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RESEARCH ARTICLE

A STRATEGIC HUMAN RESOURCE APPROACH TO LEADING DIVERSIFIED TEAMS: A CASE STUDY OF THE U.S. MILITARY

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Abstract

Leadership is an essential—even defining—part of military institutions. Since modern militaries are firmly hierarchical organizations defined by regulations and expectations, the context intricately tends toward transactional leadership. Moreover, the modern American military sees little criticism or external oversight compared with the past, a circumstance that may lead to the development of deficient or even toxic leadership practices in a substantial minority of situations. On the other hand, the very notion of transformational leadership arose in part from observing the successes of charismatic military leaders such as General Eisenhower. The idea of transformational leadership has risen to the forefront of leadership research in business and the overall organizational context due to certain advantages concerning motivating and empowering followers. However, despite its military roots, it has rarely been applied to the military background in recent research. Transformational leadership has the potential to offer advantages in crucial areas such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and desire to stay. However, transactional leadership also provides some benefits. Therefore, this mixed-methods exploratory study seeks to explore the leadership styles that are present in the U.S. military today and their effect on the critical outcome variables of satisfaction, organizational commitment, and desire to stay among the military personnel. Given the high cost of turnover in a context as training-intensive as the military, these are essential outcomes with evident practical importance.

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Introduction:-

Chapter 1: Introduction

Background of the Problem

Leadership is a notion that is historically connected to the military. One of the early and longstanding theories of leadership was the so-called greatman theory, which “assume(s) that the capacity for leadership is inherent, that great leaders are born, not made. These theories often portray leaders as heroic, mythic and destined to rise to leadership when needed” (Amanchukwu, Stanley, & Ololube, 2015). This conception of leadership primarily grew from the notion of military leadership, which brings to mind those such as Alexander the Great, Hannibal Barca, Caesar, William T. Sherman, or General Eisenhower. In modern leadership parlance, the greatman theory of

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leadership has fallen out of favor, being replaced by less idealized notions of leadership that do not presume it to be the same sort of essential competency (Amanchukwu et al., 2015). There are many modern conceptions of leadership, such as ideological, pragmatic, authentic, ethical, spiritual, distributed, or integrative public leadership (Anderson & Sun, 2017). Of these myriad theories, that which has perhaps seen the most widespread use and most robust support, however, is the full-range leadership model (Anderson & Sun, 2017).

The full spectrum model conceptualizes leadership styles regarding how active a leader is, ranging from the passive-avoidant laissez-faire leader to the inspirational transformational leader (Jing & Avery, 2016). Moreover, while the greatman theory may have moved beyond serious consideration in modern parlance, it is hard to deny that there were specific inspirational characteristics to many successful military leaders throughout history (Bass, 1990). Indeed, General—and later President—Eisenhower was one of those whose leadership was used to develop the notion of the inspirational transformative leader, which falls on the most active end of the full-range model. According to the literature, transformational leadership has any number of benefits, from improving leader–follower relations (Bass, 1990) to improving follower engagement and satisfaction (Gonzales, 2016).

However, if the inspiring transformational leader represents the idealized notion of the great military leader, it would be difficult to argue that the standard conception of an army officer matches this same description. Instead, officers are characterized as generally authoritarian enforcers of regulations—disciplinarians who may often motivate their followers through reminders of rules and the penalties for failing to follow them (Reed, 2015). Some would go so far as to say that the military career system can, in this regard, be corruptive, punishing talent and rewarding blind followership (Fallows, 2016). This likely goes too far into criticism, but the point remains that the reality of military leadership tends to be, at best, transactional rather than transformational (Reed, 2015). Of course, transactional leadership has its advantages under certain circumstances (Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016), but these may not be enough to make it truly useful.

According to a 2015 private study in the U.S. Army, only about half of the officers considered their training to be relevant in teaching leadership experience, while fewer still exhibited awareness of any formalized leadership-improvement programs (Riley, Cavanaugh, Fallesen, & Jones, 2016). Moreover, the study suggested that junior officers often lacked leadership skill and the inclination to seek out mentorship or other ways of improving these skills. Transformational leadership can, under some circumstances, develop organically in the military (Bangari, 2014), but on the whole, one of the critical reasons that the greatman theory has fallen out of favor is the idea that leaders are born. Modern methods of leadership suggest that leaders are made, not born (Amanchukwu et al., 2015). Therefore, improving military leadership means understanding which type of leadership is most beneficial and then encouraging its growth.

Problem Statement

The problem is that current military leadership paradigms may lack relevance to the practical requirements of being an officer (Riley et al., 2016), especially with the often paradoxical and conflicting demands placed on military leadership today (Kark, Karazi-Presler, & Tubi, 2016). The specific problem is that poor leadership is at times fostered by the military system and can cause considerable harm (Reed, 2015). Transformational leadership has clear benefits in the military context, such as increasing job satisfaction (Gonzales, 2016) and organizational commitment (Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016). However, a transactional approach offers other benefits, such as potentially more significant effects on motivation (Zareen, Razzaq, & Mujtaba, 2015).

These factors, along with person–position fit, are some of the critical predictors of turnover intention for military cadets (Holtom, Smith, Lindsay, & Burton, 2014), making it essential to understand which of these leadership styles offers the most significant benefit. Therefore, the full-range leadership style model initially proposed by Bass (1990) provides a reliable lens for evaluating the relative advantages of different leadership styles (Anderson & Sun, 2017). Transformational leadership is closer to the traditional ideal of military leadership (Amanchukwu et al., 2015), but also only arises organically under relatively unique circumstances (Bangari, 2014). Further research is required to understand the effect of leadership style on active-duty military members (Gonzales, 2016). Such research should also explore the mechanisms that explain why leadership style has the impact it does on followers (Jing & Avery, 2016) and helps restore accountability in military leadership (Fallows, 2016).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this explanatory sequential mixed-methods study is to understand the influence of leadership style on military personnel satisfaction, organizational commitment, and desire to stay. A convenience sample of X military personnel at an army base in Southeastern United States and with at least one year of experience took surveys designed to measure leaders' leadership style, as well as their satisfaction, organizational commitment, and desire to stay. Statistical analysis using SPSS v24 was used to yield answers to the study's quantitative research questions. An interview protocol was developed using these results and a purposive sample of 8–12 military personnel was asked about their experiences with leadership. NVivo was used to manage the data and thematic analysis used to develop themes.

Nature of the Study**Methodology:-**

The methodology for the proposed study is mixed methods, which is to say that it combines components of both qualitative and quantitative approaches to research (Maxwell, Chmiel, & Rogers, 2015). A mixed-methods approach is ideal when there are reasons to desire both a qualitative and a quantitative approach because the phenomenon under study has aspects that can draw upon the advantages of each paradigm. Therefore, to argue why the mixed-methods method is appropriate for this study, a case for the value of both quantitative and qualitative components must be made (Maxwell et al., 2015).

The strength of the quantitative approach lies in its ability to analyze the relationships between variables through the application of statistical analyses (Neuman, 2002). Where the variables under study can be quantified and expressed in numerical terms, the quantitative approach offers powerful results, the ability to precisely determine sample and effect sizes, and reliable characterization of what, if any, relationship exists between variables (Neuman, 2002). All of this constitutes the quantitative approach to solving the first part of the problem this study seeks to address, which is that of understanding how leadership style affects several key organizational outcomes in the military. As the following instrumentation section demonstrates, each of these variables has been quantitatively operationalized in prior research, meaning they can be studied quantitatively. Therefore, there is a definite advantage to a quantitative approach to understanding the nature of these relationships.

While a quantitative study can determine the nature and strengths of such relationships, it falls short of being able to say why they are present. This is the strength of a qualitative approach (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). Whereas quantitative research focuses on numerical relationships and hard statistics, qualitative research probes into the subjective perceptions of participants, characterizing them in broad open-ended terms (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). Whereas quantitative analysis asks what the nature of a relationship is, qualitative research asks why that relationship is present and seeks to elicit descriptive data about the participants' perceptions of it. This makes a qualitative component of the study ideal for following up on the quantitative phase. Understanding the nature of the relationships between leadership style and military organizational outcomes is only half the puzzle; without understanding why the effects of transactional and transformational leadership may differ, incorrect conclusions may be drawn based on researchers' or readers' assumptions. On the other hand, a qualitative inquiry allows these issues to be included in the study as well, creating a more complete and therefore more useful picture of how leadership style affects military organizational outcomes.

Design.

The specific research design for the proposed study is a two-phase explanatory sequential study. Explanatory sequential models first explore a phenomenon through a quantitative analysis of the relationships between variables and then seek to obtain an explanation for the links that were uncovered using qualitative inquiry (Maxwell et al., 2015). In the present study, the quantitative phase served to determine the nature of the relationships between leadership style and several outcome variables in the military. The qualitative portion then served to explore why these relationships hold.

Thus, the first phase of the exploratory sequential design takes the form of a quantitative non-experimental cross-sectional correlational design (Johnson, 2001). This type of design draws on a large cross-sectional sample of the population to gain a broad understanding of the situation. Overall, a non-experimental correlational approach is appropriate when the researcher cannot feasibly and ethically manipulate the variables under study (Johnson, 2001). That is the case in this study, as experimentally managing the variables of leadership style in the military context would be both highly unfeasible and potentially unethical. Drawing on an experimental design instead of presenting

participants with hypothetical situations would produce weaker results in terms of authenticity as compared to measuring soldiers' reactions to real leaders. Therefore, a non-experimental correlational approach is appropriate and correlational data are still valuable. This is especially true in the case of an exploratory design, as the true nature of the not-necessarily-causal correlation can be explored descriptively. A cross-sectional approach is best because there are no relevant historical datasets and the study does not focus on the development of these relationships over time (Johnson, 2001).

The qualitative phase of the study then adopted a somewhat phenomenological approach to understanding these relationships. Phenomenology is ideal for exploring participants' lived experiences with a phenomenon and thereby revealing the nature of the shared experience (Moustakas, 1994). This phenomenological approach to inquiry is appropriate for understanding why soldiers react as they do to leadership styles because those reactions are, by definition, part of the soldiers' lived experiences. By analyzing these experiences, it should be possible to isolate the essence of why leadership affected them as it did. Additionally, by further analyzing the shared experiences within the two gendered subsamples, it should be possible to compare and contrast the essence of this experience for men and women to understand why it may differ if it does. Primarily, the phenomenological approach offers a powerfully descriptive venue through which to understand the reason leadership style affects soldiers as it does (Moustakas, 1994).

Population and sample.

The overall population of interest is U.S. Army soldiers with at least one year of experience in Southeastern United States. These are the only delimitations of the study population, although it should also include soldiers of both genders to ensure the ability to answer research questions four and six below. The choice of a geographic location is simply a convenience, as the researcher has better access to the population in Southeastern United States. The choice of soldiers with at least one year of experience is to ensure that those participating in the study represent soldiers who have had enough experience with military life and leadership to provide useful data regarding those experiences. This also helps to make the study representative of the general military population.

Sampling consisted of two phases. Firstly, in the quantitative phase, G*Power analysis suggests that achieving a statistical power of 80% with a medium effect size ($f^2 = 0.15$) and $p = 0.05$ for multiple linear regression models with four predictors would require a minimum sample of 85 participants. Therefore, this would be the minimum sample for the quantitative portion of the study. Sampling was carried out through one or more military bases, which the researcher had contacted in advance to request permission to conduct research through. Once approval was granted, the researcher provided the support with the surveys to distribute physically or virtually. The study also included a recruitment flyer for the following qualitative phase. For the qualitative phase, a preliminary sample of 8–12 was expected to be enough to achieve saturation (Mason, 2010). The participants were recruited from those responding to the recruitment flyer attached to the study, ensuring that they were drawn from the sample population and, therefore, could offer explanatory insight into the reasons for the quantitative results.

Sources of data.

Quantitative data collection was carried out using a survey instrument constructed by combining several existing tools. This consisted of five parts. Firstly, the survey contained necessary demographic information, especially gender. Secondly, items measuring leadership style were drawn from the most up-to-date version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) which measures various dimensions of leadership, including those included in the full-range model of leadership (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003). Thirdly, personal satisfaction was measured using the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), a quantitative survey that measures job satisfaction (Spector, 1985). Finally, turnover intention and organizational commitment were measured using items from the 15-item Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ; Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). All validity, therefore, comes from the preexisting validation of the survey instruments individually. The present study's combination of these existing instruments should allow it to inherit strong instrumental validity.

Qualitative data collection consists of qualitative semi-structured interviews (Turner, 2010). Semi-structured interviews are a traditional approach to collecting qualitative data, one that offers the researcher keen insight into the opinions and perceptions that the participants hold. The semi-structured interview is an excellent medium between structured and unstructured ones (Turner, 2010). This is because semi-structured interviews are still guided by an interview that consists of pre-prepared sample questions and topics to cover but also allows the researcher freedom to ask probing and follow-up questions or other kinds of additional items to elicit relevant data. The interview guide

was reviewed in advance by a panel of three experts in leadership to ensure its suitability. Interviews lasted roughly 30–60 minutes and were carried out in a private conference room or other secure locations on the soldier's base.

Significance of the Study

The proposed study has both academic and practical importance. Academically, the study helps to answer calls for further research made in the literature. Specifically, in a survey of Army Reserve Officer Training Corp (ROTC) members, Gonzales (2016) found that transformational leadership had a significant effect on the satisfaction of program members, whereas transactional leadership did not. However, these results were limited to ROTC members and the researcher called for further research into how these results might extend to active-duty officers.

Additionally, the researcher called for a better understanding of whether gender affects this perception (Gonzales, 2016). The traditional greatman theory attributed leadership qualities most readily to men, so it would be interesting to see if gender on the part of leaders or followers affects the effects of transformational or transactional leadership styles (Amanchukwu et al., 2015). Secondly, in their overall review of the literature on leadership style, Jing and Avery (2016) found that almost no research on leadership style attempted to explore why it affects employees the way it does. The proposed study answered this call for research by following up the initial quantitative survey with a critical qualitative component that sought to determine the reasons behind the results from the perspective of the participants.

Practically speaking, the study is critical because military leadership is lacking. Though arguing that the military has more good leaders than bad, Reed (2015) noted that, because of corrupt leaders, "All lieutenants were abused at some point or another and we took it in stride" (p. viii). Fallows (2016) argued that the effectiveness of leadership in the modern American military has been hurt by a lack of criticality and oversight that has resulted from the elevation of soldiers to an untouchable "heroic" status, which has prevented weak leaders from being adequately held accountable for their failures. Regardless of whether this is true, private army research suggests that there is a lack of practical leadership training for junior officers and that officers do not perceive their training as relevant to their actual leadership experiences (Riley et al., 2016). This suggests a need to improve leadership. Moreover, many of the characteristics linked to transformational or transactional leadership are also linked to cadet turnover in military academies (Holtom et al., 2014). In a volunteer army with a small portion of the population enrolling (Fallows, 2016), turnover must essentially be avoided and an improved understanding of the most effective leadership style(s) in the military can help to train officers to motivate their subordinates better and avoid a turnover.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Quantitative research questions.

RQ1: What relationship, if any, does leadership style as measured using the full-range leadership model have on military personnel satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention?

RQ2: What effect, if any, does gender have on the results of RQ1?

Qualitative research question.

RQ3: What is/are the mechanism(s) of the relationship(s) uncovered in the quantitative portion of the study?

Hypotheses. The following hypotheses were tested for the quantitative research questions:

H10: There no relationship between leadership styles as measured using the full-range leadership model and any of military personnel satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention.

H1a: There is a statistically significant relationship between leadership style as measured using the full-range leadership model and at least one of military personnel satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention.

H20: There is no significant relationship between military leaders' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and military personnel organizational commitment.

H2a: There is a significant relationship between military leaders' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and military personnel organizational commitment.

H30: There is no significant relationship between military leaders' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and military personnel turnover intention.

H3a: There is a significant relationship between military leaders' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and military personnel turnover intention.

H40: Gender has no significant mediating/moderating effect on the relationship between military leaders' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and military personnel satisfaction.

H4a: Gender has a significant mediating/moderating effect on the relationship between military leaders' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and military personnel satisfaction.

H50: Gender has no significant mediating/moderating effect on the relationship between military leaders' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and military personnel organizational commitment.

H5a: Gender has a significant mediating/moderating effect on the relationship between military leaders' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and military personnel organizational commitment.

H60: Gender has no significant mediating/moderating effect on the relationship between military leaders' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and military personnel turnover intention.

H6a: Gender has a significant mediating/moderating effect on the relationship between military leaders' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and military personnel turnover intention.

Brief Review of the Literature:-

To inform the study, a review of the literature was undertaken. The detailed results of this review are presented in Chapter 2 of the study, along with the specific literature search methodology. This section provides a simple, concise summary of the critical points uncovered in the review of the scholarly literature. It begins by illustrating some of the backgrounds of the problem, which then proceeds to demonstrate how the proposed study contributes to the current discussion. This is further supported by the development of the research gap that the study seeks to address.

Characteristic of the research area and problem.

The study of leadership has been arguably one of the most critical problems in human history. Long before it was studied in a formal, scholarly fashion, people had looked toward the great leaders of the past as examples to follow. Leadership style theories, in more recent years, have evolved to fill this need. Starting with the idea of the right or successful leader as a "great man" with an inborn talent for leadership (Amanchukwu et al., 2015), models and conceptions of leadership have evolved. The most prevalent model of leadership in modern parlance is probably the full-range model of leadership styles (Anderson & Sun, 2017). This model characterizes the style of leaders on a three-point continuum based on how active the style of leadership is. Inactive leaders are considered to be passive-avoidant or laissez-faire leaders, generally leaving all the work to their followers and engaging in very little active leading (Bass, 1990). In the middle of the continuum are the transactional leaders who are somewhat active; they characteristically motivate their followers through contractual rewards or transactions, hence the term (Anderson & Sun, 2017). Finally, the most productive type of leaders is called transformational leaders. Such leaders are charismatic and highly active, motivating their followers, challenging them, leading by example, and providing intellectual stimulation (Bass, 1990). Much modern research has sought to capitalize on the positive organizational outcomes that transformational leaders are often thought to inspire.

Leadership is an especially military problem because many famous and successful leaders have been generals or otherwise military figures. Moreover, the idea of the greatman theory of leadership, which dominated early scholarship on leadership, was derived from the concept of the army leader (Amanchukwu et al., 2015). Leadership is central in the military context because the military is a highly hierarchical organization. Leadership is therefore subdivided at many levels, from the high command down to the noncommissioned officers, meaning that a large portion of the military serves in some leadership capacity (Riley et al., 2016). Although military leadership has been characterized as mostly positive by both internal and external (Reed, 2015) sources, some questions remain. One author wrote that his experiences in the military were mainly characterized by good leadership: "All lieutenants

were abused at some point or another and we took it in stride” (Reed, 2015, p. viii). Other scholars have found that toxic leadership can be a problem in the military context, with significant detrimental effects on a broad variety of organizational outcomes along with group cohesion (Schmidt, 2014).

The contribution of the study to the literature.

Considering the dual contexts of leadership style theory—especially the full-range model of leadership styles, which is very widely applied (Anderson & Sun, 2017)—and military leadership theory, the proposed study contributes to the literature by lying at a confluence of two great bodies of literature. On the one hand, current military leadership is not given the level of scrutiny it requires (Fallows, 2016) and therefore represents an emerging area in the literature that needs development. Some studies (Gonzales, 2016) have looked at leadership style in this military context before, but they have been quite limited either in concept (e.g., Bangari, 2014) or in scope (Gonzales, 2016).

On the other side of the issue, the theory of leadership styles is quite mature in its application to different contexts. The full-range model of leadership style was developed for political leaders but has seen the more general use among managerial and business leaders, becoming a more universally applied notion of leadership style (Andersen, 2015). Transformational leadership has demonstrated clear benefits in these contexts (e.g., Amankwaa & Anku-Tsede, 2015) but not always above and beyond transactional (Zareen et al., 2015). Traditional military leadership is best characterized as transactional rather than transformational, with an emphasis on the formality and structure of the military as an organization. Therefore, it becomes natural to wonder which of these leadership approaches is more effective in military leadership. Answering this question serves to help construct the emerging military-leadership literature and enrich the already mature leadership-style literature.

Contribution to the context of the problem.

Based on the results mentioned above regarding leadership in the military, the current state of military leadership is likely not ideal. Results in the literature suggest that, in some cases, adopting a particular leadership style can be considered beneficial. For example, transformational leadership has, in some contexts, been tied to outcomes such as quality organizational culture (Ali, Jangga, Ismail, Kamal, & Ali, 2015), job performance (Almutairi, 2015), organizational commitment (Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016), and employee turnover (Amankwaa & Anku-Tsede, 2015). However, the other styles of leadership that include the full-range model of leadership have also been linked to organizational outcomes. Leadership styles, such as transactional leadership, may have more positive effects than transformational leadership on employee motivation. Even laissez-faire leadership style, which is often maligned, can have some positive benefits (Zareen et al., 2015).

Therefore, the proposed study has a practical contribution to the actual context of military leadership by helping to understand what kind of leadership is most successful in this context. As per the work of Notgrass (2014), followers often perform best when matched with leaders of the styles they prefer and successful leaders adopting a given style may sway followers’ preferred method of leadership. The techniques of leadership in the full-range model of leadership have all been shown to have potentially essential benefits in various contexts. However, the results in the military context are weak because they were limited to ROTC members who may not be representative of the military (Gonzales, 2016). Therefore, this study makes a useful contribution to improving leadership in the military by enhancing the understanding of leadership styles and their benefits, allowing military leaders to be encouraged to adopt more beneficial methods of leadership.

Similar and related studies.

Gonzales (2016) studied leadership styles in the military, specifically trying to understand the role of transformational and transactional leadership styles on program satisfaction for Army ROTC cadets, as well as the overall effects of these leadership styles. The study was quantitative, with 98 participants divided between leaders and followers. The results of a statistical analysis suggested that specific dimensions of transformational leadership were associated with increased satisfaction, whereas transactional leadership was not. The author called for further research that extends these results from the training ROTC context to an actual active-duty context, as well as research that considers the perceptions of subordinates about the leadership styles displayed by officers. The study also noted the rising number of women in the military and that this might influence the results.

Holtom et al. (2014) studied turnover in U.S. military cadets. Specifically, they were interested in understanding the factors that can serve to drive turnover in the military. The study was quantitative, drawing on a relatively large sample size of 643 first- and second-year cadets. Using a correlational design, the researchers considered some

psychological factors as being potentially predictive of turnover in cadets and, in the resulting statistical analyses, several of these factors emerged as statistically significant. These were job satisfaction, affective commitment, on-the-job embeddedness, and person–organization fit. Weighted tests revealed that person–organization fit had the most potent predictive effect statistically. Because leaders and leadership styles may influence organizational fit, the researchers argued that military leaders need to make an increased effort to ensure cadets feel a sense of fitting in.

