

The Impact of Perceived Leadership Effectiveness on Job Satisfaction Among Mental Health Practitioners in Nonprofit Organizations

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Leadership has been a fascinating research topic for many years and garners substantial interest from many organizations seeking to enhance and maximize human resources. Leadership effectiveness was especially identified as one of the most influential moderator for employee job satisfaction. Three additional components that served as the control variables were: organizational commitment, performance, and occupational burnout. Multiple regression analysis was utilized to explore the impact of their relationship with employee job satisfaction. The results confirmed that an employee's perception of his or her leader's effectiveness was paramount to job satisfaction compared to the effects of controlled variables.

BACKGROUND

For better or for worse, leadership plays a highly critical role within any organization. While organizational structures may change over time, a leader's role stays relatively fixed regarding dealing with setbacks and problems. When challenges appear, employees look towards management to set the parameters for successful problem-solving. Achieving this task is heavily dependent by management's leadership. The outcome of this can seriously impact the future of the organization and employees.

When individuals with inadequate skills are placed into leadership positions, their lack of experience and meager direction can create negative consequences. This can decrease employee job satisfaction and performance. On the part of management, poor leadership can also create a toxic atmosphere that increases employee turnover. This is a severe complication because it lowers employees' morale and wastes the organization's resources. Realizing this should be a priority; however, multiple studies found that organizations continued to struggle with problems stemming from poor leadership (Aubrey, 2012; Fry, 2016; Kerr & Jermier, 1978; Kusy & Halloway, 2009; Toor & Ogunlana, 2009).

Leadership is viewed as influencing others; thus leaders are highly influential figures who can steer an organization to success or bring about great destruction. The story of Enron is perhaps a powerful reminder of how poor and unethical leadership can create detrimental outcomes to an organization and its employees. Before the scandal, Enron was ranked as the sixth-largest energy company in the world (Fry, 2016). In 2001, it was discovered that the company's earnings were falsified and inflated by several hundred million dollars. Before the downfall, top Enron executives sold all their stocks whereas lower-level employees were prevented from doing so due to their 401K restrictions. Enron's stock immediately plummeted from \$90.75 a share to \$0.67 when the scandal was revealed.

After the bankruptcy, thousands of employees lost their life savings due to having worthless stock in their pensions. Many of Enron's top executives were subsequently indicted and charged with fraud and conspiracy to commit money laundering. By the end of 2001, the company was defunct, resulting in the job loss for more than 20,000 employees. Fry (2016) stated that destructive leadership was the root cause of this terrible event and described it as: lacking integrity, arrogant, reckless disregard for their own actions, and violating the basic human rights of others. The prevalence of poor leadership and the lack of sound leadership can be seen as the ultimate downfall for Enron.

Negative organizational consequences in outpatient treatment programs were explored in the study by Knight, Edwards, and Flynn (2012). The researchers discovered that high staff turnover is one of the most critical and challenging issues treatment programs often face. Turnover rates in these organizations were found to range from 18.5% to 25% among direct service staff and 24% to 54% among program directors. The disruption brought on by staff turnover is especially harmful in the field of human services, where successful treatment outcomes are deeply dependent on maintaining a positive relationship between clients and care providers. This problem tends to be pervasive and can create severe instability that lasts multiple years. The researchers further emphasized that human services agencies must provide a basic level of stability in staffing to provide effective treatment.

Knight et al. (2012) continued to explain that repeatedly hiring and training new staff are more costly than retraining current employees. When turnover is high, resources that can be used for client treatment and business growth are instead used to replace lost talent. This reduces an organization's ability to be efficient and productive. In addition, the remaining staff can experience more stress from having additional responsibilities until the vacant positions are filled. This pressure is harmful and can lead to even more turnover among overburdened employees. In their conclusion, Knight et al. (2012) surmised that the most devastating problem is a decrease in perception of support among employees. Moreover, the authors highlighted workplace support as a mechanism that can increase organizational functioning and lower staff turnover.

In studying leadership and job burnout among nurses, Bobbio, Bellan, and Mangaelli (2012) found that an empowering leadership style can greatly enhance an employee's perception of organizational support. An empowering leader instills trust in his or her subordinates while creating a safe and positive working environment. Within the field of human services, Bobbio et al. (2012) discovered that a positive relationship between leaders and employees is a vital element for promoting staff wellness and quality of services received. They conducted a cross-sectional study using a group of 273 nurses from an Italian public general hospital. Results supported the idea that leadership strongly predicts how much support employees perceive receiving from their organizations. When trust is established and sound leadership is implemented, employees are able to perform at higher capacity and occupational burnout is considerably reduced.

Nonetheless, there was an inherent lack of understanding about perceived leadership effectiveness and job satisfaction within mental health practitioners, particularly those working in nonprofit organizations. Thus, this study attempted to address the knowledge gap by targeting the population of mental health practitioners working in nonprofits while examining the relationship between their perception of effective leadership and job satisfaction. The study also investigated the influence of other variables including organizational commitment, performance, and occupational burnout. This study attempted to answer the following question: "If the employees' organizational commitment, performance, and occupational burnout are controlled, are their perceptions of their leaders' effectiveness related to their job satisfaction?"

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This study was looked at through the lens of leadership theory. Dr. Gary Yukl, a prominent figure in the field, classified observable leadership behaviors into four categories: task orientation, relationship orientation, change orientation, and external orientation. From there, he developed the Managerial Practices Survey, an instrument used to gauge subordinates' perception on the effectiveness of their immediate supervisors/leaders. According to Yukl et al. (2002), the 16 behaviors (see Appendix E) are all potentially relevant for organizational settings, but different circumstances determine which behaviors are most important. The authors surmise that the mastery of these behaviors is an indication of sound leadership. The population of interest was mental health practitioners in nonprofits. For this research, mental health practitioners were defined as specialists with an associate's, bachelor's, master's, or doctorate in psychology, mental health, behavioral health, social work, or a related field.

Leadership

The study of leadership is essential for a variety of reasons. The most important reason is a providing a better comprehension of how leadership can impact an organization's outcome. Leadership is defined as the process in which individuals steer an organization through the use of guidance and influence in order to reach certain results and goals (Shahab & Nisa, 2014). Therefore, sound leadership utilizes resources in an effective manner to successfully achieve the company's objectives.

