationships were revealed; thus indicating that leadership style of the nursing department head did not influence professional satisfaction or organizational commitment of the nursing faculty member.

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Appendix A

Gatekeeper Permission to Conduct Study Request Letter

Dear Dr. <name>,

I am seeking your permission to collect data from the full-time undergraduate nursing faculty at <institution>.

The purpose of the study is to evaluate various leadership styles of nursing department heads and the influence of the leadership style on professional satisfaction and retention among baccalaureate nursing faculty. As you are well aware, the shortage of registered nurses practicing at the bedside, has resulted in the need for educational programs to increase the number of registered nursing graduates, however the nursing faculty shortage has limited student enrollments and has overall contributed to the decline in the number of nursing graduates (AACN, 2011). While many factors contribute to the attrition of nursing faculty, my hope is to learn and understand more about the role that leadership style has in retention of baccalaureate nursing faculty.

Data collection will consist of nursing faculty members completing a 36-item Likert scale survey. Prior to completing the survey, faculty members will be provided with information regarding the study. Faculty participation in this research is strictly voluntary. My approximation of completing this survey is 15 minutes. My intent is to administer the paper-pencil survey face-to-face with the nursing faculty after obtaining their informed consent. I will work with you on a date and time that works accordingly with your schedule and the nursing faculty schedule.

Should you have any further questions, please contact me at (913) 593-6282 or by email dariabyrne78@gmail.com. In addition, the contact information of my dissertation chair, Dr. Barbara N. Martin, is (816) 830-3904 or by email bmartin@ucmo.edu.

Thank you for your consideration of allowing the <institution> nursing faculty to participate. If you would permit me to use your nursing faculty as part of my study's sample population please sign this page and email back to me at dariabyrne78@gmail.com or fax to (913) 981-8383.

Sincerely,

Daria McConnell Byrne MSN, RN
Doctoral Candidate, University of Missouri-Columbia

Signature of Department Head: _____ Date: _____

Appendix B

Research Study Information Letter for Participants

Project Title: The Relationship of Leadership Style of the Department Head to Nursing Faculty Professional Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment

Identification of Researchers: This research is being conducted by Daria McConnell Byrne MSN, RN a doctoral student (Ed.D in Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis) at the University of Missouri-Columbia under the guidance of her dissertation chair, Dr. Barbara N. Martin.

Request for Participation: I am inviting you to participate in a study analyzing the influence of leadership style on retention of baccalaureate nursing faculty. It is up to you to determine if you would like to participate. You have the right to know what you will be asked to do so that you can decide whether or not to participate. Your participation is voluntary. If you decide not to participate, you will not be penalized. You can also decide to stop at any time without penalty. If you do not wish to answer any of the survey questions, you may leave them blank. You may withdraw your participation at the end of the study. If you wish to do this, please inform me prior to submitting your survey. Once you turn in the survey, we will not know which survey is yours as the survey is anonymous.

Purpose of the Study: The purpose of the study is to evaluate various leadership styles of nursing department heads and the influence of the leadership style on professional satisfaction and retention among baccalaureate nursing faculty.

Length of Study: This single phase study will take approximately 15 minutes to complete.

Exclusions: You must be at least 18 years of age to participate in the study. You must be a full-time faculty member within a baccalaureate nursing department/school.

Number of Study Participants: There will be approximately forty full-time baccalaureate nursing faculty in the study.

Description of Research Method: The research involves the completion of a survey in Likert scale format. The survey will consist of questions regarding your perceived professional satisfaction, organizational commitment, and perceived leadership style of your direct superior.

Confidentiality: All of the information we collect will be anonymous. Your identity and participation will remain confidential. We will not record your name, affiliated

university or school, or any information that could be used to identify you. The data will be presented in an aggregate manner and results will not be published by individual institution. You will have the opportunity to complete the survey in a private environment to ensure no other research participants view your answers.

Explanation of Risks: There are no known risks associated with this research.