Swid (2014) was interested in understanding how the police—considered a military context in the study’s setting—perceive leadership style from higher-ranking police officers and how these perceptions influence organizational function. The research was quantitative and was carried out using a sample of 154 police members in two Middle Eastern countries. The specific variables measured by the study included transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership as the independent variables and the subordinates’ satisfaction with their leader and organizational commitment as the dependent variables. Data were analyzed statistically and the results suggested that some dimensions of both transformational and transactional leadership predicted follower satisfaction, whereas laissez-faire leadership was negatively correlated with satisfaction with leadership. Both transformational and transactional leadership were also positively associated with organizational commitment, but transformational leadership was more so. The results suggest a need to more fully understand the effects of leadership style in different contexts, especially a broader selection of military settings.

Gap in the literature.

Based on the studies as mentioned above, the specific gap that this study seeks to bridge is a lack of sufficient research on leadership style and its effects in the military context. Although this has been studied in the past, it did not include active-duty military members, only those in the ROTC (Gonzales, 2016) or in foreign semi-military organizations such as Middle Eastern police forces (Swid, 2014). Further causing this gap is the fact that modern America tends to put the military on a pedestal, meaning that it is rarely viewed with a critical eye (Fallows, 2016). This has not wholly prevented academic interest, but in general, it means that military leadership has not been studied critically with an eye toward improvement as often as leadership in other contexts such as business or politics. Therefore, the study also contributes to this broader dearth of research that seeks to assess the leadership practices in the modern American military critically. Finally, gender percentages in the military have been shifting in recent years (Gonzales, 2016) and research (Paustian-Underdahl, Walker, & Woehr, 2014) suggests that gender can be essential in understanding both perceptions and effects of leadership.

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework of the study represents a theoretical model of the possible results of the investigation. The model has three key components, each of which is attached to a specific body of literature. Firstly, the driving factor in the hypothesized relationships is leadership style. As per the full-range model of leadership (Amankwaa et al., 2015), leadership style takes one of three forms: transformational, transactional, or laissez-faire. The second relevant factor is the outcome variables. As a group, they are organizational outcomes for the military. These outcome variables include military personnel satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. The final factor is gender. Gender fits into the conceptual model as a potential moderator for the hypothesized effects of leadership style on organizational outcomes.

Framework.

The framework therefore resolves into a series of nine possible relationships, one between each style of leadership and each organizational outcome. Only some of these potential relationships have been accounted for in the literature already. Prior research has mostly associated positive results with transformational leadership; employee satisfaction (Gonzalez, 2016), organizational commitment (Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016), and employee turnover (Amankwaa & Anku-Tsedee, 2015) have all been positively related to transformational leadership. However, transactional leadership also has its advantages under certain circumstances (Zareen et al., 2015). Moreover, expanding the model to include all three styles of leadership creates a much more complete potential model of the predictors and a better way of comparing the results of different leadership styles. Even if, for instance, transformational and transactional leadership both drive up the organizational commitment, this does not mean that the magnitude of these correlations is the same (Figure 1).

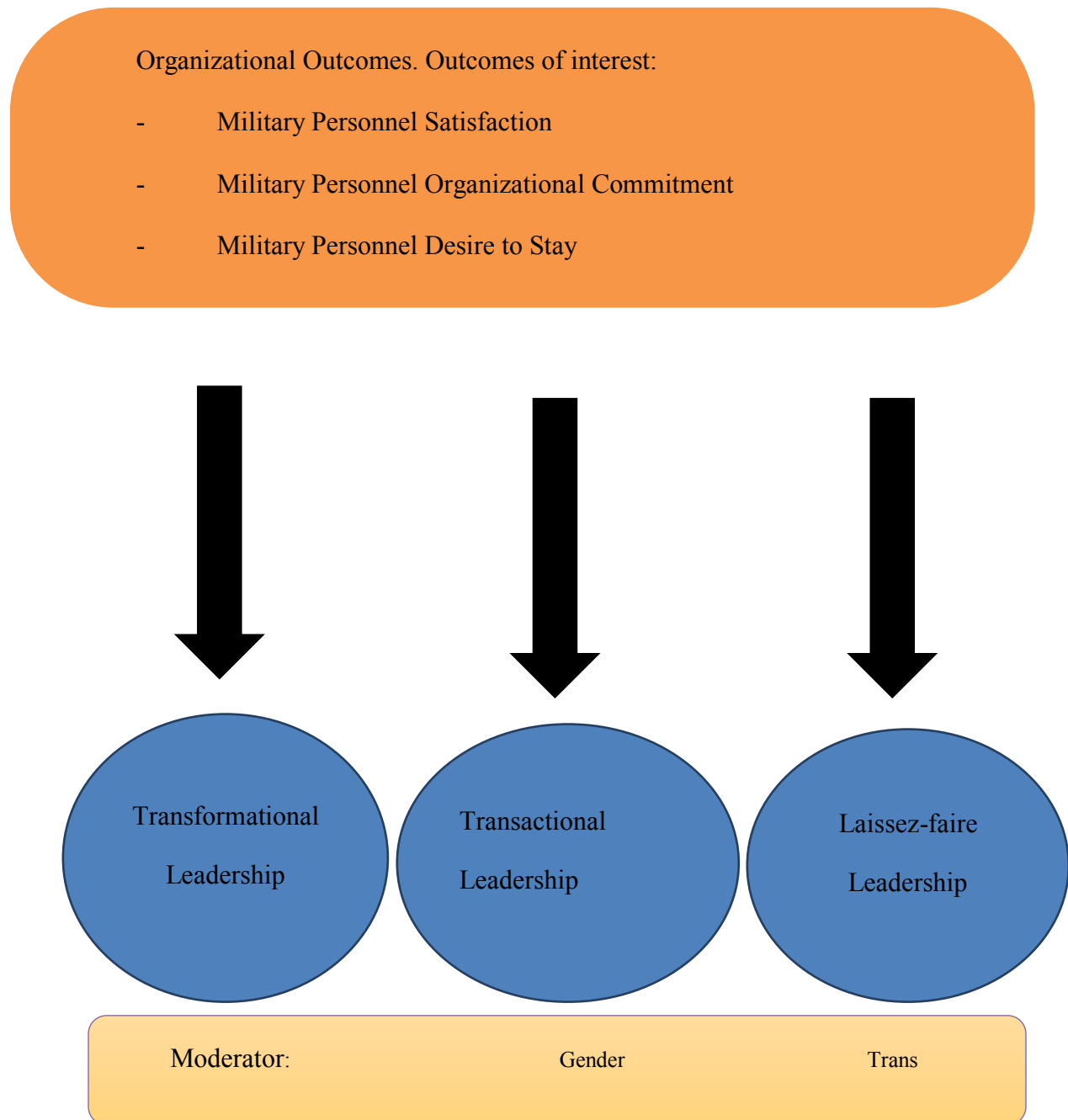


Figure 1:- Conceptual Framework of Leadership Types and Organizational Outcomes on the Military

Gender-wise, several studies have demonstrated the effects of gender on leadership and the perception thereof. For example, a study by Lopez and Ensari (2014) found that, when controlling for other factors, a perceived mismatch between gender and leadership style (e.g., a woman adopting an authoritarian leadership style) made it significantly more likely for the leader to be blamed for a failure to achieve desired organizational outcomes. On the other hand, Paustian-Underdahl et al. (2014) found in an extensive review of the literature that men are more likely to self-assess themselves as good leaders, while women are instead more likely to be perceived by others as having superior leadership skills. Furthermore, Brandt and Edinger (2015) found that women are more predisposed to transformational leadership than men and also that personality types and traits have a different effect on leadership style for men and women. Thus, including gender as a moderator seems justified.

Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations

Assumptions.

Several assumptions were necessary for this study. The first is that both the quantitative and qualitative approaches can provide meaningful data about the phenomenon of military leadership style. The widespread use of both research paradigms supports this assumption. A second assumption is that participants answered all survey and interview questions truthfully, an assumption that was aided by the assurance of anonymity for the quantitative phase and confidentiality of the qualitative phase. The study also assumes that soldiers in Southeastern United States have meaningful insights to offer into the importance and role of leadership style in the U.S. military. Moreover, the study assumes that leadership style has some significance, although the hypotheses explicitly test this assumption.

Additionally, the study assumes that the full-range model of leadership styles can provide a meaningful and relatively comprehensive model of leadership style for the study. Although the full-range mode is not exhaustive and does not include every potential aspect of leadership style, its use is supported by a significant body of literature. It also provides a more comprehensive model of leadership than obtained by only exploring transformational or transactional ones.

Limitations.

The first limitation of the study is that, due to its scope, it can only be generalized to a specific geographic region and the U.S. soldiers there. Furthermore, because the quantitative component is correlational rather than experimental, the study cannot establish causality in its relationships. The qualitative part helps with this but is limited by having a smaller and more limited sample than the quantitative portion for practicality. Furthermore, the qualitative data only represent the participants' perceptions of the reasons and, therefore, may not capture the actual causes or may not include all reasons if some of these are not consciously acknowledged. The study is also limited by self-reported data and the followers' perceptions of the leadership style exhibited by their officers. Because leadership style is defined in subjective terms—especially the dimensions of transformational leadership—this limitation is unavoidable. Another potential limitation is that military expectations of leadership and desire to characterize the military positively (a kind of collective social desirability bias) may influence soldiers' depictions of officer leadership. However, this limitation is difficult to avoid given the intention of the study to focus explicitly on the military context.

Delimitations.

The study is delimited to Southeastern United States for reasons of convenience and accessibility. In practice, it was bound to at most one or two bases due to the same constraints of practicality. The study is also delimited to soldiers with at least one year of service to help ensure that the participants have relevant experience. The study is also bound to the full-range model of leadership's divisions of leadership style because this classification is the most widely used in the new organizational leadership and one with specific relevance to the military given the associations of transformational leadership and successful military leadership in the context of historical figures. The organizational outcome variables chosen are also a delimitation of the study, one selected by the conceptual framework as a review of the literature ties each of these specific outcomes to transformational leadership in other contexts. These are all outcomes with existing validated instrumentation to measure them for the quantitative part.

Definition of Terms

Full-range model of leadership.

This model of leadership characterizes leaders into three stylistic categories of laissez-faire leadership, transactional leadership, and transformational leadership (Anderson & Sun, 2017).

Laissez-faire leadership.

This is one of the styles of leadership included in the full-range model of leadership styles. Laissez-faire or passive-avoidant leaders are those who demonstrate the lowest level of active leadership, wherein leaders do very little to show actual leadership qualities, leaving their followers to their own devices in most ways (Bass, 1990).

Transactional leadership.

This is a style of leadership that is part of the full-range model of leadership style. Transactional leaders are somewhat active; they characteristically motivate their followers through contractual rewards or transactions, hence the term (Anderson & Sun, 2017).

Transformational leadership.

This style of leadership is the most active type of leadership in the full-range model; transformational leaders are charismatic and highly enthusiastic, motivating their followers, challenging them, leading by example, and providing intellectual stimulation (Bass, 1990).

Conclusion:-

To summarize, the purpose of this explanatory sequential mixed-methods study is to understand the influence of leadership style on military personnel satisfaction, organizational commitment, and desire to stay. To serve this purpose, the study was carried out in two phases. First, a convenience sample of 85 military personnel at an army base in Southeastern United States and with at least 1-year experience took surveys designed to measure leaders' leadership style, as well as their satisfaction, organizational commitment, and desire to stay. Then, once the data from the first stage were analyzed to determine the nature of the relationship(s), an interview protocol was developed using these results and a purposive sample of 8–12 military personnel was asked about their experiences with leadership. These qualitative data were analyzed through thematic analysis.

This chapter included an outline of this study, the background of the problem, and research questions. An in-depth review of the literature follows in Chapter 2, which expounds upon the development and significance of the study and its literature. Chapter 3 includes a discussion on the methodology of the data collection. Chapter 4 presents the results and analysis of the study. Finally, Chapter 5 reveals comments on the survey combined with suggestions for future studies stemming from this research effort.

Chapter 2: Literature Review:-**Historical Development of the Topic****Introduction.**

As leaders in the military fundamentally affect how well it can achieve its mission, understanding the evolution and current theories on leadership is a critical step in improving the military. Leadership has been a topic discussed by intellectuals for millennia, with some prominent literature, such as *The Art of War* and *The Bhagavad Gita*, dating back to before 300 BC (Gurd & Hoi Hee, 2010). The necessity of an active and functioning military to a civilization's survival and the incredible exploits of leaders of some of the most impactful cultures meant that leadership has often been very strongly connected to the military. Though the first written commentary on leadership can generally be summarized as either discussion on strategy or considerations on behavior, the beginning of the modern era of examining leadership glorified the heroic aspect of past military leaders as the prime example of leadership (Gurd & Hoi Hee, 2010; Busse, 2014; Jenkins, 1945). However, over the last two centuries or so, the onset of the industrial revolution ushered in competing ideologies with popular perception vacillating between individualist leadership versus system-based leadership (Bryman, 2011). In this chapter, the history of leadership and its most prominent theories are explored in detail.

Understanding the historical development of leadership requires understanding the definition of leadership itself. Literature provides no set description for leadership and instead over 1,400 separate definitions that are usually tied to a situation or application (Phillips, 2014; Volckmann, 2012). For example, leadership has been defined as taking people to new places (Summerfield, 2014), the process of influencing an organized group toward a common goal (Rauch & Behling, 1984; Silva, 2016), and, among others, the "...interpersonal influence, exercised in a situation, and directed, through the communication process, toward the attainment of a specified goal or goals" (Tannenbaum, Weschler, & Massarik, 1961, p. 95–101). The lack of a clear and concise definition for leadership has resulted in strong fragmentation and inconsistencies in published work concerning the topic but has not dampened enthusiasm for publication on the subject. The ambiguity in definition has led some to argue that a delineation between management and leadership should be made as many interpretations conflate the two (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Kouzes & Posner, 1987; Yukl, 2002).

Definition of leadership.

For millennia, leadership was presented by its set of practices or goals (McCleskey, 2014; Silva, 2016; Spector, 2015). Ancient Chinese and Greek philosophers focused their commentary on leadership on personality traits such as kindness and wisdom (Confucius, 1998; Takala, 1998). For example, Confucius charged leaders with not being virtuous and considerate of the less fortunate around them and posited that the role of a leader was to care for those less fortunate (Confucius, 1998). Plato asserted that leaders should be wise based on his admiration for his teachers

(Takala, 1998) and proposed reason, desires, and spirit as three forms of leadership (Ronald, 2014). In the 16th century, Machiavelli determined that leaders have the support of the people in addition to the trait of intelligence (Machiavelli, 1992). More specifically, he emphasized the rule of law and force, where a fundamental underpinning of morals is less critical to leadership than achieving the desired outcome (Ronald, 2014). Wisdom, kindness, virtuosity, and intelligence maintain a secure connection to Western ideals of leadership due to the impact of these philosophers on Western thought (Meuser et al., 2016). It was not until the 19th century that the perception for leadership began to shift from an innate ability that should be complemented by other traits to the common understanding that leadership can be learned.

Ancient military leadership.

Leadership, as it pertains to management only, has a written history that dates back to over 200 years ago. However, the concept of leadership, especially as it relates to the military, dates to the beginning of recorded history as military and other conquests were recorded either in writing or orally by civilizations (Gurd & Hoi Hee, 2010). Conquerors such as Alexander the Great, Attila the Hun, Julius Caesar, Ramses the Pharaoh, and King Solomon are but some of the leaders whose impact is still felt in modern times. What is also critical regarding ancient leaders is that their accomplishments are almost exclusively attributed to their direct actions, regardless of whether it is historically accurate. The passage of time has seemingly increased the impact of these leaders who are a significant contributor to the great man theory and the popular perception of a leader (Bryman, 2011).

With specific regard to ancient texts, the victors of battles could control how they were perceived (Norwood et al., 2016). This is critical in understanding the evolution of not only leadership itself but leadership specifically in the military. The ancient development of a leader was, at least in records, almost exclusively connected to someone in the military due to the constant battles being undertaken in ancient civilizations (Gurd & Hoi Hee, 2010). Indeed, in ancient times, military leadership was necessary for survival as the lack of military might, leadership, or other resources often resulted in the annihilation of civilizations (Neill, 1998). Classical writings reflect this sentiment, as even in modern times, though not all leaders are military, most world leaders of consequence maintain the ability to project military force.

Some of the earliest classical writings concerning military and head of state leadership are Kautilya's *The Arthashastra* and Sun Tzu's *The Art of War*, both written before 300 BC (Gurd & Hoi Hee, 2010; Jain & Mukherji, 2009). *The Arthashastra* is an extensive collection of Kautilya's personal experiences and a treatise on how a leader, or king, should conduct himself, ensure law and order, and engage force for protection, among other things. Kautilya (350–275 BCE) describes ideal leadership and a perfect leader in his book as being a combination of self-purification and value-based ethical considerations, with task-based skill training (Jain & Mukherji, 2009).

Kautilya's perspective of leadership bears similarity to the offshoot of the great man theory, which is trait theory. Trait theory is based on the premise that great leaders are born with specific qualities and attributes that make them pre-disposed to great leadership. It dominated popular leadership theory from the nineteenth to the mid-20th century. Kautilya takes a multi-dimensional approach with critical traits being the innate desire and ability to learn combined with actual training. The emphasis of an ideal leader being value-based aligns with many of the modern conceptions of transformational leadership. Indeed, *The Arthashastra* reflects some of the most current theories of leadership which suggest that traits are essential to be effective at transformational leadership. Additionally, the focus of transformational leaders to see from the followers' perspective, much like servant leadership, is also considered critical for effective leadership, according to Kautilya.

Sun Tzu's *The Art of War* remains a famous ancient literary work that is read by the world and primarily by many military leaders to educate on the mindset and strategies one should follow to win a war (Gurd & Hoi Hee, 2010). As part of the first written texts on leadership, its influence is still felt in modern times in the philosophy of many Western and Eastern military leaders. The manuscript originated in China between 400 BC and 320 BC and is considered to be the oldest treatise on war. Much of the text focused not on the destruction of an opponent but on strategies and philosophies to avoid direct conflict unless necessary. As part of this narrative, leadership qualities that shape military decisions all over the world are still in use. Specifically, Sun Tzu's discussion on the role and actions of the commander denote leadership essentials.

The Art of War's general philosophy for leadership can be boiled down most simply into leaders undertaking whatever action necessary to achieve a goal while minimizing direct conflict and costs. In the broadest

interpretation, Sun Tzu incorporates parts of nearly every form of leadership. Courage, benevolence, sincerity, strictness, and wisdom are traits of an effective leader, according to the text. However, a more appropriate point in leadership is judged by the results achieved, not strictly by the process to meet it. For example, deception by leaders is heavily emphasized to minimize direct conflict. Deceitfulness, as part of any leadership strategy, is active only when understanding followers and the opponent or obstacle to be overcome. This philosophy closely aligns with contingency theory and, to a lesser degree, the flexible aspects of transformational leadership.

Contingency theory posits that the situation should dictate the response of a leader to achieve the desired result (Kureshi, 2013). Though leadership fundamentally seeks to engage a group in such a way that the group actively and collectively takes actions to achieve a common goal, each leadership style proposes differing styles of engagement. Transactional leadership engages followers through a trade-off approach where there is a reward or punishment for action taken by subordinates (Jensen et al., 2016). The transformational theory involves followers through inspiration of varying forms so that followers perform actions the leadership desires of their own free will and motivation (Pradhan et al., 2017). Trait theory states that some leaders have the traits necessary to motivate followers to do what is needed to achieve the correct result (Frieder et al., 2018). Sun Tzu does not disregard any of these approaches in his ancient text. Instead, his work is most similar to contingency theory because the ends justify the means and all the collateral effects must be considered by leadership before taking action.

The parallel between the messages of the earliest texts, Eastern in origin, and much of modern perspectives on leadership is striking. However, the history of leadership did not take a direct path toward the most current theories that encourage combinations of transformational, transactional, and trait leadership theories. Separately, Greek philosophers such as Aristotle and Plato initiated the earliest recorded Western writings on leadership and specifically on how military leaders should behave (Bryman, 2011).

With particular regard to military leadership, Plato expressed concern with the favored method of selecting leadership. In his view, the selfish desires of the mob could be appeased by rhetoric, regardless of the validity of the rhetoric or skills of the person espousing the rhetoric. Thus, based on appealing to base instincts and desires, a person without the requisite skills or knowledge to accomplish the desired goal could be put in leadership using the typical approach. Instead, the best person to lead militarily is recognized by their skills and expertise (Bryman, 2011).

The skill of rhetoric, however, became a controversial topic between influential philosophers such as Plato and Aristotle. Plato argued that rhetoric could be too quickly used to manipulate falsely and thus advocated that it not be used as a tool to select or train leadership. Aristotle, however, taught rhetoric as a fundamental and necessary skill for military and other leadership. Neither achieved the influence they sought on determining leadership due to the rise of a tyrant, Demetrius, who restructured the legal system for determining leaders to his liking.

The next significant evolution in leadership perspective from ancient to modern times was the authoritative text of the 16th century: *The Prince* by Machiavelli. Like Sun Tzu's perspectives on leadership, Machiavelli proposed that leaders should do whatever necessary to accomplish their goals without regard for abstract moral codes. Some interpretations of Machiavelli's forms of leadership are that they encourage leaders to act immorally instead of making decisions based on morals.

The Machiavellian model of leadership drew inspiration from past historical figures, specifically from ancient Rome and Greece (source?). The evolution of leadership only doing whatever necessary to get a group to achieve a goal was based on observations that victors in battle did not always adhere to moral codes when their actions were critically analyzed. On the contrary, Machiavelli argued in *The Prince* that leaders, specifically military leaders, that remained loyal to a system often lost battles to their loyalties and, as a result, were wiped out in many cases. Interpretations of this leadership form again align most closely with the modern contingency theory in that the situation and goals dictate the actions of the leader.

The earliest texts incorporated traits of leaders not as the primary determinant of a leader but as a critical component. The earliest Western writings from Greece remained relatively non-specific but entailed a discussion between rhetoric skills and other goal-related applicable skills. Machiavelli neglected the mention of traits and his theories can be adequately summed up as leadership requiring any means necessary. Modern studies of leadership can be traced back to the great man theory, which was the first specific doctrine for what makes a great leader and

not instructions on how to be a great leader. More succinctly, ancient studies or commentaries on leadership presumed that leadership was in large part a function of some training and could be taught. The great man theory represented a shift from the externalist approach to one where leadership was internal, less a task of outside training or teaching.