Leadership is multifaceted. Early research in this field focused on specific behaviors that were considered as vital parts of effective management. As a result, many theories were formed during a period of research expansion in the 1960s to 1980s including leadership substitute theory, situational leadership theory, and the managerial grid (Yukl, 2012). By the 1980s, research started to look into the concepts of leadership styles. This review explores leadership in a comprehensive evaluation that encompasses many aspects including traits, behaviors, and styles.

According to Killian (2007), early research identified personal characteristics as part of effective leadership. The author elaborated on these characteristics and classified a few components: dominance, conscientiousness, social tendency, and internal locus of control. A full details of each trait is explained in the following description: dominance (a desire to take charge, self-confidence, extraversion), conscientiousness (achievement drive, high energy, initiative), social tendency (expressive of affection, good listeners, low need to be liked), and internal locus of control (optimism, resilience, persistence).

Killian (2007) continued to expand that an individual's intelligence also significantly improves leadership effectiveness. Level of intelligence comprises of both academic and emotional intelligence. Academic and emotional intelligence form the foundation that makes up personal competency. Killian (2007) suggested emotional intelligence is a pivotal part of effective leaders because these leaders (a) are aware of their emotions, tendencies, strengths, and weaknesses; (b) use emotions to enhance their process of thinking and decision-making; and (c) can regulate their own emotions and moods in more effective ways.

Yukl, a professor of management and psychology, is a pioneer in understanding leadership behaviors. Yukl (2012) defined effective behaviors as observable, distinct, and measurable elements that can improve an employee's or organization's performance. Past research supported task-orientation and relations-orientation as essential parts of effective leadership. In a 1990 study, a group of Swedish researchers discovered change-oriented behavior as another important construct (Yukl, 2012). Subsequent exploration identified an additional construct, external-oriented behaviors, as part of the taxonomy. Each of these components classifies distinct behaviors considered influential predictors of organizational success and employee occupational outcome. Specific behaviors are explored in the following details.

A leader is task-oriented when he or she is focused on accomplishing work most reliably and efficiently (Yukl, 2012). When task-orientation is implemented, leaders tend to motivate staff using incentives such as: benefits, compensation, promotions, and bonuses, etc. Specific components of this type include planning and assigning appropriate tasks, organizing, clarifying roles and objectives, monitoring progress, and resolving work-related problems.

A relationship-oriented leader is motivated by improving the quality of human relationships at work (Yukl, 2012). Common behaviors of relations-oriented leaders include providing support and positive regard to staff, actively developing programs to help employees expand their skill sets, recognizing when a job is done well, offering recognition and validation, empowering employee autonomy, and promoting the ability to make decisions independently.

A change-oriented leader is driven by the desire to increase innovation, vicarious learning, and successful adaptation to challenges among staff (Yukl, 2012). Positive behaviors include advocating for continuous learning and training, appealing to an employee's emotions and ideas to envision change, encouraging innovation through creative collaboration among staff, and facilitating collective learning among staff to promote the exchange of knowledge and experience.

When an external orientation is present, leadership focuses on the staff's ability to be self-reliant in the process of acquiring outside resources and information to assist the organization in meeting its objectives (Yukl, 2012). Components in this area include networking and expanding relationships with peers, superiors, and outsiders, monitoring for outside information that might be beneficial for the team or might be a potential threat, and representing the team through advocating and coordination.

In terms of style, transformational leadership has garnered much acknowledgement as an effective approach in modern study of organizational development. The concepts of transformational and transactional leadership were developed by Abraham Maslow based on his research on human needs (Thamrin, 2012). While transactional leadership appeals to lower-level needs (e.g., safety, money, vacation hours, affiliation), transformational leadership seeks to fulfill higher needs such as self-actualization and dignity. Transformational leadership is a style in which leaders and employees work together towards common goals. Their visions of change overlap and are achieved through consistent collaboration. Thamrin (2012) emphasized that transformational leadership can change an employee's needs, values and priorities while simultaneously motivating that employee to excel.

Consequently, transformational leadership has been regarded as a highly effective component of successful management due to its positive influence on an organization and its staff. Under transformational leadership, employees are encouraged to engage in active problem solving and collaborative generation of new ideas, rather than passive waiting for instructions. This can lead to momentous renewal and innovations. Additionally, transformational leaders are efficient in responding to employees' emotional needs and exhibit great existential empathy. All of these characteristics help to facilitate the development of employees' loyalty and solidify their commitment to stay with the company.

Results from Barling et al. (1996) showed an existing positive relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction. Employees whose managers received training in transformational leadership showed a higher level of performance than employees whose managers did not. This occurs because transformational leaders implement a solution-focused forward vision instead of problem-focused. Employees working in this environment are found to be more satisfied with their job than those not. In fulfilling these responsibilities, transformational leaders optimize employee job satisfaction and help their organization achieve its goals. From these studies, it is conveyed that management's leadership style plays an important role in determining the outcome of an organization.

Past research successfully linked effective leadership to improved organizational commitment among employees (Thamrin, 2012). Organizational commitment is associated with the increase in employee loyalty and has three sub-components: understanding of the organization's values; a willingness to stay in the organization; and the readiness to persevere through both hard and easy periods. In addition, studies done between the 1950s and the 1980s demonstrated that effective leadership behaviors strongly influence a subordinate's attitude and performance. As depicted, an efficient leader possesses any aforementioned elements, whether that is the right temperament and intelligence, effective behaviors, or transformational skills. Under this type of management, organizational problems can easily be minimized or mediated. Thus, sound leadership is a fundamental aspect of administration that must be fostered if an organization wants to be more productive and thriving.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is described as an employees' attitude and reflects his or her affective and cognitive evaluation of his or her job (Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002). A number of factors such as the possibility of promotions, benefits, compensation, training effectiveness, interpersonal relationships with coworkers, etc influences this evaluation. An employee's satisfaction index can be used to measure how satisfied an individual is at work using a questionnaire with Likert scales. High job satisfaction is important because it can (a) enhance employee retention, (b) increase productivity, (c) enhance customer satisfaction and loyalty, (d) boost employee morale, (e) increase the quality of products and services, and (f) improve teamwork.