Explanation of Benefits: There are no benefits to reap from your participation, other than knowing you were a research participant enabling analysis on a topic that is affecting a nationwide faculty shortage.

Alternate Options: There are no other alternatives to participate in this study without completing the survey. You have the option of not participating in this study, and will not be penalized for your decision.

Changes within the Study: You will be informed of any new information discovered during the course of this study that might influence your health, welfare, or willingness to be in this study.

Questions about Your Rights: You may contact the Campus Institutional Review Board if you have questions about your rights, concerns, complaints, or comments as a research participant.

You can contact the Campus Institutional Review Board directly by telephone or email to voice or solicit any concerns, questions, input, or complaints about the research study.

Campus Institutional Review Board

483 McReynolds Hall

Columbia, MO 65211

(573) 882-9585

E-Mail: umcresearchcirb@missouri.edu

Website: <http://www.research.missouri.edu/cirb/index.htm>

Contact for Questions, Concerns, or Complaints: Please contact Daria McConnell Byrne, investigator, or Dr. Barbara N. Martin, dissertation chair, if you have questions about the research. You may ask questions, voice concerns, or complaints as well. Additionally, once surveys have been returned, results will be compiled and analyzed for statistical significance and correlation. If you would like to know the results of the study, please email the investigator through the contact information

listed below. Please note that we cannot give you individual results as the data remains anonymous.

Daria McConnell Byrne

E-Mail: dariabyrne78@gmail.com

Phone: (913) 593-6282

If you would like to contact Dr. Barbara N. Martin, dissertation chair, please email, write, or call through the contact information listed below.

Dr. Barbara N. Martin

E-Mail: bmartin@ucmo.edu

Address:
University of Central Missouri
Lovinger 4105
Warrensburg, MO 64093

Phone: 660-543-8823

Appendix C

Leadership Style, Organizational Commitment, and Professional Satisfaction Questionnaire

Please indicate your faculty rank.

Professor Associate Professor Assistant Professor Instructor

If you are in a tenured position, have you achieved tenure?

Yes No Not Applicable

Please answer the following questions below based upon your lived experiences. The word “Superior” refers to the person you directly report to in the educational setting. Oftentimes, in nursing education, this person is the Department Chair or Dean of your respective program. The completion of this survey indicates your voluntary consent to participate in this research. Thank you for your participation.

		Agree	Tend to agree	Tend to disagree	Disagree
1	My superior motivates me to achieve goals I have set for myself.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	My superior doesn't like it when I question his/her views if I see things differently.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	I go the extra mile in this organization because I feel valued by my leader.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	My superior doesn't seem to care about me as a person.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	My superior encourages me to be creative and innovative in my thinking.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	My superior doesn't like it when I question the old way of doing things.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7	My superior expresses confidence in me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8	My superior defines my work goals.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9	I would describe my superior as 'charismatic'.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

		Agree	Tend to agree	Tend to disagree	Disagree
10	I would describe my superior as a “manager”, rather than a “leader”.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11	I would describe my superior as a good example to follow.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12	If my superior does a favor for me, he/she expects a favor in return.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13	I consider the rewards I receive from my supervisor for a job well done to be more internal (i.e. praise) instead of external (i.e. material rewards).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14	If I make an error, my superior is sure to mention the error and take corrective action.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15	I highly respect and trust my superior.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16	My superior interferes with my work if something goes wrong.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17	I consider my superior to be a mentor to me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18	My superior sets my professional goals for me and directs me on how to achieve them.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19	My superior likes for me to challenge the status quo.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20	My superior doesn't seem interested in my career progression.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21	I am content with my workload responsibility.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22	I am content with the opportunity for advancement in this organization	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
23	I am content with my current salary.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
24	I feel that I am recognized for my achievements.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