The great man theory originated with Thomas Carlyle in the 1860s, intimately connected with the industrial revolution. Carlyle construed leaders as individual heroes based on great men of history that exuded masculinity, heroism, individualism, and domineering personalities. His lectures greatly influenced the perception of an effective leader and presented a model that personified popular assumptions about leadership during those times. His understanding and theory of leadership were quickly incorporated into the contemporary industrialist culture which was significantly motivated by entrepreneurialism. The great man theory posited that great leaders were born, and that leadership was a natural trait that could not necessarily be taught. The alignment with past great military leaders only reinforced the acceptance of his propositions.

For a few decades, the great man theory mostly remained unchallenged and maintained little basis in rational dissection. As the concept of economies of scale grew with the maturation of the industrial age, logical systems and processes began to displace the idea of heroic figures being necessary for organizational leadership. As with many concepts of the time, leadership shifted away from individual attributes to more of a collective system. The army and other military services had to practice joint policies for millennia out of necessity. Here, however, leadership became the control of knowledge and the dispensation of experience from managerial centers or roles to achieve peak efficiencies. Scientific management was the result of this process and persisted along with aspects of the great man theory until the 1920s.

The early part of the 20th century set the stage for leadership models that would oscillate between a more structured scientific approach started by F.W. Taylor and a more normative non-rational approach related to traits and soft skills as embodied by the great man theory. This is not to say that military operations followed suit in becoming less controlled. However, the selection and training of leadership still fell under the influence of leadership theories of the time. For example, commissioned officers in the U.S. Army around World War II were required to have a necessary minimum of intelligence and education, with final decisions on their suitability for leadership being subjective according to favorite ideas of the times (Jenkins, 1945).

Summary.

The conception of leadership and the necessary instructions or attributes that make a great leader has undergone intense study since the great man theory but finds its written roots more than two millennia prior. The oldest works on leadership emphasize traits of leadership as essential tools, but a non-rigid process to achieve a specific goal with the least conflict as the most salient idea. These works most closely align with contingency theory in that the style of leadership is less important than the situation that requires leadership. New hypotheses can be traced back to the great man theory and the first normative non-rational models that can also be connected to rhetoric abilities espoused by the ancient Greeks. The industrial revolution spawned intellectual leadership as a function of scalable processes less focused on the attributes of an individual and more on the structure of an organization.

The most popular current models for leadership are the transformational and transactional models, with recent works also re-emphasizing the influences of certain traits. The structure of the military has remained rational and hierarchical in nearly all Western civilizations, but the selection of leadership has followed popular perceptions of the administration of their times, although delayed in comparison with non-governmental enterprises. Despite all advances, the ancient contention that command adjusts to the situation is still prevalent today throughout literature as no model has been shown to apply to all cases (Grint, 2005) adequately.

Contemporary Perspectives

Transactional theory, transformational theory, and the laissez-faire approach of contingency theory are particularly of interest in how they can apply to military leadership. Leadership has been integrally tied to military history, as many of the most presented examples of great leaders have been military personnel (Taylor, Psotka, & Legree, 2015). Trait theory, specifically the great man theory, was the standard model of leadership for much of history, with the underlying assumption that leaders were born with the traits that made them great leaders and not necessarily that they were nurtured to be great (Carlyle, 1888). Modern theories, however, have shifted sharply away from natural, intrinsic leadership traits to nurtured or controllable practices, styles, or behaviors that produce the best

leadership results (McCleskey, 2014). This section explores the contemporary perspectives of transactional, transformational, and contingency leadership and how they apply to the U.S. military.

Transactional leadership.

Transactional leadership depends on leaders motivating their followers or subordinates. Motivation is accomplished by facilitating a transaction where the follower usually obtains a tangible reward for acting according to the leader's requests in some form (Bass, 2008). The best leadership is achieved by simultaneously maximizing organization and individual gains so that both leaders, which represent the organization, and followers, which represent individuals, are gratified with their transactions (Zareen et al., 2015). Zareen et al. (2015) examined how leadership styles impact the motivation of banking sector employees.

In their study, Zareen et al. (2015) used empirical analysis and a sample of 100 employees in total, with 20 employees from five different commercial banks. The banks were located in Pakistan because managers and employees enjoy strong day-to-day interactions. Questionnaires, sampled randomly among the employee population, were the primary source for data acquisition and the population pool was restricted to employees who were employed full-time. Questionnaires consisted of both demographic variables and responses of employees to the leadership styles and their self-described motivation level. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to quantify the effect of different leadership styles on motivation, with descriptive statistics composed of central tendency and dispersion, and inferential statistics produced of Pearson's correlation.

Zareen et al.'s (2015) study evaluated transformational, transactional, and laissez-fair leadership styles with the specific goal to determine which was best at enhancing motivation for Pakistani banking employees. Based on the results, the transactional leadership style proved most effective, with the education level of the employees being a statistically significant factor in the reception and response to the various leadership styles. All three methods, however, were found to improve motivation. Much of the research done concerning leadership is performed in developed economies, which generally maintain much different operational dynamics than organizations of any type in developing or emerging economies. Conclusions drawn from Zareen et al.'s study not only provide strong evidence of the motivational effectiveness of different leadership styles but also reveal the need to evaluate how the efficacy of a particular leadership style is affected by both cultural factors and economic development level.

The military system in the United States can generally be viewed through a transactional lens when analyzing the formal structures involved in the promotion to higher ranks (Taylor et al., 2015). The process to achieve more senior positions aligns strongly with the overall goals of the military as set by leaders at the top of the army and by the executive and legislative branches of government. Leaders utilizing a primarily transactional approach incorporate reciprocity and flexibility to set the guidelines for how to achieve organizational goals that may not, generally, concern the specific goals of followers (Khan, 2017). The tenets of reciprocity lead to transactional relationships being a de facto quid pro quo system that does not necessarily appeal to the moral or intrinsic character of a task or objective. Though transactional approaches focus little on the intangible aspects of achieving a goal for the follower, it does not preclude intangible benefits as being contributory toward constructing the system and guidelines for reciprocity (You-De, You-Yu, Kuan-Yang, & Hui-Chun, 2013).

Taylor et al. (2015) examined the inter-correlational relations between transformational and transactional subscales in an MLQ and the Tacit Knowledge for Military Leaders Inventory (TKML) situational judgment test scenarios. They specifically focused on U.S. Army officers at the platoon, company, and battalion leadership levels to assess the respondents' understanding of how good leadership is best executed. Before their work, no research had been conducted to examine the correlational values between the scales of the MLQ and TKML to find cohesion between the two data acquisition and quantification tools.

The MLQ, an established index used by the U.S. Army to determine leadership ability, and the TKML, an accurate predictor of leader effectiveness developed initially to measure tacit knowledge among military leaders, are both tools used in studying leadership styles. While the MLQ concerns more of self-evaluation, the TKML serves as an assessment of performance because it utilizes situational judgment tests to determine respondents' behavioral style and efficacy. Concerning transactional leadership, the subscales of contingent reward (CR), management-by-exception active (MBEA), and management-by-exception passive (MBEP) are determinants of the level of transactional leadership efficacy and were used by Taylor et al. (2015) to correlate MLQ self-ratings with TKML test results. Their findings suggested that not only were self-ratings by officers in the U.S. Army connected with their

tacit knowledge as gleaned from their TKML scores, but also the application of a transactional leadership style was preferred at lower levels of experience. However, as the level of knowledge increased, the leadership style morphed from transactional to transformational, eventually settling as a combination of the two.

Taylor et al.'s (2015) results were relevant, as the definition of great leadership is not universal. However, in the transactional approach, the meaning becomes simplified to a leader who effectively gets his followers to achieve organizational or specified leadership goals through a contingent reward system (Bass, 2008; Busse, 2014; McCleskey, 2014; Taylor et al., 2015). The hierarchical, highly structured, and disciplined nature of the military readily lends itself to a transactional approach.

Transactional and transformational leadership are currently the most popular leadership styles in terms of application, training, and research (McCleskey, 2014). Behavioral theory, which posits that certain traits are necessary for effective leadership, does maintain strong literary evidence of its efficacy in limited terms (Dóci, Stouten, & Hofmans, 2015). However, qualities that are universal to all disciplines where leadership is necessary have not been empirically found (Fein, Tziner, Vasiliu, & Felea, 2015). New perspectives on transactional leadership involve its implementation into transformational approaches, its shortcomings, and the appropriate situations where a transactional model achieves excellent results to other models (Hamstra, Van Yperen, & Wisse, 2014). Critiques of the transactional model include its relative focus on short-term relationships of exchange with the leader. The short-term focus, in addition to the lack of situational and contextual considerations that are effective in behavioral theory studies, leads to the potential of lower long-term human capital (Zareen et al., 2015). Smaller investments in human capital have been tied to lower retention rates in some settings, which is of particular importance to this work. Additionally, the level of the leader is instrumental in the efficacy of the transactional method, with lower-level leaders generally exhibiting more success utilizing a transactional approach (Taylor et al., 2015).

The quid pro quo style of transactional leadership has made its connection with ethical and emotional behavior one of great interest (Busse, 2014). Transactional leadership is, by its nature, utilitarian, while transformational is more altruistic leading to the fundamentally different application of motivation techniques. For innovativeness, emotional labor in a transactional setting acts as the boundary condition between effective innovativeness and transactional leadership. The result is emotional labor being a moderator of transactional behavior dependent on situational constraints, in line with tenets of contingency theory. For example, Liu, Liu, and Zeng (2011) found that the innovativeness of firms in China were negatively correlated with transactional approaches when emotional was high versus the opposite when it was low.

The general amorality of the transactional approach presents challenges when applied in environments in which ethical behavior is necessary to the integrity of success (Graham, Ziegert, & Capitano, 2015). A good example is the U.S. public school system, specifically underperforming schools. To improve scores in underperforming schools, government entities produced strong guidelines with specific target goals for academic improvement, rewards for achieving targets, and punishments for continued underperformance (Mette & Scribner, 2014). A transactional leadership approach was strongly encouraged to achieve goals, and soft aspects, i.e., ethical or cultural factors that some practitioners deemed paramount to the process, were not emphasized (Education, 2001; Mette, 2013). Though the transactional approach generated some positive returns in school performance and efficiency of school leadership, the long-term effect shifted perception and practices to improvement efforts being treated as transactional (Trujillo & Renee, 2012). The treatment of improvement efforts as a commodity that could be bought and sold resulted in some schools utilizing unethical practices to achieve target goals.

Transformational leadership.

Transformational leadership is a blended leadership model where mutual relationships between a leader and followers are combined with practical, emotional, moral, and symbolic forms of leadership. It is currently the preeminent model for study and application due to its measured effectiveness and flexibility, specifically in Eastern cultures. The model depends on the leader inducing intrinsic motivation in a subordinate so that the auxiliary accomplishes organizational goals due to self-motivation.

The transformational leadership style is currently the most popular style for training and application. The ability of the technique to clarify organizational vision, empower subordinates to take reasonable risks without fear of reprisal, encourage independent thought in finding solutions to problems, and arouse intrinsic inspiration of employees or

assistants is a preferable attribute for much of the management community. Imran et al. (2016) used the leadership style to develop an organizational learning model. Their work incorporated the indirect effect of knowledge management capacity and the interactive role of a knowledge-intensive culture in conjunction with core tenets of transformational leadership to build a model that effectively creates, disseminates, retains, and applies new and existing knowledge to subordinates (Imran et al., 2016). The study utilized a structured questionnaire consisting of a Likert scale, five-item scale, and the Gold and Malhotra scale given to 386 participants in the management and subordinate positions. Their work found knowledge management process capability to be moderated by both organizational learning and transformational leadership, providing further literary support for the application of transformational leadership approaches.

Besides the effectiveness of transformational leadership approach and the shift toward more hybrid approaches that take elements of both transactional and transformational features, fresh perspectives have focused on the follower-centric view. Social factors, individual characteristics, personality traits, and social identification all strongly impact a subordinate's perception of a leader. Based on this principle, transformational leaders learn and incorporate personal and social factors that influence differences in the follower perception of leadership through analysis. Recent work has attempted to address follower perception using social identity theory. Multiple studies have found a correlation between higher social identification with work-unit and higher perceived leadership effectiveness. However, the ambiguity of social identification and, to a lesser degree, the perception of leadership effectiveness versus measured leadership effectiveness are issues that lack empirical evidence to validate secure connections between transformational leadership and social identity issues.

Military leadership.

The military has been modeled as a large organization, with high-ranking officers and non-commissioned officer (NCO) leaders operating as the equivalent of managers, directors, and officers in large commercial organizations (Rutner, 2012). Prasad et al. (2017) investigated and modeled how the leadership style and characteristics of a CEO and the organizational size moderated firm innovativeness, specifically for firms in India. Their study found that CEO organizational identification enhanced firm innovativeness, with risk-taking propensity being a trait correlated with better performance. Generally, risk-taking propensity and dissemination through an organization are more efficiently distributed to subordinates using transformational leadership as it requires a general attitude of assistants to be independent. Other studies have found contradictory results. Ling et al. (2008) found transformational leadership to only have a minimal impact on large firms versus a noticeable effect on small firms. Vaccaro et al. (2012) found the opposite, where transactional leadership was more effective in smaller firms and transformational more impactful in large firms. The inconclusive data point to the contingency-based application of leadership styles to be the preference.

Summary.

Transformational and transactional leadership styles are currently the two most prominent styles investigated and institutionally encouraged. Transformational approaches have been shown to have the most significant positive impacts based on the volume of supporting studies in comparison with transactional methods. However, the selection of a style and the effectiveness of that style are dependent on the goals of the organization, the size of the organization, some traits of the leaders, and the desired bureaucratic efficiency of the organization. The military most readily lends itself to a transactional style due to its hierarchical nature with leaders incorporating both transformational and transactional approaches as they gain more experience and increase in rank.

Importance of the Study and Implication for Practice

The purpose of this explanatory sequential mixed-methods study is to understand the influence of leadership style on military personnel satisfaction, organizational commitment, and desire to stay. Riley et al.'s 2015 report on military leadership in the U.S. Army serves as an important motivating factor for this work (Riley et al., 2016). According to their study, awareness of formalized leadership programs was low and only about half of the officers considered their training to be irrelevant. Additionally, based on the research, junior officers not only lacked leadership skills but also were not actively seeking out remedies to their leadership shortcomings such as mentors or other available resources. The extremely hierarchical nature of the military and the military's mission to maintain readiness means leadership and how it is practiced is of extreme importance. In this section, the contribution of this work to the literature and practice is presented and discussed.

Contribution to the literature.

Military leadership theory, which is historically based on the great man theory, and leadership style theory, particularly the full-range model that is very widely applied (Anderson & Sun, 2017), are the two great bodies of literature to which this study will contribute. Fallows (2015) contended that current military leadership lacks critical scrutiny due to the disengaged but almost limitlessly positive attitude that culturally pervades the United States. The cultural shift toward reverence is due to the lower proportion of the population that either has directly enlisted or has close family members that are active-duty or retired. Though studies on military leadership are ongoing, the lack of critical perspective presents an opportunity for investigation and a knowledge gap that this work is motivated to fill in part.

Some studies have looked at leadership style in this military context before, but they have been quite limited, either in concept or in scope (Bangari, 2014; Gonzales, 2016). Gonzales investigated the connection between leadership styles in a military setting and their influence on program satisfaction. The work specifically focused on transactional and transformational leadership styles among ROTC cadets in authority positions. The results of the work were transformational leadership styles being positively associated with program satisfaction and transactional styles not having a negative effect. The scope of Gonzales' study, however, may or may not represent active-duty military perceptions at large when the responsibilities become much higher.

Bangari (2014) performed an empirical study of junior- and senior-level leadership. The study sought to use grounded research theory to draw upon contextual learning and develop guidelines for leaders operating in high-stress environments. Participants in the study were military personnel of India working in conditions such as the national border, which required constant vigilance and could potentially result in conflict with little warning. Concerning leadership theory, Bangari (2014) narrowed his focus to transformational leadership mixed with trait theory. Some of the characteristics for a successful leader included empowering the subordinates, leading by personal example, and impeccable moral integrity, among many more. However, the narrow context application of Bangari's (2014) work left room for additional investigation of impact of leadership style. The study found transformational leadership to be more productive, with transactional leadership not being associated with any adverse effects.

The breadth of work on the impact of leadership style on the military in general and U.S. military in particular is still growing. Similar to what is proposed for this work, Ivey and Kline (2010) studied the impact of transformational and active transactional leadership in the Canadian military (Ivey & Theresa, 2010). A total of more than 700 military officers and enlisted members in the Canadian Forces that varied in rank, gender, age, level of education, and experience in the military participated in the study. The MLQ was used to gauge the perception of leadership behavior and the Unit Morale Profile (UMP) survey the tool for measuring organizational effectiveness. Transactional leadership was further broken down into contingent reward and active management by exception, i.e., laissez-faire leadership. The combination of the MLQ with the UMP provided not only information about the perception of the leadership style, but also an independent correlation of the effectiveness of the leadership style.

Ivey and Kline (2010) found the frequency of transformational leadership behaviors to increase with rank, while transactional practices did not. More interestingly, whereas other studies point to transformational leadership being the most effective form of leadership, Ivey and Kline found the leadership effects of contingent reward and transformational style not moderated by follower's expectations and resulting in a similar performance. The laissez-faire approach to leadership, however, was moderated by perception, with the method having the least effectiveness. Unlike what is proposed here, the study did not directly address potential differences in opinion based on gender or the effect on retention rate. Additionally, though the United States and Canada share a border and many cultural similarities, the military culture and response to different leadership styles may vary considerably enough to warrant additional investigation.

Another very pertinent study that supports the need for additional research on the impact of leadership styles of various facets of the military is that of Taylor et al. (2015). The MLQ is a self-report measure index used by the U.S. Army as a record of the current leadership style. Based on research insights from Bass and Avolio (1993), it is also used as a predictor of future leadership style and is respected as a behavioral instrument that quantifies leadership attributes. The TKML was developed to measure tacit knowledge among military leaders and is known for its ability to accurately predict leader effectiveness (Hedlund et al., 1998). Both the MLQ and TKML were administered to 125 active U.S. Army officers across leadership levels and the correlation between the MLQ and TKML was used to

elucidate the connection between leadership style and effectiveness in the U.S. Army. Taylor et al. (2015) found leadership style to be correlated with leadership experience, with the high levels of leadership implementing a blended transactional and transformational method.

On the other side of the issue, the theory of leadership styles is quite mature in its application to different contexts. The full-range model of leadership style was developed for political leaders but has seen extensive use among managerial and business leaders, becoming a more universally applied notion of leadership style (Andersen, 2015). Transformational leadership has demonstrated clear benefits in these contexts (Amankwaa & Anku-Tsedde, 2015), but not always above and beyond transactional (Zareen et al., 2015). Traditional military leadership is best characterized as transactional rather than transformational, with an emphasis on the formality and structure of the military as an organization. Therefore, it becomes natural to wonder which of these leadership approaches is more effective in military leadership. Answering this question will serve to both help construct the emerging military-leadership literature and enrich the already mature leadership-style literature.

Contribution to the practice.

Holtom et al. (2014) studied turnover in U.S. military cadets. Specifically, they were interested in understanding the factors that can serve to drive turnover in the military. They found job satisfaction, affective commitment, on-the-job embeddedness, and person–organization fit to be significant factors in predicting turnover with person–organization fit being the most reliable predictor. Because leaders and leadership styles may influence organizational fit, the researchers argued that military leaders need to make an increased effort to ensure cadets feel a sense of fitting in.

Combining the lack of definitive literature specifying the most effective leadership approaches in the military, the feeling among leadership that training does not adequately serve its purpose, and the need to increase person–organization fit to decrease turnover makes the execution of this work important to changing current practice. Prior literature, both on the military and otherwise, indicates that the selection of the proper leadership style can have supremely beneficial effects. For example, transformational leadership has, in some contexts, been tied to outcomes such as quality organizational culture (Ali et al., 2015), job performance (Almutairi, 2015), organizational commitment (Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016), and employee turnover (Amankwaa & Anku-Tsedde, 2015). In the military, research suggests that a combined transactional–transformational approach is preferred with experience. Perhaps the combined approach arises out of perceived effectiveness by senior leadership.

The other styles of leadership that comprise the full-range model of leadership have also been linked to organizational outcomes. Swid (2014) found transactional and transformational methods to be more effective at increasing organizational commitment in the military-like police setting that was studied. Based on the results of Notgrass (2014), followers often perform best when matched with leaders of the styles they prefer. Therefore, the proposed study has a practical contribution to the actual context of military leadership by helping to understand what kind of leadership is most successful in this context.

The styles of leadership in the full-range model of leadership have all been shown to have potentially essential benefits in various contexts. However, the results in the military context are weak because they were limited to ROTC members who may not be representative of the military as a whole (Gonzales, 2016). Therefore, this study makes a useful contribution to improving leadership in the military by enhancing the understanding of leadership styles and their benefits, allowing military leaders to be encouraged to adopt more valuable techniques of leadership.

Summary.

Selecting the appropriate style of leadership can have a significant impact on the ability of a leader to achieve organizational goals. Previous studies involving the military have been inadequate to answer the original query of the optimal leadership style, providing the necessary training to encourage and support that leadership style. By contributing with further literature into the effects that transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire leadership styles have on followers, this work can potentially help reduce attrition in the military ranks, increase readiness, and aid in setting standards for practice that will make the military more efficient in achieving its goals.

Historical Development of the Theory

Great-man trait theory.

Despite the lack of a singular opinion about the various leadership theories available, the many definitions and views share standard features that exist in the various leadership theories and make it easy to identify, describe, or

implement. The persistent characteristic of all the different leadership theories is that they accept leadership as a process of exerting influence over a group to reach a defined goal. The great man theory is considered by scholars to be the first embodiment of an approach concerning leadership as a trait and the one that focuses less on the goals of leadership and more on the definition of leadership itself (Spector, 2015). The theory, proposed in lectures in the 1840s by Thomas Carlyle, is the assertion that certain men were placed on Earth by God to uplift human existence, i.e., born to be leaders. The lectures discussed how heroes shaped the arc of history and raising a hero to his proper place was the job of those who were not deemed to be divinely inspired leaders. Leaders, according to Carlyle, possessed particular traits of character and extraordinary personalities that resulted in them naturally leading those without said traits (Carlyle, 1907).