Job satisfaction can be illuminated using Lawler's model, which consists of four different theories: the fulfillment theory; the discrepancy theory; the equity theory; and the two-factor theory. The fulfillment theory suggests that the key to workplace satisfaction is fulfilling the employee's wishes and demands (Judge et al., 2002). The more an individual's demands are met, the more he or she is satisfied. According to the discrepancy theory, an employee's expectations of a job are more important than the reality of it. The discrepancy between an individual's expectations and reality may result in that individual's feeling of dissatisfaction. The equity theory emphasizes rewarding employees based on their qualifications and performance. Satisfied staff perceive that they are fairly compensated for their work versus those who are not. Lastly, the two-factor theory explains the existence of two set of factors at work; one leads to satisfaction while the other works against it. When the satisfaction factors are more abundant, then the employee is happier or *vice versa*.

Achieving employee satisfaction can be a straight-forward task. However, maintaining it is more complicated and proves that enhancing job satisfaction is continuous (Judge et al., 2002). Listening to employee feedback has been demonstrated to facilitate this process. This implementation requires regular follow-ups and addressing of employee's concerns and complaints. Appraisal time and frequency need to be done every three to six months to ensure constant progress review. Also, these appraisals should be based on the standards set by the organization as opposed to the individual manager's wants.

Moreover, employee satisfaction can be improved through organizational development. Activities such as sharing of the organization's mission and vision and building a corporate culture can increase employees' participation in its operations. Establishing policies involving benefits and compensation is another way of improving job satisfaction. Annual evaluations of performance and consistent appraisals are also good ways of showcasing the supervisor's acknowledgment and validation.

Most critical of all, managers should treat subordinates with respect and fairness. They must consistently provide coaching and training in their respective departments to minimize unwanted behaviors from parts of staff. Listening and responding to employees is another key factor in enhancing job satisfaction (Judge et al., 2002). Human resources department can also help with these issues given they have a means of monitoring and measuring job satisfaction through surveys and reports. Most importantly, all levels of management must be well-informed and dedicated to the tasks of fostering and maintaining organizational satisfaction if they desire a long-lasting effect.

OTHER VARIABLES THAT AFFECT EMPLOYEE JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction represents the level of happiness among employee attitudes regarding their workplace. The scale for measuring job satisfaction is best represented by a continuum with high levels of satisfaction and dissatisfaction at each end (Ward & Cowman, 2007). When job satisfaction is high, employees can perform well at their jobs, solve problems, and attain a high level of achievement, accomplishment, and confidence in their abilities. In contrast, low job satisfaction can lead to problems like poor job performance, complacency, and diminished professional growth. A study of job satisfaction among psychiatric nurses found that dissatisfaction can impact the quality of patient care. This can spawn problems for both patients and staff on a physical, emotional, and psychological level. In addition to leadership effectiveness, several additional workplace factors have been identified as monumental figures that impact employee job satisfaction. They include organizational commitment, performance, and occupational burnout.

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment represents staff loyalty to their employer and is an essential part of organizational survival (Sulsky, 1999). Employee commitment can lead to an organization's success because it boosts: team's performance; productivity; talent retention; and an individual's willingness to sacrifice for the sake of the organization. In addition, research demonstrates that strong organizational commitment enhances an organization's ability to respond and adapt to unforeseen events.

Organizational commitment is a construct of organization development that has received much attention in recent decades. Traditionally, this concept was used to explore staff's undesired and desired behaviors in the workplace. Over time, the understanding of organizational commitment has progressed to include many new components such as measurement, theoretical foundation, and conceptualization. According to Meyer and Allen (1991), organizational commitment is an attitude. An intermediate level of commitment comes with knowing the impact of leaving an organization, whereas a high level of commitment represents a deeper sense of moral responsibility towards organizational rules. Highly committed employees abide by their organization's rules because they want to avoid the cost of leaving or quitting.

Researchers in this field regard commitment as a multifaceted object with three sub-categories (Sulsky, 1999). Affective commitment depicts the affection an individual has for his or her job. This emotional connection to the organization relates positively to the performance parameters. Normative commitment portrays the sense of obligation to stay. This commitment aspect often comes into play when an employee considers the pros and cons of staying or leaving the organization. Lastly, continuance commitment represents the fears of loss. It focuses on the costs associated with leaving an organization, such as: monetary values; professional position; and friendship.

Well-run organizations are adept at producing creative ways of retaining talents and increasing organizational commitment (Sulsky, 1999). Some of the methods organizations tend to use include: benefits, compensation, promotions; vacation hours; pension; stock options; investment opportunities, partnerships, etc. These methods are considered transactional since they involve the give-and-take process between the employee and employer. As such, they can temporarily placate the staff. Other methods, such as work design, job scope, personal developments, trainings, and organizational participation, appear to have longer-lasting effect in maintaining commitment.

Organizational commitment is an individual's attachment to an organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). The research proposed that organizational commitment can be classified into three types: affective, normative, and continuance. Affective commitment happens when an employee stays with an organization because of his or her emotional attachment or involvement. Normative commitment refers to the act due to a feeling of obligation and moral determination. Lastly, continuance occurs when an employee stays because of feeling stuck and believing that leaving would be more costly than remaining. Meyer and Allen (1991) further explored the thought processes involved for each types of commitment. Affective commitment demonstrates the employee's own level of identification with the organization; a high level implies that he or she wants to stay there. Normative commitment speaks more to an attitude of what the employee feels that he or she ought to do and shows the influence of cultural and social expectations upon his or her work attitude. The needs of employees bring forth continuance commitment. This is the process in which the employee's commitment to his or her employer is attributed to the cost, troublesomeness, and hardship of switching.

Eslami and Gharakhani (2012) hypothesize that there is a positive relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction, which can impact the length of time an employee is willing to stay there. A survey using a five-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree was given to 280 participants to explore job satisfaction. Three factors influencing job satisfaction were explored: promotions, employee's interpersonal relationships, and work conditions. A regression analysis supported the implication that all three factors have strong positive relationships with the three types of organizational commitment. Moreover, results confirmed a positive relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction. The researchers concluded that job satisfaction have a positive impact on organizational

commitment. They also emphasized that managers and employers need to work together to improve workplace satisfaction levels if they wish to increase organizational commitment and employee retention.

In another study, Westover, Westover, & Westover (2009) examined the relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction. The researchers elaborated that organizational commitment is the state of mind in which an employee exhibits some form of attachment to his or her workplace. Westover et al. (2009) proposed that organizational commitment greatly impacts employees' job satisfaction, which induces a long-term effect on their performance. Westover et al. (2009) stated that when employees are not committed to their work, it creates major issues such as: poor organizational behaviors, higher absenteeism, withdrawal cognitions, higher turnover, increased stress, and poor job performance. Westover et al. (2009) found that success in job performance within an organization has been tied mostly to organizational commitment. The final results confirmed that employees with unmet workplace needs would become dissatisfied and exhibited diminished organizational commitment. On the other hand, satisfied employees all demonstrated higher levels of organizational commitment.