		Agree	Tend to agree	Tend to disagree	Disagree
25	I have professional autonomy in my current role.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
26	I feel empowered in my current role.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
27	When my superior makes decisions, he/she oftentimes asks my opinion.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
28	I would describe myself as 'just another worker' in my organization.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
29	I am committed to this organization because I want to be, not because I need to be.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
30	I am dedicated to this organization.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
31	I only stay in my current role because of my employee tenure.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
32	All in all, I am very satisfied with my current job and have no intent to leave.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
33	Knowing what I know now, if I had to decide all over again whether to take the job I now have, I would.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
34	I am committed to the vision of my department.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
35	I really care about the fate of my department/college/university.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
36	I am actively involved in departmental, college and/or university level activities.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Appendix D

Cross-Reference of Questionnaire to Constructs and Literature

Variable	Item	Reference
Transformational	1	Antonakis et al., 2003; Bass, 1998
Transactional	2	Avolio, 1999
Transformational	3	Bass, 1985
Transactional	4	Emery & Barker, 2007
Transformational	5	Bass, 1985
Transactional	6	Emery & Barker, 2007
Transformational	7	Bass, 1998
Transactional	8	Bass, 1998
Transformational	9	Conger & Kanungo, 1987
Transactional	10	Yukl, 2006
Transformational	11	Bass, 1998
Transactional	12	Burns, 1978; Emery & Barker, 2007
Transformational	13	Avolio & Bass, 1988
Transactional	14	Bass & Avolio, 1990
Transformational	15	Chan & Chan, 2005
Transactional	16	Bass, 1985
Transformational	17	Emery & Barker, 2007
Transactional	18	Bass, 1985; Chan & Chan, 2005
Transformational	19	Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978
Transactional	20	Bass, 1998
Professional Satisfaction	21	Dinham & Scott, 1998; Herzberg et al., 1959
	22	Dinham & Scott, 1998; Herzberg et al., 1959
	23	Bogler, 2001
	24	Dinham & Scott, 1998; Herzberg et al., 1959
	25	Kreis & Brockhoff, 1986
	26	Rinehart et al., 1998
	27	Dinham & Scott, 1998
	28	Dinham & Scott, 1998
Organizational Commitment	29	Meyer & Allen, 1997
	30	Angle & Perry, 1981; Blau & Boal, 1989; Chelte & Tausky,
	31	Kushman, 1992; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1997
	32	Rylander, 2003
	33	Rylander, 2003
	34	Neumann & Finaly-Neumann, 1990
	35	Meyer & Allen, 1997
	36	Neumann & Finaly-Neumann, 1990

Appendix E

Leadership Style Continuum for Survey Responses

	Agree	Tend to Agree	Tend to Disagree	Disagree
Transformational Leadership Questions 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 15, 17, 19	<div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; align-items: center;"> Transformational Leadership ←————→ Transactional Leadership </div>			
Transactional Leadership Questions 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 20	<div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; align-items: center;"> Transactional Leadership ←————→ Transformational Leadership </div>			

VITA

Daria McConnell Byrne was born in Shawnee Mission, Kansas on June 10, 1978, the daughter of Bob and Nancy McConnell. After obtaining her high school diploma from Shawnee Mission South High School, Overland Park, Kansas, in 1996, she entered the University of Central Missouri, receiving the degree of Bachelor of Science in Nursing in December, 2000. Following graduation, she worked as a Registered Nurse and entered The Graduate School in the Department of Nursing at the University of Central Missouri in August, 2001, receiving a Master's of Science degree in Nursing Education in May 2006. During her graduate education, she was inducted into the Sigma Theta Tau Honor Society of Nursing. Following her graduation, she began employment as an Assistant Professor of Nursing in the Department of Nursing at the University of Central Missouri where she published her first research article in *The Journal of Nursing Education*, 2008. Today, in addition to her full-time employment for a healthcare information technology company, Daria continues to work in nursing education, teaching graduate research, as well as consulting for a nursing education company who specializes in preparing practical and registered nursing students for national licensing examinations.