Carlyle's great man theory greatly impacted thought on leadership as he presented well-known impactful figures throughout history to support his case and begin a more in-depth discussion on the theory of leadership (Ronald, 2014). Trait theory was promoted for almost a century with some proponents attempting to identify universal predictive traits of an influential leader (Borgotta, Rouch, & Bales, 1954; Lord, Foti, & DeVader, 1984). Military men such as Genghis Khan, Alexander the Great, Napoleon Bonaparte, other highly impactful generals from wars, and kings were examined by trait theorists to find and propose commonality (Larsson et al., 2016), but this was met with resistance due to the substantial variation in personality between the undoubtedly successful leaders (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996). Trait theory eventually led to more modern and nuanced views of leadership not about universal traits, though there still is supporting evidence that some features of leadership do have robust trait-like attributes (Stelmokienė & Endriulaitienė, 2015).

Current theories.

Modern theory on leadership has primarily moved past utilizing the trait approach due to the non-universality of traits in leaders. Instead, the trait approach was used as a baseline that provided insight into the features of a successful leader but little to no idea concerning predicting a great leader. Moreover, the trait approach emphasized the necessity to mimic the traits of successful leaders to become a successful leader, which had mediocre results at best. Contemporary leadership theories are best described as more situational, with leadership styles, which also include certain traits, with effectiveness dependent on the group that has to be motivated to achieve a specific goal. Though there is some evidence that certain characteristics are preferable, modern theories are foundationally based on the nurture aspect of human development versus the nature aspect (Kotze & Nel, 2015).

The ineffectiveness of the trait theory approach gave rise to many different theories (McCleskey, 2014). Behavioral theories of leadership focus on the actions of a leader in carrying out their leadership role (Vroom & Jago, 2007). These theories altogether remove traits as an independent variable and are based on studies performed at Iowa State, Ohio State, and Michigan State universities (Ronald, 2014). Contingency theories of leadership assert that task orientation, human relation orientation, and situational favorableness are the primary indicators of leadership effectiveness. Fred Fielder first proposed these models in 1964 (Fielder, 1964). Both behavioral and contingency theories of leadership are composed of many components and sub-theories and are best described as fitting under one umbrella of situational leadership. However, two new leadership theories, the relational theory of leadership and the transformational theory of leadership, have a different fundamental basis. The relational approach arises from the leader-member exchange (LMX) model with its fulcrum on the dyad of the leader and the led (Krishnan, 2005). Currently, the transformational leadership theory is the most popular in research and application. In the transformational approach, a leader dynamically changes to support and encourage the abilities of subordinates through intrinsic motivation (Van Setters & Field, 1990).

Behavioral leadership theory.

Trait-based approaches to leadership emphasized the need for leaders to be charismatic (Conger & Kanungo, 1987). Behavioral leadership theory removes the focus on traits and places it instead on the actions of a leader in carrying out their role (Vroom & Jago, 2007). Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1939) investigated the impacts of leadership styles on social climates by studying how 10-year-old boys responded to authoritarian, democratic, or laissez-faire leadership styles (Lewin et al., 1939; Lewin, 1939). Authoritarian leadership determined the choice of activities with minimal leadership demonstrated in the activities. Democratic leadership allowed the group to determine the events, with praise and criticism based on actual outcomes. In the laissez-faire style of leadership, the necessary materials were provided, but no direction for the activation process was given. The study sought to determine how the behavior of the leaders impacted the task performance of the boys (Lewin, 1944).

The findings of the first works on behavioral theory found authoritarian and democratic leadership styles to be most effective in producing the desired results, with the conventional approach being most highly correlated with motivation and satisfaction of the group members (Lewin, 1944). The findings of the study found that cultural (nurture) features of the groups of boys affected the positive or negative satisfaction responsiveness of the boys being examined, lending credence to the notion that leaders can be made or that there must be appropriate alignment between leadership style and the group being motivated. The Iowa studies were followed by the Ohio and Michigan studies, which also sought to probe further into how the behavior of the leader affected the outcome of the group versus any intrinsic leadership traits (Fleishman, 1953; Halpin & Winer, 1957; Katz, Maccoby, & Morse, 1950).

The Ohio and Michigan studies, carried out in the mid-1940s and 1950s, produced many different and often conflated outcomes even though the leadership styles from the Iowa study persisted (Madlock, 2008). In neither case were contextual factors considered strong enough to allay concerns about the broad application of the outcomes. Both found opposing results on whether leadership styles that focused on interpersonal relationships, the standard approach or methods that concentrate on tasks, more closely resembling authoritarian leadership, produced statistically better results.

Behavioral leadership theory eventually moved away from discrete leadership styles that were either democratic, laissez-faire, or authoritarian and toward a continuum of leadership behavior. Tannenbaum and Schmidt's model assumed that leadership behavior could be explained as a continuum between bipolar continuums (Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1958). The behavioral classes ranged between boss-centered and subordinated-centered or delegation and authority (Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 2001). In their studies, they found that more democratic leadership styles support the Iowa studies' conclusions of greater enjoyment in the decision-making process by those who are led (Li, 2009).

Contingency leadership theory.

Fielder (1964) proposed the contingency model of leadership as an outgrowth of Fleishman's behavioral leadership quadrants model (Fleishman, 1953), Blake and Mouton's managerial grid (Blake et al., 1969), and Reddin's three-dimensional approach (Reddin, 1970). Contingency leadership theory contends that task orientation, human relation orientation, and situational favorableness directly correlate to leadership effectiveness. Based on Fielder's work, the situation, whether job or otherwise, should fit the leader's preferred style and not the other way around (Fielder, 1965).

The shortcomings of the first iteration of the contingency model, namely its complexity, brought about various follow-on theories that aimed to address deficiencies. Hersey and Blanchard (1977) developed the life cycle theory (Hersey et al., 2001), later termed situational leadership theory, similarly to Fielder in that they utilized three variables to establish leadership-situation fit. Consideration, related to relationship orientation, initiating structure, based on task orientation from the Ohio studies involving behavioral leadership theory, and maturity of subordinates were proposed as the three critical variables. Other theories that followed similar models of building from observations of the behavioral leadership studies include the path-goal theory (House, 1971), which is dependent on the leader's behaviors to present a path for subordinates to align with common goals, and the normative decision model (Vroom & Jago, 2007; Vroom & Yetton, 1973), which emphasizes group participation. All the above fall under contingency leadership models for effective leaders.

Transactional leadership theory.

James Burns (1978) proposed a theory of leadership that focused on the exchanges that occurred between followers and leaders (Burns, 1978). More specifically, transactional leadership theory is based on an economic theory of reciprocity, where the exchanges between leaders and followers are of both individual and organizational gratification (McCleskey, 2014). Interactions between leadership and follows are like carrot-and-stick approaches where good behavior for a follower is rewarded directly and bad behavior may be punished in some fashion (Collins, 2015). As compared with some other models, most transactional leadership theory focuses on exchanges of tangible items and less on intangible things such as personal gratification.

Contingent reward, active management by exception, and passive management by exception are three dimensions of transactional leadership. Contingent reward is the component of transactional leadership that pertains to the degree of setup constructive exchanges or transactions with followers. More specifically, the contingent reward refers to the established expectations and rewards for meeting the expectations. Management by exception occurs both actively

and passively and concerns the corrective actions taken by leaders based on the results of the followers' actions (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Whereas active management concerns ongoing management that continuously monitors behavior, anticipates problems, and takes corrective actions before the practice can have adverse effects, passive management waits until the behavior causes an issue before acting.

Ivey and Kline (2010) investigated the effects of active transactional leadership in the Canadian military. In their study, they examined the leadership ratings provided by a total of 704 officers and enlisted members and their perceptions of transactional and transformational leadership. Regarding transactional leadership, the study found that though rank or followers' expectations did not moderate contingent reward effects, active management by exception negatively correlated to perception of leadership when the followers did not expect it. The most substantial conclusion from Ivey and Kline's work was the necessity of contingent reward in leadership, but a set of expectations for any implementation of management by exception (Ivey & Theresa, 2010).

Transformational leadership theory.

Transformational leadership theory arose from the frustration with various apparent inadequacies in prior models either due to insufficient predictability, application into practical settings, or an impractical complexity (Hamstra, Van Yperen, Wisse, & Sassenberg, 2011). It is best described as strongly dependent on mutually respectful relationships between leadership and subordinates, where leaders incorporate tools of instrumental emotional, moral, and symbolic dimensions (Taylor et al., 2015). The theory is more fundamentally based on general principles and thus allows for flexible application in various settings. It is not based on traits of a leader but may incorporate attributes of the leader to accomplish the flocculent goals. In general, it includes a decreased power distance in business environments and has thus shown full application in Western countries (Stelmokience & Endriulaitiene, 2015).

Like transactional leadership, transformational leadership has critical components. Charisma or idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration compose the pillars of the theory and allow flexibility in the application (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Charisma has components of the great man theory or trait theory in that it is the ethical behavior of the leader that causes followers to identify with him (Bass, 2008). Understanding the perspective of the follower is critical for inspirational motivation as it concerns leaders articulating an appealing and inspiring vision to followers. Both charisma and inspiration motivational appeal to followers on an emotional level. Intellectual stimulation involves challenging assumptions, risk-taking, and actively engaging with followers for solutions to encourage creativity and independence among them. The efficacy of all the prior dimensions of transformational leadership is somewhat dependent on the fourth component: individualized consideration. In personalized attention, the leader accounts for each follower's needs, explicitly tending to their concerns to execute the prior three dimensions better.

As the newest of the leadership theories, transformational leadership is currently the most well incorporated into research and fundamentally depends on the perceptions that subordinates have of their leaders and the leader's ability to use those perceptions to motivate the subordinate toward a preferred outcome (Ronald, 2014). Unlike transactional leadership, which focuses on tangible awards, transformational leadership does not restrict itself to traditionally business-like interactions between superiors and subordinates and instead allows for soft rewards, such as emotional and intangible ones, to also be incorporated into the leadership style.

Summary.

The definition of leadership is context-dependent but can be generally defined as corralling a group to take actions to achieve a specific goal. Over time, leadership has evolved from being perceived as a natural-born trait which could not be taught to a transformational aspect in which the leadership is dependent on the perception of the follower. Currently, the transformational, transactional, and behavioral theories are the most popular, with transformational and transactional being the preferred styles for organizations. Though the great man theory, the argument that leaders were born with specific leadership attributes, has fallen by the wayside, the literature suggests that leadership traits do exist, while the most effective leadership is primarily a function of encouraging internal motivation (transformational) with the appropriate transactional awards.

Directions for Future Research

Leadership is a critical component of every organization but is especially important in the military due to its role in maintaining the sovereignty of a nation. Additionally, the hierarchical structure and the volunteer-force nature of the

U.S. military mean that every component of the military should operate at peak efficiency to accomplish its goals with minimal wasted resources, specifically human resources. Leadership not only sets the goals and the framework for how the goals should be accomplished externally, but also directly impacts how followers internally perform the necessary steps to achieve said goals. Therefore, the study of leadership in the military is an endeavor that cannot be overlooked without adverse consequences.

There are no simple answers to the definition of leadership, how to be most effective at leading, or the best methods to find or train leaders (Anderson & Sun, 2017; Bass, 2008). However, despite years of intensive thought and commentary on leadership, leadership has blossomed as a field of study only during the last 150 years or so as large organizations arose from the industrial revolution (Busse, 2014). The great man theory, which essentially posits that great leaders are born, not trained, began the modern era of leadership (Carlyle, 1907). Great man leadership, however, was unempirical in nature and therefore impossible to quantify and operationally utilize (Bryman, 2011). Instead, it depended heavily on individual efforts of what could be characterized as larger than life figures, or figures that became larger than life from their exploits. Leadership then evolved into a more empirical form that was dependent less on individuals and more on organizational processes with the output being more significant economies of scale and efficiency (Bass, 1985; Busse, 2014; Grint, 2005).

The most concise summary of leadership and its evolution in modern times is a pendulum swing between unempirical and more empirical forms of leadership. Today, the most popular styles are transactional, which is more practical, transformational, which is unempirical, and variations of contingency and behavior theory, which tend toward being less empirical (Busse, 2014; Dóci et al., 2015). The hierarchical nature of the military has not fundamentally changed for years; however, how leaders are selected and trained has generally followed the popular convention on what leaders should be. This study explores the leadership styles that are present in the U.S. military today with a particular focus on transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire styles.

Though the overarching goal of this study is to explore leadership styles in the military and their impact on important outcome variables that affect follower retention such as personnel satisfaction, organizational commitment, and desire to stay, it gathers information from only a regional area of the U.S. Army. The army comprises only one of the five branches of the United States Armed Forces, which include the Army, Marine Corps, Navy, Air Force, and Coast Guard. Though all are structured similarly as it pertains to the nature of the hierarchical command, the internal cultures of each branch vary along with commonly perceived leadership styles. The focus of this study of leadership in the military, in general, may not be sufficient as it does not take into account more than the branch of the military.

The scope of this work and its focus on the army for deriving results leaves ample opportunity for future studies. Directions on a prospective study should investigate the variations in leadership style among the five branches of the military. Anecdotal evidence gleaned from interacting with the various departments of the military hints at differences. For example, whereas the Air Force culture seems more fostering of independence and autonomy among followers, a trait of transformational leadership, the Marine culture seems more fostering of adherence to rules and protocols, a characteristic more closely associated with transactional leadership. These observations, however, are anecdotal and present a future direction of study to validate or invalidate the assertion. Additional understanding of the variations in leadership styles will also increase knowledge of the efficacy of differing leadership styles in a military setting.

The military consists of commissioned and non-commissioned ranks. However, the non-commissioned personnel execute enormous leadership responsibilities which significantly affect military operations. Future studies may include the variations in style between commissioned and non-commissioned leadership, the efficacy in the leadership styles, and best practices. Non-scientific observations, which are thus anecdotal, indicate differences in leadership styles between commissioned and non-commissioned personnel. Whereas commissioned corps seemingly adhere more strongly to a rigid structure, a trait of transactional leadership, non-commissioned staff exercise more flexibility and seem to grant slightly more autonomy to followers in achieving tasks, which is a feature of transformational leadership. These observations, however, may prove to be inaccurate but will provide additional insight with further investigation.

Summary

The evolution of perceptions for leadership from the earliest written works to modern times has been somewhat cyclical. The earliest written works posited that leaders should maintain flexibility to adjust to what circumstances require while also undergoing training (Bryman, 2011; Gurd & Hoi Hee, 2010; Jain & Mukherji, 2009). New prescriptions for leaders started with heroic individualism that was not necessarily a function of training (Carlyle, 1888), which then progressed to processes that were primarily external to the individual and necessitated training. It has fluctuated between variations of the two radical ideologies since then (Carlyle, 1907). The most popular current theories are transformational leadership and transactional leadership, with hybrid transactional–transformational theory slowly being combined with certain intrinsic traits to create the best general approaches (Bass & Avolio, 1993; Fein et al., 2015; Frieder et al., 2018). Primarily, hybrid transactional–transformational–trait theories lean toward a contingency-based flexible approach that adjusts based on the follower and goal. Therefore, the most recent developments in leadership perceptions are similar to the first writings.

The optimal style of leadership in the modern U.S. military has not been found despite studies that have aimed to understand its impact. Studies concerning the efficacy of transactional and transformational leadership styles in military settings provide evidence supporting both methods as valid dependent on external factors (Fallows, 2015; Jenkins, 1945; Ivey & Theresa, 2010; Taylor et al., 2015). The existence of multiple U.S. military branches, the relative lack of scrutiny of the military, and the shortage of studies investigating the impacts of leadership style on effectiveness and, more specifically concerning this work, retention, presents a grand opportunity to expand the literature on the topic. This work addresses portions of the knowledge gap through studies on the U.S. Army in the Southeastern region of the United States.

Chapter 3: Research Methodology:-

The purpose of this explanatory sequential mixed-methods study is to understand the influence of leadership style on military personnel satisfaction, organizational commitment, and desire to stay. To address this purpose, the target population for this study is the U.S. Army soldiers at a military base in Southeastern United States. The sample includes existing U.S. Army soldiers with at least one year of experience. The sample for the quantitative phase of the study consisted of 100 participants and the sample for the qualitative phase had 8–12 participants. A survey questionnaire was used to collect quantitative data and semi-structured interviews were used to collect qualitative data.

This chapter presents the details of the proposed methodology. The setting of the study and the rationale of the chosen research design are discussed first. The role of the researcher is then presented. The details about the selection of participants, instrumentation, recruitment, and data collection are mentioned. The data analysis plan, including the threats to validity, issues of trustworthiness, and ethical assurances, is explained. Lastly, a summary of the critical details of the proposed methodology concludes the chapter.

Research Design

The specific research design for the proposed study is a two-phase explanatory sequential study. Explanatory sequential models explore a phenomenon first through a quantitative analysis of the relationships between variables and then seek to obtain an explanation for the links that were uncovered using qualitative inquiry (Maxwell et al., 2015). In the present study, the quantitative phase served to determine the nature of the relationships between leadership style and several outcome variables in the military. The qualitative portion then served to explore why these relationships hold. Specifically, the quantitative phase employed a non-experimental cross-sectional correlation research design, whereas the qualitative phase employed a phenomenological research design.

Appropriateness of Design

The first phase of the exploratory sequential design takes the form of a quantitative non-experimental cross-sectional correlational design (Johnson, 2001). This type of design draws on a large cross-sectional sample of the population to gain a broad understanding of the situation. Overall, a non-experimental correlational approach is appropriate when the researcher cannot feasibly and ethically manipulate the variables under study (Johnson, 2001). That is the case in this study, as experimentally managing the variables of leadership style in the military context would be both highly unfeasible and potentially unethical. Drawing on an experimental design based instead on presenting participants with hypothetical situations would produce weaker results regarding authenticity as compared to measuring soldiers' reactions to real leaders. Therefore, a non-experimental correlational approach is appropriate and correlational data are still valuable. This is especially true in the case of an exploratory design, as the true nature

of the not-necessarily-causal correlation can be explored descriptively. A cross-sectional approach is best because there are no relevant historical datasets and the study is not concerned with the development of these relationships over time (Johnson, 2001).

The qualitative phase of the study then adopted a somewhat phenomenological approach to understanding these relationships. Phenomenology is ideal for exploring participants' lived experiences with a phenomenon and, from this, eliciting the nature of the shared experience (Moustakas, 1994). This phenomenological approach to inquiry is appropriate for understanding why soldiers react as they do to leadership styles because those reactions are, by definition, part of the soldiers' lived experiences. By analyzing these experiences, it should be possible to isolate the essence of why leadership affected them as it did. Additionally, by further analyzing the shared experiences within the two gendered subsamples, it should be possible to compare and contrast the essence of this experience for men and women to understand why it may differ if it does. Primarily, the phenomenological approach offers a powerfully descriptive venue through which to understand the reason leadership style affects soldiers as it does (Moustakas, 1994).

Procedure

The first step for the data collection is to obtain an Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval letter. Once IRB approval had been secured, the researcher prepared all materials needed for data collection, including a link to the web-based questionnaire, permission letters to conduct interviews, informed consent form, and an interview guide. The researcher made an announcement about the study through flyers. The flyers contained a brief description of the study, the researcher's bio, inclusion criteria for interested participants, the contact information of the researcher, and the informed consent form as an attachment. The consent form contained the description of the study, its purpose, risks, and benefits, and contact information of the researcher. Only those potential participants who had affirmatively completed the questionnaire and agreed to participate in the interviews proceeded to make an interview appointment. The researcher personally contacted the military personnel and asked them if they were willing to participate in a one-on-one face-to-face conversation.

The researcher provided the interviewees with a copy of the questions before the interview so that they might have the opportunity to think them over and be prepared. The researcher started the discussion with a set of introductory questions that allowed them to narrate their perspectives, experiences, and understanding about their leaders' leadership styles and how these leadership styles impacted their satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. All interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed.

The Role of the Researcher

The researcher's primary role is to collect data from the participants and analyze these data. For the quantitative phase of the study, the researcher is responsible for the administration of the survey questionnaires. Because quantitative data were analyzed using statistical techniques in a statistical software, the role of the researcher in the data analysis of quantitative data was not as crucial as in the data analysis of qualitative data. The collection and analysis of quantitative data tend to be more straightforward and objective, which makes the process less dependent on the researcher (Creswell, 2014).

For the qualitative phase of the study, the role of the researcher is more integral. The researcher's position is associated with personal, ethical, and bias considerations that should be addressed throughout the research process (Creswell, 2014). The researcher conducted the interviews with different military personnel and interpreted their responses. The researcher maintained an objective and bias-free participation throughout the one-on-one interviews with the participants. The researcher also oversaw the encoding of all data received for analysis. The researcher securely maintained all data on his personal computer.

Research Questions

The following are the quantitative and qualitative research questions that guided this study:

Quantitative research questions.

RQ1: What effect, if any, do the three leadership styles of the full-range leadership model (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) have on military personnel satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention?

RQ2: What effect, if any, does gender have on the relationship between the three leadership styles of the full-range leadership model (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and military personnel satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention?

Qualitative research question.

RQ3: What is/are the mechanism(s) of the relationship(s) uncovered in the quantitative portion of the study?

Hypotheses

The following are the corresponding hypotheses related to the quantitative research questions which were tested for this study:

H10: There is no significant relationship between military leaders' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and military personnel satisfaction.

H1a: There is a significant relationship between military leaders' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and military personnel satisfaction.

H20: There is no significant relationship between military leaders' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and military personnel organizational commitment.

H2a: There is a significant relationship between military leaders' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and military personnel organizational commitment.

H30: There is no significant relationship between military leaders' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and military personnel turnover intention.

H3a: There is a significant relationship between military leaders' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and military personnel turnover intention.

H40: Gender has no significant mediating/moderating effect on the relationship between military leaders' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and military personnel satisfaction.

H4a: Gender has a significant mediating/moderating effect on the relationship between military leaders' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and military personnel satisfaction.

H50: Gender has no significant mediating/moderating effect on the relationship between military leaders' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and military personnel organizational commitment.

H5a: Gender has a significant mediating/moderating effect on the relationship between military leaders' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and military personnel organizational commitment.

H60: Gender has no significant mediating/moderating effect on the relationship between military leaders' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and military personnel turnover intention.

H6a: Gender has a significant mediating/moderating effect on the relationship between military leaders' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and military personnel turnover intention.