Westover et al. (2009) also touched on the topic of high turnover being a negative consequence of low organizational commitment. When considering whether to leave a job, most employees often went through the self-evaluation process in which they weigh the pros and cons of termination. If an employee is dissatisfied, he or she would likely reach the decision to terminate employment.

An article by Coleman (2015) revealed the high cost of turnover, which ranges from 30 to 150 % of annual salary for hourly employees. To put it into perspective, the cost of losing of an individual employee approximately equals the amount of his or her salary. Aside from the monetary loss, organizations with high turnover rates appear unstable and can lead to employees lacking morale and a sense of job security. Using data collected from 215 employees of a social work organization, Coleman (2015) sought to verify the relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction. The Global Work Satisfaction Scale was utilized to gauge employee satisfaction and provided high content validity and reliability. Multiple regression and correlation analysis each confirmed a strong positive relationship between global job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The high correlation value ($r = .6445$) supports the hypothesis that satisfied employees are more committed than their dissatisfied colleagues.

Together, all studies confirmed the positive effect of organizational commitment on job satisfaction. In turn, this information clarifies which components are needed for an organization to grow positively. Therefore, it is in the organization's best interest to regularly examine the level of employee organizational commitment and any workplace factors that could be affecting it.

Performance

Employee performance is defined as the product of both quantitative and qualitative work by the assigned responsibilities and position (Shahab & Nisa 2014). Halkos and Bousinakis (2009) observed that the performance of one individual can strongly influence the performance and attitudes of surrounding employees. When an individual underperform while having negative feelings towards work, a ripple effect is generated and can interfere with the entire team's performance. On the contrary, positive feelings towards work can also have the same effect but reversely. Halkos and Bousinakis (2009) suggested that when an organization makes productivity demands too high and does not consider the staff's mental and physical stress, counterproductive behaviors and negative job outcomes are created. This implies that job satisfaction is directly related to how realistic an organization's productivity demands are.

Halkos and Bousinakis (2009) conducted a study to examine the effect of stress and job satisfaction on performance and productivity. The researchers rationalized that organizations often experience problems associated with stress and lack of job satisfaction. The literature review demonstrated a link between stress and job satisfaction and the ability to influence productivity and performance. Halkos and Bousinakis (2009) further explained that employees encounter stress when professional and personal needs are not in balance. High job satisfaction can be seen as the antidote to stress to such extent that it can bring an employee's life back in to equilibrium. From this perspective, Halkos and Bousinakis (2009) hypothesized that employee satisfaction is directly linked to high productivity in a cause-and-effect relationship. If this

were true, it would benefit an organization to utilize various means to ensure employee job satisfaction. Hence, success in accomplishing this task can improve the company's overall productivity.

Halkos and Bousinakis (2009) used a sample of 425 private and public employees to investigate the hypothesis. Here, they focused on the many factors that might affect stress and job satisfaction, such as creativity, group dynamics, and independent work. An employee's state of stress is presumed to result from interaction between work demands and their employee. Halkos and Bousinakis (2009) analyzed the relationship among stress, job satisfaction and productivity using factor analysis and regression. The result showed that when work intersects with an employee's personal life, a negative effect on performance and productivity starts to develop. This information suggests that employees' having to take work home or their inability to separate work from personal matters is a critical problem. This further confirms a strong relationship between job satisfaction and performance. More specifically, productivity appeared to be negatively affected by stress and job dissatisfaction. As theorized, high levels of workplace stress can lead to a decline in productivity, while increased employee satisfaction can increase job performance and productivity.

An employee's performance can be explained using Vroom's expectancy theory, distinguishing effort, outcomes, and performance (Van Eerde & Thierry, 1996). The theory assumes that behavior is a result of rational choices made among alternatives to minimize pain and maximizing pleasure. According to Vroom's theory, the performance of an employee is dependent on individual factors such as knowledge, experience, abilities, effort, temperament, and personality (Van Eerde & Thierry, 1996).

The theory can be applied to decipher the motivation behind an individual's action. The expectancy theory is not solely about self-interest and personal rewards. In actuality, it is about an individual's effort towards an anticipated outcome after considering the pros and cons of such achievement. Van Eerde and Thierry (1996) utilize Vroom's expectancy theory to explain employee performance and describe it as having three components: instrumentality, expectancy, and valence.

Expectancy

Expectancy involves the concept that increased effort leads to increased performance (Van Eerde & Thierry, 1996). Suppose variables such as an employee's skill set, organizational resources, and institutional support are taken into account. In that case, it has been observed that when an individual expends more energy and effort at his or her job, it usually leads to an improvement in the quality of the work.

Instrumentality

This is the belief that when an individual performs well in his or her position, the desired outcome becomes more attainable (Van Eerde & Thierry, 1996). In this sense, the level of the performance can be seen as a determinant of the outcome level. For example, when an employee does an excellent job, in turn, he or she receives a reward for the well-done tasks. On the contrary, when the performance expectations are not met, the individual can expect a less desirable outcome such as a reprimand or disciplinary action. Instrumentality is influenced by various factors including: a comprehension of the relationship between outcome and performance, trust in leadership, fair decisions, fit reward and punishment, and the transparency of the process in which determinations are made.

Valence

Valence refers to the significance an individual places upon an anticipated outcome. If the outcome has a positive valence, it means that the individual is determined to attain the outcome when he or she is given the choice (Van Eerde & Thierry, 1996). For example, a person who desires to make more money may not view other rewards (e.g., vacation time, coupons) as motivating when performing work tasks. Valence is essential in deciphering why one outcome is preferred over another. The formula for understanding valence can be explained as effort produces performance (E>P expectancy), and performance produces outcome (P>O expectancy). E>P expectancy assesses the probability that an individual's effort can generate the needed performance level; while P>O expectancy explains the probability of obtaining the desired outcome based on the carried out performance.

Vroom's expectancy theory is relevant to most work scenarios because it demonstrates how an employee gets his or her motivation. Whether the reward may be, management can use it to influence and enhance employee performance.