Population and Sample

The target population for this study is the U.S. Army soldiers at a military base in Southeastern United States, notably, the Fort Bragg military installation/Fayetteville military community in North Carolina. Purposive sampling was conducted to recruit participants for both the quantitative and qualitative phases of this study. Purposive sampling is a sampling technique that involves careful selection of participants, such that only those who satisfy the inclusion criteria for the study are included (Duan, Bhaumik, Palinkas, & Hoagwood, 2015; Haas, 2012). The inclusion criteria for the participants of this study are as follows: must have at least one year of experience in the U.S. Army, must have an active status in the U.S. Army, and must be 18 years old and above.

For the quantitative phase of the study, a priori power analysis was conducted to determine the required sample size of participants. Four factors were considered in the power analysis: significance level, effect size, the power of the test, and statistical technique. The significance level, also known as Type I error, refers to the chance of rejecting a null hypothesis given that it is true (Haas, 2012). Most quantitative studies make use of a 95% significance level because it provides enough statistical evidence of a test (Creswell, 2013). The effect size refers to the estimated measurement of the relationship between the variables being considered (Cohen, 1988). Cohen (1998) categorized effect size into small, medium, and large. Berger, Bayarri, and Pericchi (2013) claimed that a medium effect size is better as it strikes a balance between being too strict (small) and too lenient (broad). The power of the test refers to the probability of correctly rejecting a null hypothesis (Sullivan & Feinn, 2012). In quantitative studies, 80% of power is usually used (Sullivan & Feinn, 2012). The statistical test used for this study is multiple linear regression with four predictors (three leadership styles and gender). G*Power analysis (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009) suggests that achieving a statistical power of 80% with a medium effect size ($f^2 = 0.15$) and $p = 0.05$ for multiple linear regression models with four predictors requires a minimum sample of 85 participants. To account for possible withdrawal during the data collection phase, missing data, and the potential number of participants available for recruitment, a total of 100 military personnel were recruited instead.

Generally, there is no set sample size for qualitative research studies (Yin, 2013); however, there was still a need to ensure that the appropriate sample size had been achieved for the study. Marshall, Cardon, Poddar, and Fontenot (2013) noted that sample sizes in qualitative research should not be too small so that it is difficult to achieve data saturation or too large so that it is challenging to undertake an in-depth analysis. Most qualitative studies use sample sizes ranging from five to 20 participants as sufficient to reach saturation (Dworkin, 2012). For this study, the sample size determination was based on expectations related to data saturation, at which point no new findings are introduced by the inclusion of additional participants (Mason, 2010). It is expected that 8–12 participants facilitated data saturation (Dworkin, 2012; Mason, 2010); however, additional sampling was completed until data saturation was attained if 8–12 participants were not sufficient to reach this point.

Geographic or Virtual Location

The geographical location chosen for this study is a military base in Southeastern United States. The research study is concentrated in and around the Fort Bragg military installation and the Fayetteville military community in North Carolina.

Instrumentation

For the quantitative phase of the study, data collection was carried out through the use of a survey instrument constructed by combining several existing tools. This consisted of five parts. Firstly, the survey contained necessary demographic information, especially gender. The items in the demographic questionnaire were coded using numeric categories. For example, gender was coded as 1 for males and 2 for females. Secondly, items measuring leadership style were drawn from the most up-to-date version of the MLQ, which measures various dimensions of leadership, including those included in the full-range model of leadership (Antonakis et al., 2003). Items in the questionnaire were summed up to determine the leadership score of participants. Thirdly, personal satisfaction was measured using the JSS, a quantitative survey that measures job satisfaction (Spector, 1985). The JSS measures job satisfaction using nine facets including pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards (performance-based rewards), operating procedures (required rules and procedures), coworkers, nature of work, and communication. Participants are asked to rate each of the 36 items in the questionnaire based on strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (6). Each subscale involves four items. The responses in each of the subscale items are summed up to determine the score for each subscale. Finally, turnover intention and organizational commitment were measured using items from the 15-item OCQ, which measures organizational commitment and turnover intention (Mowday et al., 1979). The OCQ involves the measure of three subscales, namely affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment scales. Responses in the OCQ for each of the five items in each subscale were summed up to determine the score. All validity, therefore, comes from the pre-existing validation of the survey instruments individually. The present study's combination of these existing instruments should allow it to inherit strong instrumental validity.

For the qualitative phase of the study, semi-structured interviews were used to collect data. Because the researcher wished to take into consideration the way participants responded to questions, a face-to-face interview was deemed to be more appropriate for the current study (Lund, 2012). The researcher conducted the semi-structured interviews using the predetermined interview questions to guide the conversation toward issues underpinning the study. These

interviews with the military personnel served as the data source for the qualitative phase of the study. The questions were designed in a manner that would foster open and accurate communication between the researcher and the participants regarding their perspectives and experiences. The interviews took approximately 30 to 60 minutes per respondent, which were conducted in a private conference room or other secure locations on the soldier's base.

Data Collection

Upon receipt of IRB approval number 1712011022018, the data collection process commenced using the prepared materials of the researcher. The materials included a link to the web-based questionnaire, permission letters to conduct interviews, informed consent form, and an interview guide. The researcher made an announcement about the study through flyers. The flyers contained a brief description of the study, the researcher's bio, inclusion criteria for interested participants, the contact information of the researcher, and the informed consent form as an attachment. The consent form contained the description of the study, its purpose, risks, and benefits, and contact information of the researcher. Only those potential participants who had affirmatively completed the questionnaire and agreed to participate in the interviews proceeded to make an interview appointment. The researcher personally contacted the military personnel and asked them if they were willing to participate in a one-on-one face-to-face interview.

The researcher provided the interviewees with a copy of the questions before the interview so that they might have the opportunity to think them over and be prepared. The researcher started the interview with a set of introductory questions that allowed them to narrate their perspectives, experiences, and understanding about their leaders' leadership styles and how these leadership styles impacted their satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. All interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed.

Data Analysis

For the quantitative phase of the study, both descriptive and inferential statistics were conducted. Descriptive analysis was conducted first to characterize the demographics of the participants as well as their responses to the survey. Descriptive statistics such as frequency, percentage, mean, and standard deviation were computed. Charts such as pie charts and histograms were generated to accompany the descriptive analysis.

Regression analysis was used to test all the hypotheses. Multiple linear regression was used as four independent variables and one dependent variable were considered. The significance of the relationship between the independent variables and dependent variable was analyzed through the regression coefficient associated with each of the independent variables (Nimon & Oswald, 2013). The behavior of the underlying relationship between the variables was examined through the sign of the regression coefficient. If the sign of the regression coefficient is positive, it means that the independent variable positively affects the dependent variable, that is, as one rises in value, the other does as well, and vice versa. On the other hand, if the sign of the regression coefficient is negative, it means that the independent variable negatively affects the dependent variable, that is, as one rises in value, the value of the other variable decreases, and vice versa. All analyses were carried out using the latest version of the SPSS software package with the significance level set at 95% (Mondal, 2008).

Because simple linear regression analyses are parametric tests, there is a need to examine first whether the data gathered adhere to the statistical assumptions of these tests. Notably, the normality, linearity, and homogeneity assumptions were tested. The normality assumption assumes that the test data are generally distributed with a mean of zero, one standard deviation, and a symmetric bell-shaped curve (Finch, 2005). A standard probability plot was generated to examine if there was a violation of the normality assumption. The premise of linearity indicating the relationship between variables (i.e., the independent and dependent variables) follows a straight line (Bücher, Dette, & Wieczorek, 2011). A scatter plot with standard regression output was generated to examine if there was a violation of the linearity assumption. The premise of homoscedasticity refers to the equal variance of all values of the independent variables around the regression line (Finch, 2005). A residual scatter plot was generated to examine if there was a violation of the linearity assumption.

For the qualitative phase of the study, the data collected from the interviews were analyzed using Tesch's (1990) eight steps for coding and analyzing qualitative data. These steps are detailed in Table 1 below.

Table 1:- Tesch's Eight Steps for Coding and Analyzing Qualitative Data

Step 1 The researcher listens to the audiotapes and carefully reads the transcripts word by word to gain a sense of the whole. Observation notes are taken and documents are visited to substantiate what has been learned from the audiotapes and transcripts. Notes and ideas coming to mind can be written in this step.

Step 2 The researcher works on the interviews one by one by reading them thoroughly, analyzing the answers, and writing the topics emerging from each one.

Step 3 The researcher creates a list of all emerged topics from Step 2. The topics are clustered and organized into columns.

Step 4 The topics are coded or abbreviated, and the topic list is used as a reference to revise the transcripts. Codes are written next to each appropriate segment in the transcripts, then reviewed to discover any emerging topics.

Step 5 The topics are grouped into categories based on the relevance of the issues.

Step 6 The categories are revised to make the final decision regarding them and then they are recorded and alphabetized.

Step 7 The interview data are reassembled per category to be analyzed.

Step 8 These steps might be repeated as needed.

Steps 1 through 8 as described above were performed with the help of the latest version of the NVivo software. NVivo has features such as character-based coding, rich text capabilities, and multimedia functions that are crucial for qualitative data management.

Human Participants and Ethics Precautions

This study followed all ethical procedures outlined in the California Intercontinental University IRB. First and foremost, the approval of the IRB was secured. This means that no data collection commenced before the IRB approval was obtained. Moreover, the participation of the selected military base and military personnel was voluntary. The military base administrators requested an informed consent form before any military personnel was retrieved and used for the study. The informed consent form contained a brief background of the study, the purpose of the study, data required, and the risk and benefits of the study. No data collection commenced without a signed informed consent form.

All data are anonymous and confidential. No personal identifying information was collected. Pseudo codes, such as Participant #1, were used to tag all the participants. Hard copies of raw data and other documents pertinent to the study were securely kept in a locked filing cabinet inside the personal office of the researcher. Soft copies of raw data and other materials were saved in a password-protected flash drive. All data and documents related to the study will be destroyed after five years. Hard copies will be shredded and soft copies will be deleted.

Validity and Reliability

There are two types of validity, external and internal. External validity refers to the extent of generalized inferences of the research and is based on experiments that help to attain experimental validity (Mohamad et al., 2015). Internal validity relates to whether the research was conducted correctly, which refers to how well the experiment was conducted and whether it avoids likely confounding variables (Peters, Langbein, & Roberts, 2016).

This study potentially lacks external validity by its lack of generalization to the larger population of all U.S. military personnel. In this study, purposive sampling is used from one military base in the southeastern region of the United States. Thus, results cannot be generalized to the general population of all U.S. military personnel. Additionally, the results cannot be generalized to non-military occupations because leadership styles and organizational commitment may be different in non-military fields. Because the researcher did not manipulate any variables, this study does not intend to measure casual relationships.

However, this study does have strong internal validity. Because the researcher sought to determine the correlation between established dependent and independent variables, internal validity is relevant to establish a relationship between the variables (Maiwada & Okey, 2015; Mohamad et al., 2015). Additionally, the parametric assumptions of multiple regression were tested to confirm the appropriateness of the test before analysis. What follows now is the validity and reliability information of the survey instruments that were used for the quantitative phase of the study.

Multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ).

Bass and Avolio (2004) stated that the confirmatory factor analysis determined the levels of convergent and discriminatory validity in the MLQ-5X. The model was established to have the goodness of fit index of .91. A minimum goodness of fit index of .90 is recommended. Moreover, by combining 18 independent samples (N=6,525), Antonakis et al. (2003) were able to conclude that the MLQ attains convergent validity through factor analysis and computation of factor loadings.

Furthermore, the MLQ survey is a reliable instrument for identifying the leadership styles of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leaders (Sadeghi & Lope Pihie, 2012). Previous research indicates that the MLQ instrument has a Cronbach's alpha coefficient that ranges from 0.63 to 0.92 (Maritz, Pretorias, & Plant, 2012). When a set of nine samples (N=2,154) was analyzed for internal consistency using Cronbach's alpha, each of the leadership factor scales was found to have reliabilities between .74 and .94. Furthermore, Taylor et al. (2015) examined the reliability of the MLQ survey in different cultures and found a sufficient level of consistency to identify leadership styles.

Job satisfaction survey (JSS).

The reliability of the JSS was measured using 2,870 samples from human service organizations (Spector, 1985). Cronbach's alphas were computed to assess the internal consistency of the JSS. The resulting Cronbach's alphas for all nine subscales range from 0.60 to 0.91. Different standards for an acceptable level of internal consistency have been suggested. However, researchers agree that a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.60 and higher is deemed acceptable (Vaske, Beaman, & Sponarski, 2017). Therefore, the JSS was considered to have adequate internal consistency given that the internal consistency reliabilities for all the nine subscales were above the range of suggested acceptable limits.

The convergent validity of the JSS was established with a multi-trait multi-method Job Description Index (JDI) as validity instrument, which was developed by Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1987). However, Spector (1985) did not specifically report the convergent validity scores. Regarding the discriminant validity of the JSS, Spector stated that the scores were moderate to low. Lastly, to measure the content validity of the JSS, work factors were included in the survey and tested for correlation (Sanne, Sluiter, Verbeek, & Frings-Dresen, 2003). Sanne et al. (2003) reported that the scores were adequate for them to establish the content validity of the JSS.

Organizational commitment questionnaire (OCQ).

The validity and reliability of OCQ were tested by Commeiras and Fournier (2001) using the industrial sales force as the samples. The Cronbach's alpha for the entire questionnaire was 0.81, which is considered reliable enough, meaning that the instrument has internal consistency in measuring the constructs across different samples. Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to determine the convergent validity of the instrument. The results revealed that all factor loadings of the constructs were above 0.50. This indicates that the survey items measure the constructs under consideration. Correlating it with other similar questionnaires, the authors reported that OCQ had established discriminant validity.

In qualitative research, the truth value is defined by human experiences and how those experiences are perceived by those experiencing. To establish and maintain credibility in qualitative research, the realities experienced by those studied must be adequately represented and not defined by the researcher (Krefting, 1991). To achieve reliability, the researcher must include persons familiar with the phenomenon in the study, present accurate descriptions of the experience of participants, and interpret those descriptions in a way that would be immediately recognizable to those that have experienced (Krefting, 1991). For this study, to ensure credibility, the time spent in collecting data was adequate so that themes and categories developed are representative of the experiences as described by participants (Creswell & Miller, 2000). Additionally, member checking was used to verify that the themes and categories identified are reflective of the participants' experiences (Carter, Bryant-Lukosius, DiCenso, Blythe, & Neville, 2014).

Contribution to Social, Practical, or Organizational Change

The proposed study has both academic and practical importance. Academically, the study addresses call for further research made in the literature. Specifically, in a survey of Army ROTC members, Gonzales (2016) found that transformational leadership had a significant effect on the satisfaction of program members, whereas transactional

leadership did not. However, these results were limited to ROTC members and the researcher called for further research into how these results might extend to active-duty officers.

Additionally, the researcher called for a better understanding of whether gender affects this perception (Gonzales, 2016). The traditional great man theory attributed leadership qualities most readily to men and it would be interesting to see if gender on the part of leaders or followers affects the effects of transformational or transactional leadership styles (Amanchukwu et al., 2015). Secondly, in their overall review of the literature on leadership style, Jing and Avery (2016) found that almost no research on leadership style tried to explore why leadership style affects employees the way it does. The proposed study will answer this call for research by following up the initial quantitative study with an explanatory qualitative component that seeks to determine the reasons behind the results from the perspective of the participants.

Practically speaking, the study is critical because military leadership is lacking. Though arguing that the military has more good leaders than bad, Reed (2015) noted that, because of bad leaders, “All lieutenants were abused at some point or another and we took it in stride” (p. viii). Fallows (2016) argued that the effectiveness of leadership in the modern American military has been hurt by a lack of criticality and oversight that has resulted from the elevation of soldiers to an untouchable “heroic” status, which has prevented poor leaders from being adequately held accountable for their failures. Regardless of whether this is true, internal army research suggests that there is a lack of practical leadership training for junior officers and that officers do not perceive their training as relevant to their actual leadership experiences (Riley et al., 2016). This suggests a need to improve leadership. Moreover, many of the characteristics linked to transformational or transactional leadership are also linked to cadet turnover in military academies (Holtom et al., 2014). In a volunteer army with a small portion of the population enrolling (Fallows, 2016), turnover must essentially be avoided and an improved understanding of the most effective leadership style(s) in the military can help to train officers to motivate their subordinates better and avoid a turnover.

Summary

The purpose of this explanatory sequential mixed-methods study is to understand the influence of leadership style on military personnel satisfaction, organizational commitment, and desire to stay. The target population for the study is the U.S. military personnel at an army base in Southeastern United States. Data were collected using surveys and semi-structured interviews. For the quantitative phase of the study, a total of 100 military personnel were recruited to answer the survey.

Meanwhile, for the qualitative phase of the study, a total of 8–12 participants were interviewed. Multiple regression analysis and content analysis were conducted to analyze both the quantitative and qualitative data, respectively. Chapter 4 presents the results of the data analysis. Chapter 5 presents the discussion and conclusion of the study.

Chapter 4: Results:-

In this chapter, I discuss the findings from the quantitative and qualitative analyses of the data collected. The purpose of this explanatory sequential mixed-methods study was to understand the influence of leadership style on military personnel satisfaction, organizational commitment, and desire to stay. For the quantitative portion of the study, a convenience sample of X military personnel at an army base in Southeastern United States and with at least one year of experience took surveys designed to measure leaders’ leadership style, as well as their satisfaction, organizational commitment, and desire to stay. Statistical analysis using SPSS v24 was used to yield answers to the study’s quantitative research questions. For qualitative research, an interview protocol was developed using these results and 10 military personnel were interviewed to gather further data on their experiences with leadership. NVivo12 by QSR was used to manage the data and thematic analysis was used to develop the final themes.

General Description of the Participants

The target population for this study was U.S. Army soldiers at a military base in Southeastern United States, particularly in and around the Fort Bragg military installation and the Fayetteville army community within the state of North Carolina. Purposive sampling was conducted to recruit participants for both the quantitative and qualitative phases of this study. Purposive sampling is a sampling technique that involves careful selection of participants, such that only those who satisfy the inclusion criteria for the study are included (Duan et al., 2015; Haas, 2012). The inclusion criteria for the participants of this study were as follows: must have at least one year of experience in the U.S. Army, must have an active status in the U.S. Army, and must be 18 years old and above.

A total of 102 participants completed the survey questionnaires employed in the study. Table 2 presents the demographic characteristics of the participants in the study. About 74.5% of the samples were male (n=76), while 25.5% of the samples were female (n=26). In terms of age, half of the participants were between ages 31 and 40 (n=51), while 28.4% of the participants were 18 to 30 years old (n=29) and 14.7% of the participants were 41 to 50 years old (n=15). Regarding the race of the sampled participants, the majority of the participants were African Americans (n=72, 70.6%). In terms of the highest educational attainment, 30 participants had completed a bachelor's degree (29.4%), 25 participants had completed a graduate degree (24.5%), 18 participants had completed some college (17.6%), and 12 participants had completed high school (11.8%). In general, the participants were male African Americans from 31 to 40 years' old who had completed at least a bachelor's degree.

Table 2:- Frequencies and Percentages of Demographic Characteristics (N = 102).

		Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	76	74.5
	Female	26	25.5
	Total	102	100.0
Age	18–30	29	28.4
	31–40	51	50.0
	41–50	15	14.7
	51–60	4	3.9
	Above 60	3	2.9
	Total	102	100.0
Race	Another race	2	2.0
	Asian or Asian American	5	4.9
	Black or African American	72	70.6
	Hispanic or Latino	9	8.8
	White or Caucasian	14	13.7
	Total	102	100.0
Educational Attainment	Associate Degree	17	16.7
	Bachelor's Degree	30	29.4
	Graduate Degree	25	24.5
	High School	12	11.8
	Some College	18	17.6
	Total	102	100.0

For the qualitative portion of the study, 10 military personnel were interviewed. The researcher found it essential to interview the participants to access and gather their firsthand experiences about leadership within the military institution. The 10 participants had at least one year of experience in the U.S. Army and had an active status in the U.S. Army during the time of the interview.

Research Questions

The study involved both quantitative and qualitative data analyses. The following are the research questions addressed in the survey:

Quantitative research questions.

RQ1: What relationship does leadership style as measured using the full-range leadership model have on military personnel satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention?

RQ2: What effect does gender have on the results of RQ1?

Qualitative research question.

RQ3: What is/are the mechanism(s) of the relationship(s) uncovered in the quantitative portion of the study?

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were tested for the quantitative research questions:

H10: There is no relationship between leadership styles as measured using the full-range leadership model and any of military personnel satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention.

H1a: There is a statistically significant relationship between leadership style as measured using the full-range leadership model and at least one of military personnel satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention.

H20: There is no significant relationship between military leaders' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and military personnel organizational commitment.

H2a: There is a significant relationship between military leaders' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and military personnel organizational commitment.

H30: There is no significant relationship between military leaders' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and military personnel turnover intention.

H3a: There is a significant relationship between military leaders' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and military personnel turnover intention.

H40: Gender has no significant mediating/moderating effect on the relationship between military leaders' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and military personnel satisfaction.

H4a: Gender has a significant mediating/moderating effect on the relationship between military leaders' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and military personnel satisfaction.

H50: Gender has no significant mediating/moderating effect on the relationship between military leaders' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and military personnel organizational commitment.

H5a: Gender has a significant mediating/moderating effect on the relationship between military leaders' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and military personnel organizational commitment.

H60: Gender has no significant mediating/moderating effect on the relationship between military leaders' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and military personnel turnover intention.

H6a: Gender has a significant mediating/moderating effect on the relationship between military leaders' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and military personnel turnover intention.

Sample Size

For the quantitative phase of the study, a priori power analysis was conducted to determine the required sample size of participants. Four factors were considered in the power analysis: significance level, effect size, the power of the test, and statistical technique. Considering 95% significance level, medium effect size, 80% power, and a multiple linear regression with four predictors, G*Power (Faul et al., 2009) analysis suggested a minimum sample of 85 participants. The actual data collection involved 102 participants who completed the quantitative questionnaire. A post hoc power analysis was conducted to determine the strength of the samples to provide statistically valid results. Based on the post hoc power analysis, 102 participants provided a power of 97%, which is above the acceptable level. Thus, the samples gathered in the study were sufficient to provide statistically valid results.

For the qualitative portion of the study, a total of 10 participants were interviewed. In qualitative studies, the total sample size is not a critical concern of the researcher. Instead, the richness of the meanings shared and the content of the interviews are of greater importance (Macnee & McCabe, 2008). Therefore, the researcher of the current study stopped searching for new participants when data saturation was achieved. According to Macnee and McCabe (2008), saturation is the point during data collection where data have started to become repetitive and no new information is being developed.

Pilot Tests

In the qualitative component of the study, the interview guide was pilot-tested before the actual semi-structured interview sessions were conducted. The interview guide was reviewed and examined by a panel of three experts in leadership to ensure the appropriateness of the questions to the participants. The feedback and recommendations of the experts provided the researcher with the opportunity to amend the interview guide and questions before the formal interview sessions. The modifications were focused on extracting rich and meaningful perceptions and experiences from the participants to better address the final research question of the study.

Data Collection

Upon receipt of IRB approval number 1712011022018, the data collection process commenced using the prepared materials of the researcher. The documents included a link to the web-based questionnaire, permission letters to conduct interviews, the informed consent form, and an interview guide. The researcher made an announcement about the study through flyers. The flyers contained a brief description of the study, the researcher's bio, inclusion criteria for interested participants, the contact information of the researcher, and the informed consent form as an attachment. The consent form contained the description of the study, its purpose, risks, and benefits, and contact information of the researcher. For the quantitative portion of the study, participants were asked to access the link to Survey Monkey to answer the survey questionnaire. Upon accessing the link, the participants were asked to read and agree to the informed consent form. Only participants who agreed to the informed consent form were directed to the survey questionnaire. Participants who completed the survey questionnaire were invited to participate in the interview session. Only those potential participants who had affirmatively completed the questionnaire and agreed to participate in the interviews proceeded to make an interview appointment. The researcher personally contacted the military personnel and asked them if they were willing to participate in a one-on-one face-to-face interview.

The researcher provided the interviewees with a copy of the questions before the interview so that they might have the opportunity to think them over and be prepared. The researcher started the interview with a set of introductory questions that allowed them to narrate their perspectives, experiences, and understanding about their leaders' leadership styles and how these leadership styles impacted their satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. All interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed.

Unit of Analysis and Measurement

The unit of analysis for this study involved individual U.S. Army soldiers at the Fort Bragg military installation/Fayetteville military community in North Carolina, United States. The variables of leadership, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment were measured using continuous scales. Leadership was measured using the scores of participants in the MLQ. Job satisfaction was measured using the scores of participants in the JSS. Organizational commitment and turnover intention were measured using the OCQ. Participants' scores were computed based on their responses in the survey questionnaires employed in the study.

Data Analysis

For the quantitative phase of the study, both descriptive and inferential statistics were conducted. Descriptive analysis was conducted first to characterize the demographics of the participants as well as their responses to the survey. Descriptive statistics such as frequency, percentage, mean, and standard deviation were computed. Charts such as pie charts and histograms were generated to accompany the descriptive analysis.

Regression analysis was used to test all the hypotheses. Specifically, multiple linear regression was used as four independent variables and one dependent variable were considered. The significance of the relationship between the independent variables and dependent variable was analyzed through the regression coefficient associated with each of the independent variables (Nimon & Oswald, 2013). The behavior of the underlying relationship between the variables was examined through the sign of the regression coefficient. If the sign of the regression coefficient is positive, it means that the independent variable positively affects the dependent variable, that is, as one rises in value, the other does as well, and vice versa. On the other hand, if the sign of the regression coefficient is negative, it means that the independent variable negatively affects the dependent variable, that is, as one rises in value, the value of the other variable decreases, and vice versa. All analyses were carried out using the latest version of the SPSS software package with the significance level set at 95% (Mondal, 2008).

Because simple linear regression analyses are parametric tests, there is a need to examine first whether the data gathered adhere to the statistical assumptions of these tests. Notably, the normality, linearity, and homogeneity

assumptions were tested. The normality assumption assumes that the test data are generally distributed with a mean of zero, one standard deviation, and a symmetric bell-shaped curve (Finch, 2005). A standard probability plot was generated to examine if there was a violation of the normality assumption. The premise of linearity indicating the relationship between variables (i.e., the independent and dependent variables) follows a straight line (Bücher et al., 2011). A scatter plot with standard regression output was generated to examine if there was a violation of the linearity assumption. The assumption of homoscedasticity refers to the equal variance of all values of the independent variables around the regression line (Finch, 2005). A residual scatter plot was generated to examine if there was a violation of the linearity assumption.

For the qualitative portion of the study, thematic analysis was the chosen data analysis method. Braun and Clarke (2006) described thematic analysis as a “method for identifying, analyzing, and reporting patterns or themes” found within the data (p. 79). In this case, all 10 interview transcripts were analyzed to extract the most meaningful perceptions and experiences shared by the interviewed military personnel. Braun and Clarke’s six thematic analysis steps were followed. These are the following: (a) “familiarizing of oneself with the data; (b) generating of initial codes; (c) searching for themes; (d) reviewing of themes; (e) defining and naming of themes; and (f) producing of themes” (p. 87). Each step was carefully followed by the researcher and will be further explained and demonstrated in the next sections of the research study.

Coding and codebook generation.

Following Braun and Clarke’s (2006) thematic analysis steps, the interviews were coded to address the qualitative research question of the study. Interviews were manually coded and NVivo12 by QSR was employed to systematically code and tabulate the initial findings of the researcher. The researcher first read and reread all 10 transcripts to familiarize himself with the data. This was followed by the generation of the initial codes, which the data were deemed relevant by the researcher based on the research questions of the study. In this case, thematic categories were also formed to exhaust the data from the interviews and thoroughly address the research questions of the survey. The following classes were of great significance: male vs. female leadership; leadership, motivation, and commitment in the military; leadership recommendations. Under these categories, codes were assigned in search of the study themes in the next steps of the analysis. Themes were then reviewed continuously as the researcher examined the interview transcripts. With the continuous analysis, the researcher also defined and named the themes based on the meanings shared by the participants from their interview responses. Upon finalizing the names, files containing the initial themes were uploaded on NVivo12 by QSR. This software was crucial in determining the final themes of the study and methodically identifying their levels of significance. In line with this, major themes were the coded themes with the highest number of participant references. Minor themes were the other significant findings that followed the essential themes, receiving fewer referrals. Meanwhile, subthemes were also incorporated to present in detail the meanings and even examples of the major and minor themes as deemed necessary during the analysis. A total of 33 themes were generated with the help of NVivo12 by QSR. In particular, four major themes, six minor themes, and 13 subthemes were created. Figure 2 shows the sample codebook from the software.

Nodes				
Name	Files	References		
Q3. What is or are the mechanism(s) of the relationship(s) uncovered in the qu		0		0
TC1. Male vs. Female Leadership		0		0
Varying Female leadership styles		1		7
Needing to constantly prove themselves (stricter, overperformer)		1		6
Having the tendency of being more emotional		1		2
Having a more open communication style		1		1
More organized and detailed in managing tasks		1		1
Varying Male leadership styles		1		5
More consistent in their style and performance (open and helpful)		1		4
More dominant and superior		1		1
Having equal abilities and outputs		1		3

TC2. Leadership, motivation, and commitment in the military		0	0
Needing effective leaders to motivate the soldiers		1	6
Focused on formalities and sternness		1	3
Focused on personal motivations		1	2
Lack of trust leading to micromanagement		1	2
Lacking incentives to motivate the soldiers		1	6
Having effective and capable leaders to motivate the soldiers		1	5
Presence of genuine and caring leaders		1	5
Presence of dedicated and enthusiastic leaders		1	2
TC3. Leadership recommendations		0	0
Practicing an active and open communication with the soldiers		1	8
Practicing collaboration and teamwork between leaders and subordinates		1	3
Involving all team members in the decision-making process		1	3
Practicing fairness and equality among members		1	3
Needing to develop leadership training programs for junior soldiers		1	2
Following a standardized evaluation or assessment process		1	2

Figure 2:- NVivo Codebook: The Final List of Themes.

Qualitative Results

RQ3. What is/are the mechanism(s) of the relationship(s) uncovered in the quantitative portion of the study?

The third research question explores the qualitative aspect of the study that focuses on the in-depth discussion of the mechanisms of the relationships uncovered in the quantitative portion. From the analysis of the interviews, three thematic categories were formed: male versus female leadership; leadership, motivation, and commitment in the military; the leadership recommendations based on the experiences of the interviewed participants. A total of 23 themes, four major themes, six minor themes, and 13 subthemes, were uncovered to address the final research question.

It was established from the analysis that females have varying leadership styles where they display the following characteristics: needing to prove themselves (stricter, over performing) consistently; having the tendency of being more emotional; having a more open communication style; the ability to be more organized and detailed in managing tasks. The majority of the participants also reported the need for effective leaders who can motivate the soldiers. Currently, the participants find the following practices to reduce the motivation and effectiveness of the soldiers: the leaders being focused on extreme formalities and sternness, personal motivations, and the lack of trust leading to micromanagement. Additionally, the participants also reported a lack of incentives to motivate the soldiers. Finally, the critical recommendation shared was the need to practice active and open communication with the soldiers. Table 3 contains the themes addressing the qualitative research question of the study.

Table 3:- Display of Themes Addressing Research Question 3.

Thematic Category	Themes	Number of References	Percentage of References
Thematic Category 1. Male vs. Female Leadership	Varying female leadership styles * <i>Needing to prove themselves (stricter, over performing) constantly</i> * <i>Having the tendency of being more emotional</i> * <i>Having a more open communication style</i> * <i>Being more organized and detailed in managing</i>	7	70%

	<i>tasks</i>		
	Varying male leadership styles <i>*More consistent in their style and performance (open and helpful)</i> <i>*More dominant and superior</i>	5	50%
	Having equal abilities and outputs	3	30%
Thematic Category 2. Leadership, motivation, and commitment in the military	Needing effective leaders to motivate the soldiers <i>*Focused on formalities and sternness</i> <i>*Focused on personal motivations</i> <i>*Lack of trust leading to micromanagement</i>	6	60%
	Lacking incentives to motivate the soldiers	6	60%
	Having effective and capable leaders to motivate the soldiers <i>*Presence of genuine and caring leaders</i> <i>*Presence of dedicated and enthusiastic leaders</i>	5	50%
Thematic Category 3. Leadership recommendations	Practicing active and open communication with the soldiers	8	80%
	Practicing collaboration and teamwork between leaders and subordinates <i>* Involving all team members in the decision-making process</i>	3	30%
	Practicing fairness and equality among members	3	30%
	Needing to develop leadership training programs for junior soldiers	2	20%
	Following a standardized evaluation or assessment process	2	20%

Note: *subtheme/s

Thematic category 1: Male vs. female leadership.

The first thematic category of the study contains the discussion of the participants' perceptions about the similarities and differences of a male and female leadership. The majority of the participants found that the leadership styles of both genders can be differentiated through various factors. In particular, the females were observed to be more focused and stricter than males as they always found the need to prove themselves. Women leaders were also deemed to be more emotional but were more willing and open to communicate. Finally, they were also observed to be more organized and detailed in managing tasks.

Meanwhile, the perception shared by the participants on the male leaders received fewer references. The participants shared that male leaders were more consistent in their style and performance (i.e., they were more open and helpful) and were more dominant and superior than their female counterparts. Another minor theme uncovered was that both genders had equal abilities and outputs. Table 4 contains the themes under the first thematic category.

Table 4:- Display of Themes Addressing Thematic Category 1.

Thematic Category	Themes	Number of References	Percentage of References
Thematic Category 1. Male vs. Female Leadership	Varying female leadership styles <i>* Needing to prove themselves (stricter, over performing) constantly</i> <i>*Having the tendency of being more emotional</i> <i>*Having a more open communication style</i> <i>*More organized and detailed in managing tasks</i>	7	70%
	Varying male leadership styles <i>*More consistent in their style and performance (open and helpful)</i>	5	50%

	<i>*More dominant and superior</i>		
	Having equal abilities and outputs	3	30%

Note: *subtheme/s

Major theme 1: Varying female leadership styles.

The first major theme of the study was the finding that female leaders displayed various leadership styles and characteristics. Seven of the 10 participants shared how women felt more stressed and pressured as they always needed to prove themselves due to the perceived presence of gender inequality. Moreover, the participants believed that female leaders were more emotional but were more open to communicating with their peers. Further, they were also found to be organized in managing and delegating the tasks to their teams. Each subtheme is discussed in detail below.

Subtheme 1: Needing to prove themselves (stricter, over performing) constantly.

The first subtheme that emerged was the female leaders' desire to prove themselves to others continually. The participants indicated how women tended to be stricter as they were pressured to validate their position or ranking to others. As Participant 1 shared, female leaders were more uptight and cautious with their words and actions. The participant believed that this is due to the pressure of the women leaders to excel and break the preconceptions against female leaders:

I think one of the most significant differences between the males and female leaders, from what I've noticed, a lot of the female leaders don't... It seems like they have a chip on their shoulder or they have to prove themselves. And it could be because of the environment that they're in, in a male-dominated world, that they figure they have to show no weakness. But as far as getting the job done, I think they're both just as effective, the male or the female. It's just the style differences between the two.

Participant 4 also echoed Participant 1's statement. This participant explained how female leaders seemed to experience extreme pressure to prove themselves and even outdid their male counterparts. The participant stated, "Whereas the females feel that they are a little lower than their male counterpart. So, when they come in, they feel they have to do extra to outperform their male counterparts in leadership." Participant 6 added how female leaders were often treated unfairly by their peers and viewed indifferently. As a result, female leaders tended to work harder and take their tasks more seriously in order to prove their critics otherwise. The participant commented:

Well, from my point of view, the difference between male and female leadership is that I think that female leadership has to prove otherwise. Where the males take it as normal, the female is always looked upon to where they have to prove themselves and, as a result, they tend to at times over perform and, as a result, ending up killing the morale of the organization. An example is that there's always the belief that men are very strong and, therefore, when the man is in a leadership position, no one really tends to question their style or doubt their intent. But whenever a female is in leadership, the opposite is expected, and therefore for her to be able to achieve what the male counterpart did, she has to over perform. That is why I think that society, or not society per se, but the military itself as compared to society is not being fair and therefore puts undue pressure on the female command or commander to over perform just to be able to be looked on the same level as the male and as a result, at the end, the soldiers lose morale because they keep rolling, rolling, rolling non-stop, and at the end their morale, motivation, and everything get drained. So, I think that due to that expectation, the female leadership is always not treated fairly due to the status quo and, as a result, sometimes kills morale.

Similarly, Participant 7 explained how females tended to work harder as they had more to prove as female leaders. The participant discussed how males are more direct and focused on their work while females have the inclination of actively working in order to outperform their peers to validate their position. This participant stated:

Over the course of time, what our roles as females in the military have played just in general and the progression that we have in today's army society is pretty much... The female, sometimes I feel as though they have a little bit of something more to prove. And I don't think that it's a full scope of what their actual leadership is because I feel like sometimes a persona is put on more for females than males. Males seem very direct with what they want, who they have the intention for. And what I mean by that is I feel like for the certain type of leaders they tend to flock more to those soldiers that they have that they see similarities in and they tend to focus on them themselves for males. Females, I feel like they have that something to prove and then there's...it's just for everybody. I feel like certain

leaders can focus on certain soldiers and put some off to the side. And I notice that with a lot of the males. And I feel like females they have that broad scope, they want to affect everybody, they need to prove that, “Hey, these are the things and capabilities that I have.” But that’s just what I’ve noticed. Of course, it’s factual; it’s the things that I’ve noticed going through the [years]...

Subtheme 2: Having the tendency of being more emotional.

The second subtheme that emerged was the tendency of the women leaders to be more emotional than the male leaders. According to the two participants who stated the subtheme, female leaders faced a lot of pressure and responsibilities to manage. At times, things might get out of control and women tended to be sensitive and emotional. Participant 4 stated:

Females are so much and tied to families; they are much involved in family affairs than the male for the most part. It may not be the case for every leader who is a male or female, but realistically, females carry a lot of things from the home and that outweighs them and put a lot of pressure on them also when they get into leadership. And the feeling that they have to put in extra in order to catch up with the male counterparts in leadership. Yeah, so I think that is what I think is the main difference.

Subtheme 3: Having a more open communication style.

The third subtheme under the dominant theme was the female leaders’ practice of a more open communication style. One participant shared how female leaders were better communicators than their male counterparts. As Participant 1 discussed, female leaders were more detailed in managing their subordinates; they ensured that all aspects of their duties were addressed and communicated at all times. The participant stated:

I would think the females made better leadership because they seemed like they were more thorough. In my experience, most of the female leaderships explained a lot more. The communication line was a little more open with the female leaders. Some of the male leaders, I don’t know if it was on purpose or by design, but I had felt that the communication wasn’t there like it should have been. So, I would say the female tend to be a better leader in that aspect.

Subtheme 4: More organized and detailed in managing tasks.

The final subtheme under the first major theme is the finding that female leaders were more thorough in terms of developing and implementing their plans. According to Participant 3, female leaders worked hard to guarantee that all aspects were covered as they completed a task. Meanwhile, male leaders tended to be simpler and more straightforward than their female counterparts, according to Participant 3:

So main difference is pretty much... I think maybe this is a stereotype, but men do just like... Don’t plan, just go ahead, do this, do this, kind of simple. Females, more like detail. So, I think it’s good and bad things for each person. For males, sometimes it’s not complicated, just do it and then finish. It’s simple, clean everything. But sometimes what I feel female leaderships, sometimes they get more emotional than the males. So sometimes they get self-frustration sometimes, or they try to do too much details, something really nicely, and that makes more unit organization hard and little, little stress makes bigger stress.

Thematic category 2: Leadership, motivation, and commitment in the military.

The second thematic category contains the discussion of the leadership, motivation, and commitment in the military. Under this category, two major themes were uncovered. The majority of the participants indicated the need for effective leaders who could motivate the soldiers or their subordinates. Currently, participants complained of having “toxic leaders” who were more focused on work formalities and their personal motivations. They also indicated how these leaders lacked trust and often micromanaged the subordinates. The same number of participants also reported another source of demotivation, which is the lack of incentives to encourage the soldiers and reward their hard work and effort. Only one minor theme emerged, which is the presence of effective and capable leaders to motivate the soldiers, where the participants highlighted the importance of genuine and caring leaders as well as dedicated and enthusiastic ones. Table 5 displays the themes addressing the second thematic category of the study.

Table 5:- Display of Themes Addressing Thematic Category 2.

Thematic Category	Themes	Number of References	Percentage of References
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Thematic Category 2. Leadership, motivation, and commitment in the military	Needing effective leaders to motivate the soldiers <i>*Focused on formalities and sternness</i> <i>*Focused on personal motivations</i> <i>*Lack of trust leading to micromanagement</i>	6	60%
	Lacking incentives to motivate the soldiers	6	60%
	Having effective and capable leaders to motivate the soldiers <i>*Presence of genuine and caring leaders</i> <i>*Presence of dedicated and enthusiastic leaders</i>	5	50%

Note: *subtheme/s

Major theme 2: Needing effective leaders to motivate the soldiers.

The second major theme of the study reports the need for effective leaders who can drive the soldiers under them. The majority of the participants discussed the presence of “toxic leaders” in the military with leadership styles and characteristics that discouraged and lowered the morale of the soldiers. Participants had observed the leaders’ focus on their personal motivations and lack of trust on the subordinates. Each subtheme is thoroughly discussed below.

Subtheme 1: Focused on formalities and sternness.

The first subtheme established was the focus only on the formalities and sternness of the leaders. The majority of the participants believed that the leaders’ strict and formal style did not positively work on the current soldiers under them. Participant 6 shared his personal experience of having a “toxic leader.” He explained that leaders who were not willing to interact and communicate with their subordinates heavily influenced the morale of the team. An example shared was the following:

You wake up and it’s like you just wanna go, whether it’s for the PT run, whether it’s the organizational day, whether it’s your day-to-day activities, knowing that you have leadership, and if I say “toxic leader,” I’m just not talking about the company commander, the battalion commander or the brigade commander. I’m talking about even the squad leader, the section sergeant; they’re all leaders. And if you have a leader in one of any of those levels, who is a very toxic leader, you just killed everything. Because at the end of the day, when the soldier is off duty, whether living in housing or the barracks when that soldier is off duty, all he remembers is that few seconds with that leader. And from that point, that soldier’s morale is getting killed each day.

Participant 8 echoed the effect of a toxic leader on the self-esteem and morale of the soldiers. Moreover, a leader who is not capable of approaching and communicating with the soldiers negatively affects the subordinates’ performance and productivity. The participant explained the following:

They definitely affect it negatively. If you have leadership that isn’t really there to help you, then obviously you’re not gonna wanna perform at the highest standard, and you’re not going to feel or remember your purpose for joining and why you’re there, what you’re doing. And honestly, that just discourages you from being in the military, period. You literally just want to get out because you don’t wanna deal with these people, you don’t wanna see them. And unfortunately, when you join, you have to see these people every day. So as a team, it definitely makes it difficult to all work together if your leadership isn’t where it needs to be. So, it makes it difficult for you to perform at a high standard, and that sucks for everybody because you’re only as strong as your weakest link.

Subtheme 2: Focused on personal motivations. The second subtheme that emerged was the focus on the personal motivations of the leaders. The participants explained the current lack of leadership within their organization as they had already shifted their focus on their personal goals instead of the institutions. Participant 1 complained about the lack of leadership in the military. The participant observed how soldiers and their leaders chose to stay in the organization for their personal or internal goals. The participant narrated:

Right now, I think the military is going through a significant change. And with a lot of the service members that I know is confusion as for, do they wanna stay? If they wanna stay, it’s more of a personal reason, and nobody is motivating them. Seems to motivate them to want to remain except their own internal goals that they want to do a 20-year or more stint in the military. I don’t see where leadership is affecting that right now because I don’t see any leadership, really. I think it’s more of... They got so much they’re trying to do that there’s no leadership in it.

They're just trying to get it done. Whatever this big transition that they're going through right now. I don't really want to say it does affect because like I said, majority of the people that I think I know in the military, for them to stay in it's more of a personal reason for staying, not the leadership. In the last ten years or so, I've never heard anybody say, "Well, I'm staying because this is a good unit." Or, "I'm staying because I want to dedicate my life to the military." They're staying because they need to finish their degree, they're staying because they need some more medical benefits because their wife is going to have a baby and the army needs to bear the cost, but not because, "Well, I think my leadership is so great, I wanna stay in."

Subtheme 3: Lack of trust leading to micromanagement.