Occupational Burnout

Occupational burnout comprises three dimensions of employee characteristics: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced individual competence (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2011). Burnout can be viewed as the final reaction stage to constant stressors from a work environment. Several factors characterize this reaction and can display multiple symptoms. When there are discrepancies between the employees and the job they perform, burnout becomes more likely. The Maslach Burnout Inventory is one of the tools used in assessing and identifying both the risk of employee burnout as well as its prevalence in an organization. The MBI has three components: A, B, and C. Section A identifies the physical symptoms of burnout. Section B focuses on the accompanying negative attitudes and depersonalization attitudes towards work. Lastly, Section C represents individuals' diminished sense of personal achievements at their workplace.

Occupational burnout can be explained by either of two major theoretical frameworks: The Jobs Demands-Resources (JDR) model and Maslach's theory of burnout. These are highly relevant in decoding and explaining employee burnout (Maslach et al., 2011). The JDR model provides a foundation for fathoming job resources and job demands and how they contribute to occupational burnout and stress. On the other hand, the Maslach Theory focuses on the prevalence of occupational burnout among human service workers.

The JDR theory was established by Professor Arnold Bakker in 2006. This model draws upon other models in dealing with occupational burnout. Unlike other models with limited focus, the JDR model applies to all organizations, all people, and all occupations. As such, this model supports employee on: being well-balanced, having both emotional and physical health; and producing better services and results at work. This model has two main parts: job resources and job demands. Job resources are an organization's social or physical structures that have been established to maintain and improve employee performance. They include safe working environments, employee training, sound management and leadership, and job evaluations. In contrast, the job demands includes the physical, psychological and social aspects of a job, such as workload, work conflicts, time issues, and pressure at work (Maslach et al., 2011). According to this theory, occupational stress and burnout can develop when the demands of a job are high and work resources low. On the other hand, when job demands are low and work resources are high, positive results at work can be seen such as increase engagement and motivation. All in all, the JDR model emphasizes the need for striking a balance between job demands and job resources.

Maslach's theory states that occupational burnout results when the demands of a position do not match the capabilities of the employee (Maslach et al., 2011). This mismatch can cause employees to perform poorly because they cannot cope with the job's demands. In this theory, occupational burnout has three dimensions: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and cynicism, and inefficiency. Emotional exhaustion occurs when stress symptoms such as agitation, moodiness, and frustration contribute to an individual's inability to handle a job's physical and emotional aspects. The resulting depersonalization can make employees distance themselves from their job, which often leads to feelings of disengagement from work entirely. Inefficiency, also known as lack of personal achievement, is a general feeling of incompetence experienced once an individual self-evaluates. Six main factors could lead to a bad fit between a job and an individual: conflict of work and personal values, lack of fairness at work, breakdown of community support, reward, workload (working overtime), and lack of control over the workplace happenings. To rectify the burnout, There must be a balance between resources available and the job demands.

Dr. David Ballard, a psychologist from the American Psychological Association, describes burnout as an extended period of time when an individual experiences exhaustion and a lack of interest in things, directly resulting in a decline in their performance at work (Ballard, 2013). When repeatedly ignored, burnout can have adverse and long-term effects on an individual's health, happiness, interpersonal relationships, and job performance. Ballard (2013) advised readers to recognize the following symptoms:

exhaustion; lack of motivation, low frustration tolerance, cynicism, cognitive problems, declining job performance, interpersonal problems, poor self-care, rumination about work when not at work, decreased job satisfaction, and physical health problems.

In Yavas, Babakus, and Karatepe (2013), burnout is said to develop as the result of daily demands and hassles at the individual's workplace. Continuous exposure to high stress can deplete an employee's energy and decrease job satisfaction. Yavas et al. (2013) discovered that when individuals constantly experienced stress at work (e.g., being yelled at by customers, getting poor reviews, being criticized by management, receiving poor peer support), they eventually start to have severe difficulty performing tasks and apathy. Apathy is the stage in which the employee no longer cares if the assigned tasks are being completed (Yavas et al., 2013). Burnout can also spread from one person to another within an organization. As the result of burnout, an employee frequently becomes more negative about his or her job (Yavas et al., 2013). Encountering this negative energy has a powerful effect on other employees and can lead to them becoming more negative. Front line staff (i.e., those in jobs with direct customer contact) generally experience burnout more often than those in managerial positions. When these employees are constantly exposed to physical, emotional, and mental stressors, it often leads to: low motivation, inefficiency, and reduced self-esteem.

Yavas et al. (2013) suggested several factors impacting burnout including: large scale layoffs, greater job demands with lower pay, lack of job security, poor leadership, aggression from customers and coworkers, and a high level of workplace pressure. If these issues are not dealt with, it can invoke consequences on a larger scale such as: lower job performance on an organizational level, greater job dissatisfaction, increased absences, and mass turnover. Intrinsic motivation and hope are two important factors that can prevent or lessen the effect of job burnout. An individual with high levels of intrinsic motivation and hope can see negative events from a more positive angle and therefore experiences less stress and burnout.

Christina Maslach is a prominent figure in social psychology who has conducted extensive research on occupational burnout. Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter (1996) studied the impact of burnout on staff members in human services and educational institutions. The human services field can be rewarding, but at times it can also be frustrating and draining. The population of human services providers was selected because these employees spend considerable time working with people in intense scenarios. Often, these interactions are centered on the consumer's problems and infused with many negative emotions (e.g., anger, despair, fear, sadness). Continuous exposure under these circumstances can produce chronic stress and burnout.

Maslach et al. (1996) stated that burnout often leads to one or more occupational problems: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment. According to Maslach et al. (1996), emotionally exhausted staff tend to exhibit behaviors that suggest they do not care. In cases with high levels of burnout, employees can experience symptoms of severe emotional depletion. As a consequence of such low psychological and mental capacity, employees are no longer able to carry on their work. Burnout can also lead to depersonalization. At this stage, staff can begin to view clients as adversaries who deserve whatever troubles they may have. This causes employees to develop extremely negative thoughts and feelings about the people they should be helping. Lastly, long-lasting burnout can also reduce personal accomplishment. Stressed and burned out employees tend to be harsh in self-evaluation and experience regular negative self-talk (Maslach et al., 1996). All of these elements can leave employees feeling unhappy and dissatisfied with their jobs.