The third subtheme under the second major theme of the study was the lack of trust leading to the micromanagement of the leaders. The participants believed this was another negative practice that led to the negative outlook and performance of the soldiers under their leaders. Participant 3 described the morale of their organization as low because of the current leadership. The participant indicated how younger and junior soldiers felt stressed and pressured when the leader micromanaged each task or duty that they were assigned to. Participant 3 witnessed this experience firsthand:

I think the satisfaction is very low. I think very, very low right now; even morale is very low. Everyone's trying to leave somewhere, try to leave this place. Because what I think, for our First sergeant, I feel like she's doing too much micro-management, in my opinion. Because when I see something, if something happening, I think the first sergeant pretty much direct the way to... Pretty much give information to the NCOs, and the NCOs pretty much bring it down to the enlisted, so enlisted don't get stressed too much. But sometimes when we're all together and, for example, at Commander's call or something, unit gathering, she put out, I feel like, too much information for the junior enlisted also.

Participant 5 shared another observation about the negative implications of micromanagement on the junior military members. The participant discussed the theme of the "zero tolerance" military style where leaders were hesitant to delegate tasks due to the leaders' fear of needing to be accountable for the mistakes of their subordinates. As a result, the leaders tended to micromanage their subordinates, losing their trust and confidence on their members. This participant narrated,

So, what I think, I think that the present military... And one thing I want to stress here is that, when you talk of military style, it's also affected by...something called zero tolerance. Zero tolerance is that if you make one mistake, you are slammed for that. They don't give you that kind of second chance. So, the leaders, our current leaders, because of all this zero tolerance, they try to kind of... They have adopted some leadership style that I see in some unit is more like they don't want to delegate. They do a lot of micromanagement. And how do they do the micromanagement? Because a leader, you are responsible for everything that happens in your organization. So, one thing that has become is that there's a lot of micromanagement. Though this is not... Micromanagement per se is a kind of leadership style that is geared toward authoritarian or direct kind of leadership. But people want to know what is going on because they don't want to be on the blind side of it. So, as you talk about the present military style, there's a lot of micromanagement within the system. And so, when leaders think that they can't be trusted, they can't be relied upon. Everything that they do, somebody, their leader, is just standing there to know what is going on. Even the very small thing, then it's kind of leads to dissatisfaction. And that's why some of these leaders and also soldiers who are committed to the organization try to leave.

Major theme 3: Lacking incentives to motivate the soldiers.

The third major theme of the study is the lack of incentives to motivate the soldiers. Six of the 10 participants explained how leaders should also be aware of the needs of their subordinates and address them accordingly. According to Participant 2, incentives or benefits must be offered to the soldiers in order to retain more troops and encourage them to work harder for the organization. The participant suggested the provision of benefits such as financial aid and tuition assistance for those who would want to pursue their education:

I think a good revenue that really the army is providing to the soldier like giving financial aid, like tuition assistance. And the GI Bill I think this is a good way that the army can give this morale resources to the soldier. I think with the fissured years. In an increasing on those kinds of benefit, they will retain more troops in the army and also the army will gain more personnel.

Participant 3 added the importance of a well-structured plan for their military unit. In addition, more rewards to recognize the hard work and effort of the members can boost the morale of the military members as well. The participant expressed the following:

Specifically, in this unit, is pretty much what I said previously, maybe more rewards and a good accomplishment for everyone. And maybe the first sergeant can little bit step back from the junior enlisted, [chuckle] and then give them what she wants them to do through their NCOs and let NCOs decide it, or let give the junior enlisted, and more... How do I say this? More prepared plan. Because sometimes one plan is like just shoot it there, and then nothing backup. And if not happen, they say, "Actually never mind." Cos we don't want that happening every time.

Furthermore, Participant 4 acknowledged the importance of rewards to encourage military members. This participant shared how the provision of rewards can communicate the value and worth of the military members and therefore increase their morale in the long run:

Yeah, sure, I think that can also affect the turnover apart from the acceptance. Yeah, so I think definitely, at least something that could encourage them, especially... They have a great experience, and that experience has to be valued. It shouldn't be seen as, "Well, you're a soldier, and so that is it." That little years of experience must be well valued. So, I think if it's looked in that direction, definitely that can really have a ripple effect.

Finally, Participant 10 discussed the importance of the provision of resources to enable and encourage the subordinates within a military team. For Participant 10, it is vital to acknowledge the needs of the members in order to demonstrate their value and sustain the good morale of the whole team. The participant believed that each soldier must be valued and the leaders must be knowledgeable of the methods on how to motivate them accordingly:

Resources to develop to becoming a good soldier. And I kind of emphasized this to my leadership that if you guys want us to succeed, information is supposed to be accurate, and they're supposed to put that onto us on time... As I mentioned earlier, the previous leadership kind of drain away all the motivations in soldiers because even if you give it your best, he's going to just look down and spit on your effort. And the next time, you didn't also attempt to give your best, because you know that even if you give it your maximum best, you're still not going to be appreciated, and you're still going to be told to restart everything over, so that has a bad... There has been a recent change, and they're picking up from where he left over and right now, with the current momentum, I think we're heading towards the right direction. And at times there are still highs and lows and stuff along the journey. My current leadership is actually doing their best to bring the best out of each and every troop, or in every soldier. But as I said, there are still some highs and lows and stuff. At times favoritism is everywhere. Maybe you may think you are the right person for the job, but leadership may think otherwise, and you sit down, and you compare like, "I have this, I have this, I think I qualify for this," but leadership will say otherwise.

Thematic category 3: Leadership recommendations.

The third thematic category contains the results of the thematic analysis of the interviews about the leadership recommendations of the participants. The majority of the participants found the practice of active and open communication with the soldiers as the most effective leadership style that must be followed. Four other recommendations were uncovered but received fewer references. The participants also believed in the following: effectiveness of practicing collaboration and teamwork between leaders and subordinates; practicing fairness and equality among members; needing to develop leadership training programs for junior soldiers; following a standardized evaluation or assessment process. Table 6 displays the themes pertaining to the third thematic category of the study.

Table 6:- Display of Themes Addressing Thematic Category 3.

Thematic Category	Themes	Number of References	Percentage of References
Thematic Category 3. Leadership recommendations	Practicing active and open communication with the soldiers	8	80%
	Practicing collaboration and teamwork between leaders and subordinates * Involving all team members in the decision-making	3	30%

	<i>process</i>		
	Practicing fairness and equality among members	3	30%
	Needing to develop leadership training programs for junior soldiers	2	20%
	Following a standardized evaluation or assessment process	2	20%

Note: *subtheme/s

Major theme 4: Practicing active and open communication with the soldiers.

The final major theme established from the thematic analysis is the practicing of active and open communication with the soldiers or the leaders' subordinates. For eight of the 10 participants, communication is the most crucial factor in the relationship between the leaders and the members. As Participant 1 indicated, the military subordinates found it helpful when the leaders tried to communicate with them and show their genuine concern as they interacted with one another:

So, if you give them an explanation why they're doing, provide them with a purpose for why they're doing it, show them their use in the military, I think that would help. I think that would go a long way to boost retention in the military, if they had more of a purpose in the military other than, "Make up that bed." Or, "Sweep that street" [chuckle].

Participant 2 believed that communication is the key to fixing and improving the morale of the members of the organization. According to this participant, the leaders must be open to making themselves available to their subordinates in order to develop more positive perceptions and even relationships with one another. The participant found that the military members tended to be more satisfied with leaders who could relate and communicate with them openly but with an equal level of respect and professionalism:

I think really the natural way that we can fix the morale in our organization, the satisfaction and everything that you just said. People use to like it when you have a communication and receiver. I believe people, they need to realize that they have to take time because sometimes their perception that they in the bill have in this organization are really too busy in what they're doing that they don't have time, some time to sit down with people. And sometimes the perception that people have is that they don't care about them. And then as the head of an organization, you have to be always available to people. So that more than you have more availability to people, they can improve the satisfaction of this organization.

Furthermore, Participant 9 also highlighted the importance of the leaders' willingness to approach and be more available to their subordinates. The participant believed in the power of communication to slowly change the negative morale of the organization and transform it into a more positive workplace for the soldiers:

I think they should come up to the soldiers, know what they need. Talk to the soldiers and know about their feelings. What's going on in their lives so that they will be able to help us, the young soldiers. And then also proper communication, the leadership must find a way to make sure that information is being raised to the top or to the person who is at the top. So, they should provide a platform, proper communication, to make sure that... A proper channel to make sure that information is being reached to whoever is supposed to receive the information. And then also leadership training.

Finally, Participant 10 believed that low productivity is a result of the lack of communication between the leaders and their subordinates. This participant shared several examples of how interaction dramatically changed and improved the environment of their workplace:

Our productivity was low; our performance was going low every day because if he gives you a task, he's not going to provide you with any guidelines. He'll just give you an assignment and along the line, just comes and tells you that, "You're not doing this well. Start over and do this." Instead of him to hold one person accountable for their mistake, he's going to generalize everything and hold the whole company. At times, we just sit down there because one person failed to accomplish the task, and you accomplished yours literally diligently. And because one person messed up, the whole unit will have to stay there, sit down in the company, doing nothing, till when he feels like he's good, and he just dismisses us to go.

So, communication has kind of been the major issue with the army, and I don't know whether it is just the army or it's across the board because of communication... And to be a good soldier is being in the right uniform at the right place at the right time doing the right thing, and without the good information, good communication skills, and this is what happens. You find yourself, you going to be like you're just a mediocre, because you don't have the necessary information.

Results of Hypothesis Tests

To test the hypotheses posed in the study, the responses of the participants for each of the questionnaires were used to calculate the leadership, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment scores. The descriptive statistics of the study variables are presented in Table 7. Based on the data gathered, the range of leadership scores is from 5 to 45, with a mean of 31.98 (SD = 7.50). The job satisfaction score ranged from 82 to 207, with a mean of 143.14 (SD = 28.82). The organizational commitment score ranged from 26 to 90, with a mean of 63.20 (SD = 13.22).

Table 7:- Descriptive Statistics of Study Variables

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
Leadership Score	102	5.00	45.00	31.98	7.50
Job Satisfaction Score	100	82.00	207.00	143.14	28.82
Organizational Commitment Score	99	26.00	90.00	63.20	13.22

The leadership score was broken down to subscales of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership scores. The averages of the participants' responses for the subscale items were calculated. Instead of the 45-item MLQ, this study involved 15 items. Transformational leadership score was computed using items 2, 6, 8, 9, 10, 13, 14, and 15. Transactional leadership score was calculated using items 1, 4, and 11. Laissez-faire leadership score was computed using items 5, 7, 3, and 12. The transformational leadership scores ranged from .38 to 4.00, with a mean of 2.60 (SD = .82). The transactional leadership scores ranged from 0 to 4, with a mean of 2.35 (SD = .84), while the laissez-faire leadership scores ranged from 0 to 4, with a mean of 1.03 (SD = 1.02). This indicated that participants showed transformational leadership more as compared to the other two types of leadership (Table 8).

Table 8:- Descriptive Statistics of Leadership Scores.

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
Transformational Leadership	102	.38	4.00	2.60	0.82
Transactional Leadership	102	0.00	4.00	2.35	0.84
Laissez-Faire Leadership	102	0.00	4.00	1.03	1.02

First hypothesis test.

The first hypothesis states the following: There is a statistically significant relationship between leadership style as measured using the full-range leadership model and at least one of military personnel satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. To test the hypothesis, two linear regression analyses were conducted. The first analysis considered job satisfaction as the criterion variable. To test the assumptions, VIF collinearity statistics were generated. The VIF statistic was 1.00, which determined that the assumption was not violated. Figure 3 presents the normal P-P plot for standardized residual, which concluded that the assumption was not broken.

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual



Figure 3:- Normal P–P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual for Job Satisfaction.

The regression result presented in Table 9 determined that the overall leadership score was not a significant predictor of job satisfaction ($B = .569$, $p\text{-value} = .142$). Thus, there is no statistically significant relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction. The results also determined that the model is insignificant ($F[1,99] = 2.193$, $p = .142$) with an adjusted R-squared of .012. This determined that the regression model does not explain the variance in job satisfaction score.

Table 9:- Regression Analysis Results of Job Satisfaction Using Leadership Score as Predictor.

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	124.874	12.662		9.862	.000
	Leadership Score	.569	.384	.148	1.481	.142

a. Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction Score ($F[1,99] = 2.193$, $p = .142$; $R\text{-squared} = .012$)

The second analysis considered organizational commitment as the criterion variable. To test the assumptions, VIF collinearity statistics were generated. The VIF statistic was 1.00, which determined that the assumption was not violated. Figure 4 presents the normal P–P plot for standardized residual, which determined that the assumption was not violated.

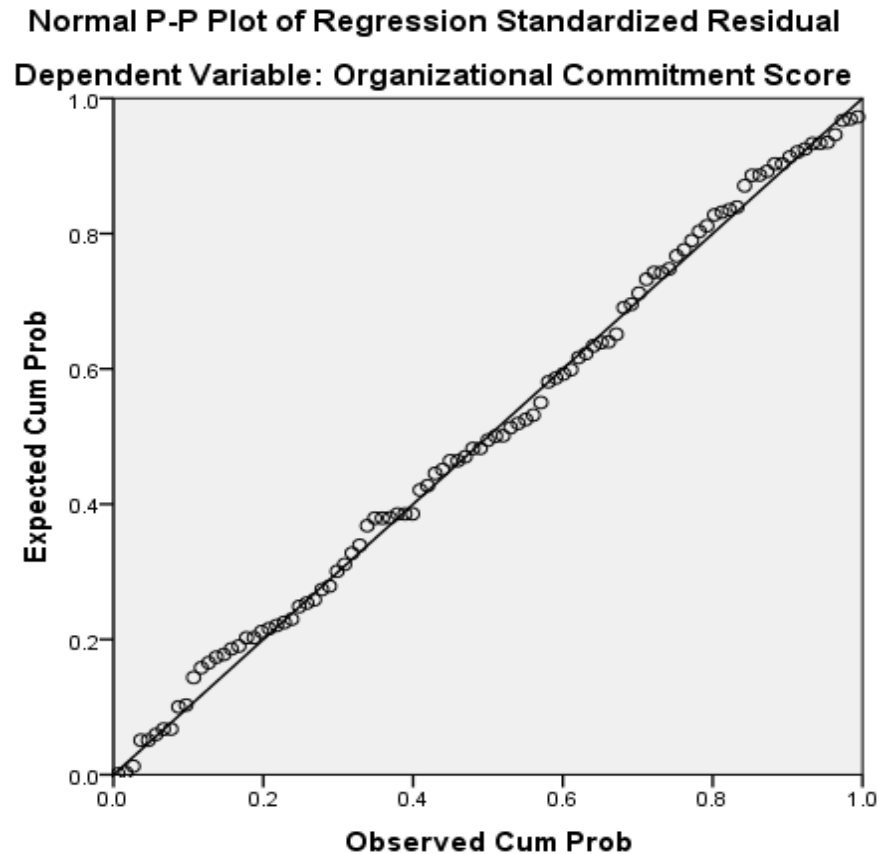


Figure 4:- Normal P–P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual for Organizational Commitment.

The regression result presented in Table 10 determined that the overall leadership score was not a significant predictor of organizational commitment ($B = .399$, $p\text{-value} = .024$). Thus, there is a statistically significant relationship between leadership style and organizational commitment. The results also determined that the model is significant ($F[1,98] = 5.263$, $p = .024$) with an adjusted $R\text{-squared}$ of .042. This determined that the regression model is significant in predicting the criterion variable of organizational commitment score.

Table 10:- Regression Analysis Results of Organizational Commitment Using Leadership Score as Predictor.

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	50.409	5.726		8.803	.000
Leadership Score	.399	.174	.227	2.294	.024

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment Score ($F[1,98] = 5.263$, $p = .024$; $R\text{-squared} = .042$)

Second hypothesis test.

The second hypothesis stated as follows: There is a significant relationship between military leaders' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and military personnel organizational commitment. The VIF statistics ranged from 1.234 to 1.606, which determined that the assumption of collinearity was not violated because the VIF value was below 2.5. The normal probability plot presented in Figure 5 also determined that the assumption of normality of residuals was not broken.

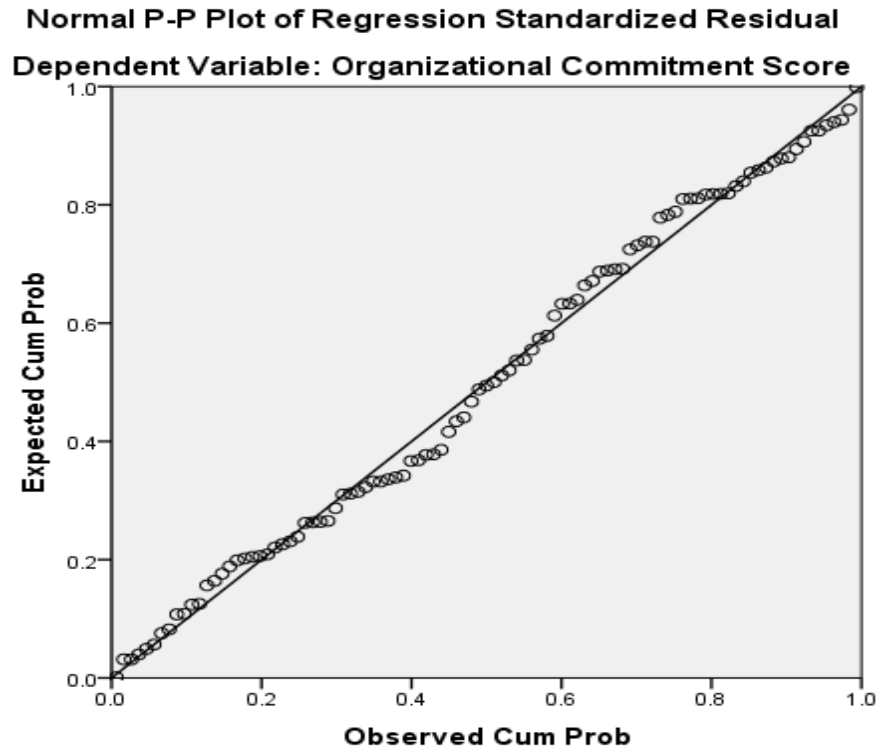


Figure 5:- Normal P–P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual for Organizational Commitment with Leadership Styles as Predictors.

The regression result presented in Table 11 determined that the leadership style scores for transformational ($B = 4.592$, $p\text{-value} = .010$) and laissez-faire ($B = -4.686$, $p\text{-value} < .01$) were significant predictors of organizational commitment. The result showed that transformational leadership is a positive predictor variable, while laissez-faire leadership is a negative predictor variable. Thus, there is a statistically significant relationship between the leadership styles of transformational and laissez-faire and organizational commitment. The results also determined that the model is significant ($F[3,98] = 14.395$, $p < .01$) with an adjusted R-squared of .291. This determined that the regression model is significant in predicting the criterion variable of organizational commitment score. Moreover, the predictor variables explained 29.1% of the variance in organizational commitment.

Table 11:- Regression Analysis for Organizational Commitment Using Leadership Styles as Predictors.

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	54.431	4.984		10.922	.000
Transformational Leadership	4.592	1.741	.284	2.638	.010
Transactional Leadership	.608	1.548	.039	.393	.695
Laissez-Faire Leadership	-4.686	1.240	-.357	-3.780	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment Score ($F[3,98] = 14.395$, $p < .01$; $R\text{-squared} = .291$)

Third hypothesis test.

The third hypothesis stated the following: There is a significant relationship between military leaders' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and military personnel turnover intention.

Fourth hypothesis test.

The fourth hypothesis stated the following: Gender has a significant mediating/moderating effect on the relationship between military leaders' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and military

personnel satisfaction. The result of the analysis is presented in Table 12. The VIF values ranged from 1.011 to 1.586, which determined that the assumption of collinearity was not violated because the VIF values were less than 2.5. The result of the regression analysis determined that transformational and laissez-faire leadership styles were significant predictors of job satisfaction. However, upon adding gender as a moderator variable, the relationship did not change. Transformational leadership style ($B = 8.145$, $p\text{-value} = .012$) and laissez-faire leadership style ($B = -16.119$, $p\text{-value} < .01$) were determined as the significant predictors in the final model. Transformational leadership is a positive predictor, while laissez-faire is a negative predictor variable. Gender was not determined as a significant moderator variable of the relationship between leadership styles and job satisfaction ($B = -2.787$, $p\text{-value} = .552$). The model was determined to be significant in predicting job satisfaction and explained 50.1% of the variance in job satisfaction.

Table 12:- Regression Result Including Gender as a Moderator Variable for Leadership Styles and Job Satisfaction.

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	134.837	9.058		14.886	.000
	Transformational Leadership	7.968	3.136	.225	2.541	.013
	Transactional Leadership	1.740	2.788	.051	.624	.534
	Laissez-Faire Leadership	-16.219	2.191	-.578	-7.403	.000
2	(Constant)	137.977	10.499		13.142	.000
	Transformational Leadership	8.145	3.161	.230	2.577	.012
	Transactional Leadership	1.657	2.801	.049	.592	.556
	Laissez-Faire Leadership	-16.119	2.205	-.575	-7.312	.000
	Gender	-2.787	4.665	-.043	-.597	.552

a. Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction Score ($F[4,99] = 25.885$, $p < .01$; $R\text{-squared} = .501$)

Fifth hypothesis test.

The fifth hypothesis stated the following: Gender has a significant mediating/moderating effect on the relationship between military leaders' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and military personnel organizational commitment. The result of the analysis is presented in Table 13. The VIF values ranged from 1.015 to 1.624, which determined that the assumption of collinearity was not violated because the VIF values were less than 2.5. The result of the regression analysis determined that transformational and laissez-faire leadership styles were significant predictors of organizational commitment. Upon adding gender as a moderator variable, the relationship did not change. Transformational leadership style ($B = 4.498$, $p\text{-value} = .012$) and laissez-faire leadership style ($B = -4.746$, $p\text{-value} < .01$) were determined as the significant predictors in the final model. Transformational leadership is a positive predictor, while laissez-faire leadership is a negative predictor variable. Gender was not determined as a significant moderator variable of the relationship between leadership styles and organizational commitment ($B = 1.300$, $p\text{-value} = .614$). The model was determined to be significant in predicting organizational commitment and explained 28.5% of the variance in organizational commitment.

Table 13:- Regression Result Including Gender as a Moderator Variable for Leadership Styles and Organizational Commitment.

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	54.431	4.984		10.922	.000
	Transformational Leadership	4.592	1.741	.284	2.638	.010
	Transactional Leadership	.608	1.548	.039	.393	.695
	Laissez-Faire Leadership	-4.686	1.240	-.357	-3.780	.000
2	(Constant)	52.981	5.768		9.186	.000
	Transformational Leadership	4.498	1.757	.279	2.560	.012
	Transactional Leadership	.656	1.557	.042	.422	.674
	Laissez-Faire Leadership	-4.746	1.250	-.362	-3.797	.000

Gender	1.300	2.572	.043	.505	.614
a. Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment Score ($F[4,98] = 10.775, p < .01; R\text{-squared} = .285$)					

Sixth hypothesis test.