In summary, when employees are overworked, high stress levels are generated and create many problems in their professional and personal lives (Halkos & Bousinakis, 2009). A stress-ridden employee tends to: make incorrect decisions, respond poorly to problems, act more reactively than proactively, and develop negative relationships with coworkers. These negative outcomes can have a powerful effect on the organization as a whole. This effect can ultimately create: declining in overall job performance, reduced productivity, greater numbers of mistakes, and higher levels of absenteeism and turnover. When these effects occur, an organization can incur insurmountable resource and staffing costs.

PROBLEMS THAT HINDER MENTAL HEALTH PRACTITIONERS' JOB SATISFACTION

A mental health practitioner is a person who offers services geared towards improving a person's psychological well-being. The services he or she provides sometimes extends beyond individual level to encompass couple, family, extended family, group, community, and others. These professionals are: psychologists, psychiatrists, clinical social workers, marriage and family therapists, and professional counselors. A psychiatrist is a medical doctor who specializes in mental health care and can prescribe medicine. A psychologist is a doctorate-level individual trained in psychotherapy who conducts and interprets psychological assessments. Therapists are masters-level specialists concerned greatly with relationships and can also deliver psychotherapy services. Records were scrutinized to find out why mental health professionals slacked at their jobs, filed complaints or resigned from positions. From this research, several factors came up as principal problems impacting mental health professionals' job satisfaction and including secondary trauma, compassion fatigue and chronic stress.

Compassion Fatigue

This is a condition of extreme anxiety and preoccupation with the suffering of patients one is helping (Thompson, Amatea, & Thompson, 2014). It is a feeling of pity and resentment for the patients from the specialist's part. According to the American Institute of Stress, mental health professionals develop this mental complication when exposed to working with patients who have sunk deeply into a disturbed state of mind. This is likely because mental health workers tend to keep things bottled up and do not have an outlet to share their problems at work. Additionally, most do not find time to exercise and eat well because of the intensity of the care and services they offer their patients. Equally important, many specialists experience disrupted or lack of sleep because of frequent patient monitoring and extremely long hours dealing with work-related challenges.

Compassion fatigue may result in resignations and change of occupation because of the persistent low worker morale in those conditions. Most mental health workers that suffer from compassion fatigue begin to despair and lose interest in their psychological needs such as esteem, trust, and self-control. This happens when practitioners become so involved in some cases and lose their compassion for others. In turn, this paves the way for emotional imbalance, depression, loss of self-worth, and low job satisfaction. The consequences can lead to turnover or seeking new jobs in different fields.

Secondary Trauma

Since mental health practitioners' objective is to help traumatized people, secondary trauma becomes a prime risk. There is a cumulative effect that develops gradually when a practitioner repeatedly handles clients through listening to description of traumas such as: violence, death, loss, child abuse, sexual assaults, and others. It happens because of the connection and empathy therapists establish with clients through building rapport (Kahil & Palabiyikoglu, 2018). To put it into perspective, a therapist can feel his or her clients' psychological pain through their stories. A good case in point is a mental therapist handling a young girl who her father sexually abused. To provide effective treatment, the therapist must be able to see things from the girl's perspective before attempting to help her. As a result, the therapist develops a shift in cognitive beliefs, affecting his or her psychological needs such as intimacy and self-esteem.

Another outcome of secondary trauma is the deterioration of interpersonal relationship with others. In affected individuals, the symptoms include: signs of depersonalization, reduced personal accomplishment levels, and emotional exhaustion (Patel, 2017). The risk of secondary trauma is dependent on the amount of empathy a practitioner provides to clients. The more a therapist gives, the riskier the situation becomes.

Secondary trauma causes mental health therapists to lose enthusiasm, job excitement, and sense of job prestige. In turn, they develop problems similar to the clients' they are treating such as: emotional imbalance, psychological disturbance, hopelessness, and difficulty in accomplishing assigned tasks. At the professional level, therapists suffering from secondary trauma often begin to self-distance, isolate, and withdraw from colleagues. In their personal lives, they prefer being alone at home, not interact with family

members or loved ones, and adopt a new solitude lifestyle. This ripple effect can induce an increase in absenteeism, tardiness, and poor performance, all of which negatively impact their job satisfaction.

Chronic Stress

Similar to secondary trauma, chronic stress builds gradually and becomes more explosive at the end (Abdallah & Geha, 2017). It results from constant worrying and stressing about patients and their ordeals. Most practitioners are vulnerable to this effect since a person has little or no control over his or her endocrine system. Chronic stress among mental health specialists is sometimes a product of: failure to improve the client's situation, long working hours, hyper-attention given to the patients, insufficient sleep, and poor self-care. Unlike normal stress which can be managed by stress management techniques, chronic stress is far more challenging to handle as it brings about critical health conditions such as: high blood pressure, weak immune system, muscle pains, and anxiety. Additionally, chronic stress tends to encourage negative coping mechanisms such as smoking, poor diet, drinking, and substance abuse.

Just like compassion fatigue and secondary trauma, the effects chronic stress has on mental health therapists include job difficulties and poor performance due to problems in both a professional and a personal capacity. According to the American Institute of stress, the more stress an employee experiences, he or she becomes less productive at work. This is true for most mental health therapists as their positions involve being with patients daily while monitoring their situations and recommending them for further treatments. All in all, these demands can lead to significant decline in their job satisfaction.

LEADERSHIP AND ITS SIGNIFICANCE IN ORGANIZATIONS

The concept of leadership is complex; however gaining a higher level of understanding about it is possible by breaking it into smaller components. The following literature explores leadership and its various effect within the organizations. First section elaborates on the influence of leadership on organizational culture. In the second section, negative aspect of leadership and its consequences on organizational outcomes are explored. The last section provides a better recognition about good leadership and its ability to moderate employee job satisfaction.

Poor Leadership and Negative Organizational Consequences

Toor and Ogunlana (2009) explored the various aspects of poor leadership when they examined negative attributes of leaders and organizational neutralizers. Organizational neutralizers are described as those who negate changes and do their best to maintain the *status quo*. Negative leadership can be seen as ineffective and passive at the lowest level. This is where leaders approach a problem with cowardice or when they are unable to fulfill their responsibilities. Negative consequences can occur when staff doubt their leaders can handle problems correctly and effectively. This questioning can invoke further negative consequences that hinder employee job satisfaction and performance. Toor and Ogunlana (2009) stated that the effects of negative leadership styles can be seen as destructive and toxic. When employees witness negative leadership, they are more likely to suffer from poor psychological health, avolition, a lack of interest in work, low job performance, low levels of organizational citizenship, and low self-confidence.

In addition, poor leadership can induce many secondary problems for an organization. Toor and Ogunlana (2009) pointed out that the environments created by poor leaders can allow negative followers to thrive. Negative followers are employees who conform to poor leadership and passively allow toxic leaders to assume positions of power because they deem this occurrence favorable to their workplace success. They often go along with whatever the leaders say and readily betray or blame others for personal gain. Toor and Ogunlana (2009) also emphasized a neutralizer concept introduced in Kerr and Jermier's research. Kerr and Jermier (1978) explained that neutralizers possess characteristics that can negatively influence leadership and render it ineffective. Some characteristics include indifference to organizational rewards, incapability, incompetency, unambiguous routine, and organizational inflexibility. If an organization has a high level of both neutralizers and negative followers, the effect of negative leadership practices can increase.

Aubrey (2012) stated that a strong organizational culture is key to moderating the effects of both positive and negative leadership styles on employees. Therefore, it can promote either positive or negative behaviors. While positive leadership helps to build and move the organization forward, negative leadership damages an organization in multiple ways. By examining workplace outcomes, Aubrey (2012) confirmed that negative leadership can severely impact an organization's outcome. Aubrey (2012) indicated that negative consequences occur because toxic leaders often abuse their power and promote themselves at the expense of the organization without considering any negative effects that may result. Negative leadership often thrives when individuals abuse their power to influence the organizational culture and climate. In turn, this maintains the status quo and ensures their continuous influence and position of power. As a result, the damage done to an organization's culture can often take a long time to heal, even after the removal of negative leadership.

In addition to that point, toxic leadership is detrimental because it violates many of the aspects of organizational culture that have been already discussed (e.g., beliefs, values, norms). Toxic leadership undermines organizational values by redefining the organization's goals and mission to facilitate the leader's agenda (Aubrey, 2012). The negative impact is most significant to employees with a high sense of value and purpose in their jobs. Workers who are dedicated to the company's mission can become complacent and disillusioned upon seeing repeated demonstrations that an individual's success precedes that of the organization. Ultimately, this leads to employee perception that there is a contradiction between the organization's values and the values implemented by its leaders. An organization's norms can also be negatively affected by toxic leadership. Aubrey (2012) indicated that leaders use toxic behaviors to rationalize their lack of adherence to established norms. If employees come to view negative individual behaviors as normal, then the organization can start to engage in those behaviors as well. This can leave a lasting negative effect, because it grooms the next generation of leaders to demonstrate equally toxic behavior.

Toxic leadership can negatively impact the welfare of the organization and those who work there (Kusy & Halloway, 2009). This damage can also grow to a point where it affects outside entities who are involved with the organization, such as stake-holders, customers, community partners, and members. Leaders play a key role in achieving organizational success. In extreme cases, negative leaders can have a greater effect on an organization than can good leaders because of their ability to inflict a larger amount of damage than can be readily fixed.

Effective Leadership and Employee Job Satisfaction

A good leader takes the initiative to tackle and deal with adverse situations with courage and confidence (Thamrin, 2012). Effective leaders meet challenges openly and honestly, Whether adapting to a new system or figuring out a solution to an existing problem. As Pradeep and Prabhu (2011) stated, leaders can create order out of chaos, steer organizations through obstacles and turbulence, bring mightiness out of mediocrity, and thrive in adverse situations where many others had failed.

Using positive leadership to enhance job satisfaction is necessary to improve organizational outcomes. Loke (2001) noted that during a time of uncertainty and confusion, a positive leader can steer an organization away from disaster and towards recovery and rebuilding. Loke (2001) studied a group of 20 nurse managers whose average age was between 50 and 59 and had been in their position more than 10 years. Statistical findings showed that there is a strong correlation between managers' leadership and employee job outcome. According to the regression analysis, 8.8% of productivity and 29.2% of job satisfaction can be explained by leadership alone. Therefore, Loke (2001) concluded that positive leadership greatly impacts employee satisfaction and emphasizes the importance of providing leaders with adequate training to guiding and helping employees reaching their full potential.

Thamrin (2012) sought to examine the impact of leadership effectiveness on employee job satisfaction while also identifying the relationships among transformational leadership, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and performance. The data were collected from 105 employees of multiple shipping companies in Jakarta, Indonesia. The structural equation model analysis demonstrated a high index for organization commitment (82.12), job satisfaction (79.39), and job performance (78.91). The leadership index of 75.86

also was high, implying the participants strongly seek meaningful and effective leadership. Thamrin (2012) concluded that transformational leadership appears to positively influence organizational commitment, which in turn can lead to greater employee satisfaction and job performance.

Shafie et al. (2013) emphasize the importance of regular communication between leaders and staff to inform them of developing news and how the company reacts to challenges. This goes a long way towards making employees feel included in any organizational changes. Shafie et al. (2013) noted that trust is extremely important in the work place. If a leader is trusted, he or she is less likely to encounter unpleasant surprises. In their study, 277 employees in a real estate registration unit participated in sample size collection. Using a correlation analysis, Shafie et al. (2013) also arrived at the same conclusion as Thamrin (2012) and Loke (2001), that positive leadership is a strong moderator for employee job satisfaction.

Tsai (2011) further explained that effective leaders can supervise, lower stress, foster autonomy and build relationships. Tsai (2011) found a positive correlation between leadership effectiveness and job satisfaction after gathering personnel reports, monitoring group interactions, and conducting workplace evaluations. A cross-sectional study was utilized on the population of hospital nurses. 200 valid questionnaires were returned for the correlation analysis. The results showed the average score for leadership (3.77 to 3.42) and job satisfaction (3.84 to 2.56). His research indicated that organizations with high levels of leadership effectiveness were more productive. Simply put, management's leadership skills are the determining factor in whether or not employees are satisfied with their jobs.

The aggregated information in this topic suggests that management's leadership has considerable influence on the organization's and its staff's occupational outcomes. More specifically, the collected studies seemed to agree that there is a positive relationship between leadership effectiveness and employee job satisfaction. Effective leadership can create a positive working culture and environment, while deficient leadership lowers morale and increases job dissatisfaction. This relationship is significant in both correlational and regression studies.

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHOD

Hypotheses

If the employees' organizational commitment, performance, and occupational burnout are controlled, are their perceptions of their leaders' effectiveness related to their job satisfaction?