The sixth hypothesis stated the following: Gender has a significant mediating/moderating effect on the relationship between military leaders' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and military personnel turnover intention.

Between-Group Differences

From the results of both the quantitative and qualitative data, one universal finding was the direct relationship between leadership and their subordinates' perceptions of their work. The quantitative portion of the study focused on the actual and strict categorization of the leadership styles within the military organization and their effects on organizational motivation and commitment of the military members. Meanwhile, the themes from the qualitative portion of the study provided detailed explanations of why the interviewed military personnel preferred a particular type or characteristic over the other, as well as how these factors motivated and encouraged them to work harder and stay in the organization.

In the quantitative portion of the study, the overall leadership score was not a significant predictor of job satisfaction but it was a significant positive predictor of organizational commitment. The findings slightly differed in the qualitative portion of the study. From the thematic analysis of the interviews, the majority of the participants consistently highlighted the role of the leaders in the subordinates' view of their work and their performance and their overall satisfaction and commitment. The interviewed participants emphasized the need for communication between leaders and subordinates, as well as the leaders' genuine concern for guiding them as they grow in their profession. The presence of such characteristics and practices were deemed to be crucial factors that increase the satisfaction of the members and their commitment to both their leaders and the military organization. The majority of the participants' responses highlighted how present military subordinates prefer a more open and transformative leadership, a kind of leadership where they feel valued and appreciated and are heard and respected by their leaders. This type of leadership mirrors the two significant styles uncovered from the quantitative portion: the transformational and laissez-faire leadership styles. However, in the qualitative part, a transactional leadership style was also highlighted where the military personnel also suggested the importance of offering rewards, compensation, and incentives to motivate the employees. Finally, both the quantitative and qualitative findings substantiated one another when the gender of the leaders was discussed. In the quantitative results, gender was found to be insignificant in moderating the relationship between leadership styles and job satisfaction as well as between leadership styles and organizational commitment. This was the same in the uncovered themes from the qualitative portion as the participants only described and characterized the differences in the leadership styles of the male and female leaders. However, they pointed out that gender did not affect the members' overall perception of their work and their total satisfaction and commitment.

Outliers

In the qualitative section of the study, five themes were uncovered, which could be considered as this research study's outlier. When asked about their preference for male versus female leadership, having equal abilities and outputs received very few references from the analysis. Meanwhile, several recommendations were also deemed as outliers. The second outlier was the need to practice collaboration and teamwork between leaders and subordinates. Specifically, there was a call to involve all team members in the decision-making process. The third outlier was the need to practice fairness and equality among members.

Further, the participants of the study wanted to develop leadership training programs for junior soldiers. Lastly, several participants suggested the need to follow a standardized evaluation or assessment process. Given the very few references to these themes, further research is recommended to strengthen their trustworthiness.

Validity and Reliability

This section involves the discussion of two types of validity, namely external and internal validity. External validity refers to the extent of generalized inferences of the research and is based on experiments that help to attain experimental validity (Mohamad et al., 2015). Internal validity relates to whether the research was conducted correctly, which refers to how well the experiment was conducted and whether it avoids likely confounding variables (Peters et al., 2016).

This study lacks external validity because of the samples gathered. A purposive sampling technique was used to target a specific population within a bounded geographical location. In this study, purposive sampling was used from one military base in the southeastern region of the United States. Thus, there is a lack of generalization to the larger population of all U.S. military personnel. Additionally, the results cannot be generalized to non-military occupations because leadership styles and organizational commitment may be different in non-military fields.

However, this study does have strong internal validity. Because the researcher sought to determine the correlation between established dependent and independent variables, internal validity is relevant to establish a relationship between the variables (Maiwada & Okey, 2015; Mohamad et al., 2015). Additionally, the parametric assumptions of multiple regression were tested to confirm the appropriateness of the test before analysis. The analyses determined that assumptions of normality, linearity, and multicollinearity were not violated. Moreover, the use of a pre-validated survey questionnaire ensured that the study had strong internal validity.

Lincoln and Guba's (1985) four standards to solidify the trustworthiness of the qualitative research study were followed, namely credibility, dependability, confirmability, and transferability. According to Polit and Beck (2013), credibility is the researcher's "confidence in the truth of the data and the interpretations of them" (p. 492). In this case, the researcher ensured the credibility of the qualitative results by using the 10 participants' actual perceptions and experiences to generate the themes of the study. Another criterion was the dependability of the study, which is the solidity of the data reported through changing times and conditions. Sultan (2018) explained this standard as a sign that the results can be supported with enough data and documentation. The researcher then maintained a journal containing the decisions made and processes followed in completing the study; this will help future researchers to understand the progression of the research and the subsequent results. Confirmability was also guaranteed with a clear discussion of the interpretations of the researcher and the findings uncovered from the interviews. The researcher performed member checks where the participants were allowed to review their responses and make the necessary corrections. This method allowed the researcher to confirm and validate the answers of the participants. Finally, transferability was also attained with the use of thorough and thick descriptions of both the data processes and the results of the study (Polit & Beck, 2013).

Summary

A total of 102 participants were gathered to respond to the survey questionnaires. Based on the analyses, the overall leadership score was not a significant predictor of job satisfaction but it was a significant positive predictor of organizational commitment. The investigations also determined that transformational and laissez-faire leadership styles are significant predictors of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. However, gender was determined to be insignificant in moderating the relationship between leadership styles and job satisfaction as well as between leadership styles and organizational commitment. In the qualitative portion of the study, 10 military personnel were interviewed. A total of four major themes were uncovered to address the final research question and connect to the quantitative results of the study. The majority of the participants reported that female and male leadership styles varied. Female leaders were believed to be stricter as they were constantly pressured to prove themselves and have the tendency of being more emotional. However, they also demonstrated a more open communication style and a more organized and detailed manner of managing tasks. In terms of leadership and the subordinates' motivation, satisfaction, and commitment, it was found that there is a need for capable leaders who can transform the organization by removing their personal motivations, tremendously strict leadership style, and the tendency to micromanage. Ultimately, the participants also highlighted the importance of active and open communication between the leaders and their subordinates. The next chapter, Chapter 5, presents the recommendations and conclusion of the study.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations:-

This chapter contains a thorough discussion of the results from the analyses of the quantitative and qualitative data and the conclusions and recommendations based on the study results, addressing the purpose and research questions of the study. The purpose of this explanatory sequential mixed-methods study was to understand the influence of leadership style on military personnel satisfaction, organizational commitment, and desire to stay. The study was divided into two components, the quantitative and qualitative components. The following research questions guided the researcher:

Quantitative research questions.

RQ1: What relationship, if any, does leadership style as measured using the full-range leadership model have on military personnel satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention?

RQ2: What effect, if any, does gender have on the results of RQ1?

Qualitative research question.

RQ3: What is/are the mechanism(s) of the relationship(s) uncovered in the quantitative portion of the study?

This chapter also contains summaries of the ethical dimensions, population and sampling method, limitations, data collection and analysis, and findings. Further, a thorough discussion of the results is included, relating them to the previously reviewed literature. The researcher's recommendations, reflections, and suggestions for future research are also presented. Based on the results, implications for social, practical, or organizational change and conclusions are described by the researcher.

Ethical Dimensions

The researcher strictly followed all ethical procedures indicated in the California Intercontinental University IRB. Participation in the study was purely voluntary. All interview participants were required to complete an informed consent form. The document contained a brief background of the study, the purpose of the study, data required, risk and benefits of the study, and the rights of the participants. Participants were informed that their identities would remain confidential throughout the investigation and would be assigned pseudo codes when referring to them. All data collected were secured in a password-protected computer. Both soft and hard copies of the data will be destroyed after five years.

Limitations

The first limitation of the study was the lack of generalizability given its specific focus on a geographic region and sampling population. Although the quantitative component had a large sample size, the more detailed report from the qualitative data was collected from a smaller sample and may not capture the perceptions and experiences of the targeted population. Another limitation was the issue of the shared responses of the participants in the qualitative interviews. Participants might have hesitated in wholly and honestly addressing the interview questions due to the sensitivity of the issue and the fear of being identified by their leaders and the institution. The researcher then always reassured the participants that their identities would not be recognized as only the researcher will have access to the raw data of the study. The researcher also made sure that the participants were comfortable and relaxed during the interview sessions to warrant their accurate responses to the questions being asked.

Overview of the Population and Sampling Method

The quantitative portion of the study recruited 104 participants, while the qualitative part had 10 participants. A priori power analysis was conducted to determine the required sample size of the quantitative participants. Meanwhile, data saturation was followed to finalize the number of participants to be interviewed. Overall, all participants of the study were U.S. Army soldiers at a military base in Southeastern United States. Purposive sampling was performed to recruit the participants for the qualitative components of the study. The participants of the study had at least one year of experience in the U.S. Army and an active status in the U.S. Army and were 18 years old and above.

Data Collection and Analysis

Data collection commenced once the researcher had received approval from the IRB. Flyers were then distributed, which contained the following information: a brief description of the study, the researcher's bio, inclusion criteria for interested participants, the contact information of the researcher, and the informed consent form as an attachment. Potential participants who contacted the researcher were given questionnaires for the survey. The researcher also personally contacted military personnel to inquire about their interest to participate in face-to-face interviews.

For the quantitative phase of the study, descriptive and inferential statistics were conducted. Descriptive statistics were employed to manage and categorize the demographics and responses of the participants to the survey. In this case, frequency, mean, and standard deviation were computed; figures were then used to present the results of the descriptive analysis. Regression analysis followed the descriptive analysis to test the hypotheses.

In the qualitative phase of the study, Tesch's (1990) eight-phase coding was followed to develop the most relevant themes from the participant interviews. NVivo12 by QSR also assisted the researcher in managing and coding the interview data. The software was crucial in determining the hierarchy of themes based on the number of references the participants shared of the themes.

Summary of Findings

The quantitative and qualitative data analysis processes successfully permitted the researcher to complete the study by thoroughly addressing the three research questions. The first research question asked about the relationship (if any) between the leadership style as measured using the full-range leadership model and military personnel satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. This question was answered by testing the first three hypotheses of the study. Through the linear regression analysis conducted, it was established that there is no statistically significant relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction, but there is a statistically significant relationship between leadership style and organizational commitment. The analysis also demonstrated that there is a statistically significant relationship between the styles of transformational and laissez-faire leadership and organizational commitment, which is discussed in the qualitative section as well. The second research question explored the effect (if any) of gender on the results presented in the first research question. It was then determined that gender indeed has a significant mediating/moderating impact on the relationship between military leaders' leadership styles and military personnel satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention.

The third research question contains the results from the qualitative component of the study, which focused on the comprehensive discussion of the mechanisms of the relationships uncovered in the quantitative section. From the qualitative data analysis, three thematic categories were formed to maximize the themes found across the interview data. The groups were the following: 1) male versus female leadership, 2) leadership, motivation, and commitment in the military, and 3) the leadership recommendations based on the firsthand experiences of the interviewed participants. A total of 23 themes, four major themes, six minor themes, and 13 subthemes, were formed. First, it was recognized that female leaders have varying leadership styles where they exhibit the following practices: needing to prove themselves (stricter, over performing) continually; having the tendency of being more emotional; having a more open communication style; being more organized and detailed in managing tasks. The majority of the interviewed participants also conveyed the need for effective leaders who can motivate the soldiers under them. The participants also found the following practices to decrease the motivation and effectiveness of the soldiers: leaders' extreme formalities and sternness; leaders' motivations; leaders' lack of trust leading to micromanagement. The lack of incentives to motivate the soldiers was also emphasized during the interviews. Ultimately, the critical recommendation shared was the need to practice active and open communication with the soldiers.

Explanation of Findings

RQ1: What relationship, if any, does leadership style as measured using the full-range leadership model have on military personnel satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention?

Findings under the first research question were established from the first three hypothesis tests performed. Under the first hypothesis test, it was determined that there is no statistically significant relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction. This finding is surprising given that the majority of the literature studies frequently related the different leadership styles to the overall job satisfaction of the employees or subordinates (Gonzales, 2016; Holtom et al., 2014). In particular, throughout the literature review, transformational leadership was deemed to be the most constant predictor in increasing the job satisfaction of the employees, especially in the military setting (Gonzales, 2016). Meanwhile, the second hypothesis test indicated the significant relationship between leadership style and organizational commitment. This finding was supported in the reviewed literature as several researchers identified how varying leadership styles indeed affect the commitment of the subordinates both to the leaders and their institutions (Swid, 2014; Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016). In this regard, transformational and transactional leadership were believed to be positively associated with organizational commitment; again, transformational leadership was deemed to be more advantageous in the view of the employees (Swid, 2014). Finally, the result of the third hypothesis test specified the presence of a significant relationship between military leaders' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and military personnel turnover intention. This finding was again supported in the literature, as Holtom et al. (2014) discussed the influence of the leadership styles on the decisions of the military officers to stay or leave the organization. Overall, results under the first research question were consistent with the literature reviewed, except for the finding on the lack of significant value in the relationship between leadership styles and the job satisfaction of the military personnel.

RQ2: What effect, if any, does gender have on the results of RQ1?

The second research question explored the effect of gender on the results found in the first research question. According to Paustian-Underdahl et al. (2014), there is a need to study and investigate how gender can help understand the perceptions of the subordinates on their leaders and how such factor affects their relationship and performance. In the current study, the quantitative component allowed for the researcher to discover that gender is indeed an essential factor to consider when seeking to understand the relationship between leadership styles and job satisfaction, commitment, and turnover intention. It was then revealed through the hypothesis tests that gender has a significant mediating/moderating effect on the relationship between military leaders' leadership styles (i.e., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and the following factors: military personnel satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. In this regard, it can then be supposed that gender can affect or even determine the leadership styles, leading to positive or negative influences on the military personnel's satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention.

RQ3: What is/are the mechanism(s) of the relationship(s) uncovered in the quantitative portion of the study?

The qualitative component of the study permitted the researcher to explain better and discuss how leadership styles and gender can affect the military personnel's satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. When asked about male versus female leadership, the majority of the participants reported that female leaders practiced varying leadership styles where they displayed the following characteristics: needing to prove themselves (stricter, over performing) continually; having the tendency of being more emotional; having a more open communication style; being more organized and detailed in managing tasks. Some of these characteristics were corroborated in the literature where Lopez and Ensari (2014) reported in their study how women leaders usually adopt an authoritarian leadership style where they demonstrate a stern and formal type of relationship with their subordinates. Meanwhile, the characteristics of showing the leaders' emotions and having an active communication with subordinates are examples of a transformational leadership style as stressed by several researchers (Bangari, 2014; Imran et al., 2016). Participants in the qualitative study discussed the different characteristics of the leaders, including both the negative and positive qualities of a male and female leader. Ultimately, what was evident from the established themes was the ability of any leader to motivate their subordinates by having a common goal and an overall respectful relationship.

Currently, the participants find the following practices to reduce their motivation and effectiveness with the leaders being focused on their rank and their extreme formalities and sternness, desire to fulfill their personal motivations, and the lack of trust leading to micromanagement. Given these examples, it can be inferred that the participants prefer a transformational leader in light of the characteristics described in the literature. As Bass (1990) explained, these leaders are compelling and active, especially in inspiring their followers or acting as their role model/s. Taylor et al. (2015) added that transformational leadership actively promotes an equally respectful relationship between the leaders and subordinates, where leaders demonstrate compassion and understanding as they relate with their subordinates. The thematic analysis also established the participants' views on the lack of incentives to motivate the soldiers. This finding is highly connected to another type of leadership, which is known as transactional leadership. Anderson and Sun (2017) discussed this type of leadership as "somewhat active" but would typically stimulate their followers in the form of contractual rewards or transactions. Finally, the critical recommendation shared was the need to practice active and open communication with the soldiers. Again, this finding is considerably related to the constantly discussed type of leadership, which is transformational leadership.

Recommendations:-

The quantitative and qualitative results of the research study demonstrated the importance of the leadership styles in the military setting and their impact on military personnel satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. Based on the results, several recommendations were deemed helpful by the researcher. The first recommendation is to periodically gather evaluations and feedback of the military personnel about their workplace satisfaction, highlighting the condition or status of their relationship with their leaders. This periodic evaluation will permit the military organization and leaders to gain a more thorough understanding of their subordinates' welfare and performance. Another recommendation is to conduct training programs and sessions for the military leaders. Although this recommendation may be complicated and implausible, the perceptions and experiences shared by the military personnel interviewed call for the need for some of the military leaders to undergo orientations to be reminded of their fundamental roles and duties as leaders. As several participants reported, they were faced with leaders who were too self-centered and self-interested, forgetting their real goals and missions as military leaders.

These training sessions will serve as reminders for the leaders that their positions have a much higher meaning and purpose.

Reflecting Upon the Study

Upon completion of the current study, the researcher realized the value of relationship building between the military leaders and their subordinates. Throughout the study, the military personnel highlighted and emphasized their respect for their leaders. In this regard, the military leaders have the unique responsibility to realize the significance of their rank and titles to serve as better role models to their younger counterparts. It is with this realization that the leaders can start anew and create a better workplace and environment for the military personnel. With the leaders' practice of more positive characteristics, military leadership will be perceived with trust, respect, and high regard from both the subordinates and even ordinary citizens. In the long run, military institutions will enjoy a sustainable workplace with personnel who are satisfied and committed to their work.

Suggestions for Future Research:-

The current research study focused on the perceptions and experiences of military personnel alone. Future researchers can consider incorporating data from the military leaders themselves, which can be used to triangulate the data from the two groups. The additional data will allow for the future researchers to corroborate the experiences of the military personnel with the leaders. The interviews with the leaders can also be employed to find more effective solutions on how to improve the relationship between the military leaders and their personnel going forward.

Implications for Social, Practical, or Organizational Change

Data from the current research study can be employed by military leaders and key stakeholders, which can be used as a tool to improve the current welfare and work experiences of the military personnel across the different military institutions in the country. As Schmidt (2014) indicated, several scholars have discovered how toxic leadership is a common problem in the military setting, which usually leads to significant damaging effects on both the stakeholders and the organization as a whole. The results of the study can hopefully create the awareness of the needs of the military personnel and identify the issues that can improve their work experiences. By keeping in mind the skills of the military personnel and the suggestions they have in place about military leadership, leadership issues can be addressed, which may restore the trust and confidence in the military leadership in the long run (Fallows, 2016).

Conclusions:-

In conclusion, the results of the current study indicated the influence of leadership style as well as gender on the military personnel's overall job satisfaction, commitment, and turnover intentions. The qualitative results provided more in-depth explanations and meanings to the initial results from the analyzed survey. It was then uncovered that military personnel preferred leaders who highly value the goals and mission of the organization. Moreover, military subordinates preferred leaders who were approachable and could support and trust them in their work. These characteristics pertained to transformational leadership, but the participants did not state the kind of leadership they favored. Notably, they expressed the necessity for the current leaders to be more aware of the needs and preferences of their subordinates to improve their workplace conditions and experiences. In the long run, their improved condition can also lead to increased efficiency and productivity as they fulfill the duties and tasks assigned to them.

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Appendix A: Tables

Table A1:- This is an Example APA Table in Appendix A and Uses the APA Table Title Style

Category	Very Heading 1	Important Heading 2
First category	4.0	16
Second category	3	43.6
Third category	88	67.9*

Notes. The values denoted by an asterisk (*) are important because they have a particular quality.

Appendix B: Figures

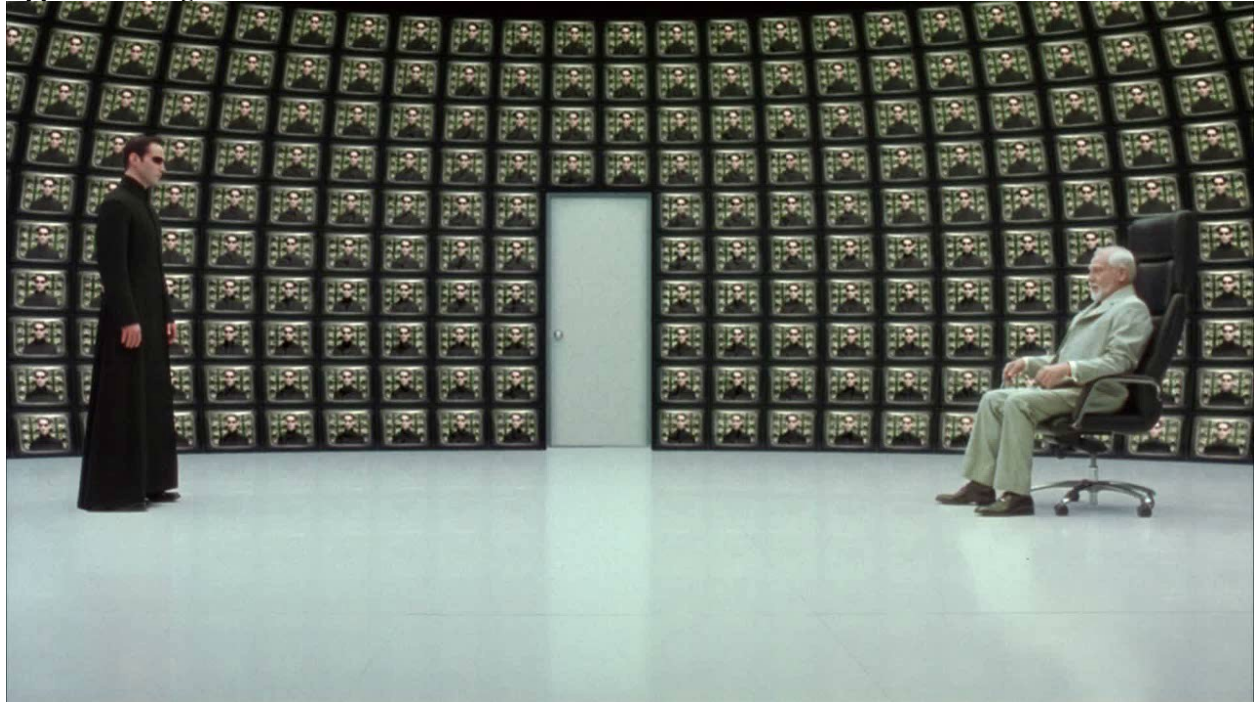


Figure B1:- Neo meets the Architect while seeking the Source. Notice the caption is not emphasized!