Null hypothesis: When the employees' organizational commitment, performance, and occupational burnout are controlled, their perceptions of their leaders' effectiveness are unrelated to their job satisfaction.

Alternate hypothesis: When the employees' organizational commitment, performance, and occupational burnout are controlled, their perceptions of their leaders' effectiveness are related to their job satisfaction.

Statistical result to reject the null hypothesis: When the employees' organizational commitment, performance, and occupational burnout are controlled, a significant regression coefficient for employees' perception of leadership effectiveness.

Research Method

This research was a cross-sectional survey design that utilized quantitative methods, including descriptive statistics and multiple regression analysis, to measure the effect of the predictor variables on the outcome variable. All data were collected through online surveys.

Research Variables and Levels of Measurement

The level of measurement for all variables in the study was interval. The outcome variable was employee job satisfaction. Employee job satisfaction is the level of happiness in the employee's attitude toward the workplace. The scale for measuring job satisfaction was best represented by a continuous measure with a high score indicating high job satisfaction (Ward & Cowman, 2007).

The variable of primary interest was the perception of leadership effectiveness, which was defined as how employees view and rank the level of effectiveness of their immediate supervisors based on their

observable behaviors (Yukl, 2012). Effective behaviors were divided into four categories: task orientation; relationship orientation, change orientation; and external orientation. A high score in each of these categories meant that the supervisor displayed exceptional skills as perceived by his or her staff.

The three control variables were organizational commitment, performance, and occupational burnout. Organizational commitment is defined as an individual's attachment to the organization. Meyer and Allen (1991) proposed that organizational commitment can be classified into three types: affective, normative, and continuance. The affective commitment demonstrated the employee's level of identification with the organization, with a high score implying that he or she wants to stay there. Normative commitment spoke about an employee's attitude regarding what he or she feels ought to be done and shows the influence of cultural and social expectations upon his or her work attitude. Continuance commitment was brought forth by the needs of employees, with a high score indicating higher cost to leave than to stay (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Employee performance represents the ability of the employees to complete the tasks and duties assigned to them based on their job position (Shahab & Nisa, 2014). The collected performance data was a percentage of the employees' billable hours divided by the monthly expected hours. The higher percentage suggested that they employees were more productive and better at meeting workplace requirements.

Occupational burnout was defined as a psychological syndrome encompassing three elements: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and a diminished sense of personal accomplishment (Maslach, 1982). A high score for emotional exhaustion signifies that individuals are emotionally depleted and can no longer carry out their tasks. A high score for depersonalization indicates that the individuals start to view their consumers as adversaries. On the contrary, a high score for personal accomplishment implies that the staff feel accomplished or fulfilled at their jobs. Occupational burnout was often experienced by various individuals working in challenging environments and situations. Burnout are exceptionally devastating for professionals working to the field of human services such as teachers, police officers, lawyers, nurses, counselors, and others, because it undermines their services and care (Maslach, 1982).

Procedure

The researcher contacted various Facebook therapy groups and asked the moderators for permission to make postings about the research as well as the invitation to participate. After acquiring the permission, researcher posted the research advertisement (see Appendix A) on the group wall, which contained a short description and a link to the study. The advertisement also had the researcher's contact information for prospected participants in case of questions or concerns.

Qualtrics hosted the survey. Clicking on the link took the participants to the first page, which was the consent to participate (see Appendix B). Participants checked "no, I do not consent" to decline or "yes, I consent" to acknowledge their willingness to participate in the study in lieu of their signature. If the "no, I do not consent" was marked, the process ended and the participants received Thank You Message #1 (see Appendix J). If consent was provided, the participants were taken to the second page where they were asked qualifying questions (see Appendix C). If they did not meet study criteria, then the session ended and they were provided with Thank You Message #2 (see Appendix J).

Qualified participants continued and completed a series of surveys in the following order of administration: Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, Managerial Practices Survey, Three-Component Model Employee Commitment Survey, Maslach Burnout Inventory, self-report of performance, and demographics questionnaire. At completion, participants were provided with Thank You Message #3 (see Appendix J). As a reward, all qualified participants were eligible to participate in a raffle. The price is one of the five Starbucks gift cards, each with a \$25 value. Participants had to email the researcher after final completion to participate in the raffle. The selected winners were contacted via email for prize delivery details.

The survey was set up so that participants could not submit a measure unless all items had been responded to. When an individual did not complete all of the items for a particular measure, they were notified upon submission that items were missing and needed to be completed. The participants were strongly encouraged to complete all items within a measure; however, they might choose the option of

“decline to state” if they wished to not answer a particular question. The participants could only submit the measure after all items had been responded to.

Each measure was presented individually, and submissions were done measure by measure rather than having one submission at the end. This allowed the participants to take breaks after each survey and come back to finish other measures when they could. The last piece of the survey was the demographics questionnaire, which could only be done after all other measures had been completed. Raw scores were transformed into another more appropriate format for statistical analysis.

Participants

The study targeted participants working in nonprofit organizations specializing in mental health treatment and recovery. No specific agency was selected; however, the participants must have been working at a nonprofit that provided mental health services during the time specified in the qualifying criteria. All participants were recruited online via research advertisement.

As it was previously discussed, the research subjects were mental health practitioners who were defined as specialists with an associate’s, bachelor’s, master’s, or doctorate in the field of psychology, mental health, behavioral health, social work, and other related fields. Other criteria for participation included working for a nonprofit agency; working directly with client; having expectations for billing for services, and possessing six consecutive months of billing from July to December of 2017.

The sample size of mental health practitioners was calculated using GPower analysis software. The GPower analysis (see Appendix K) was calculated using the medium effect size of 0.15, alpha error probability at 0.05, and power at 0.80. The study examined one outcome variable (employee satisfaction) and four variables of interest: perceived leadership effectiveness; employees’ organizational commitment; performance, and occupational burnout. Perceived leadership effectiveness was made up of four subscales: task orientation, relationship orientation, change orientation, and external-orientation. Occupational burnout comprised three subscales: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal achievement. Therefore, when power analysis was performed, employee satisfaction was regressed on nine predictors. For the research question, a sample size of 114 was needed to have a satisfactory level of statistical power. A 20% pad was added to the sample to compensate for invalid surveys and other errors that might occur during sampling. The final desired sample size was estimated to be 137 participants.

Instrumentation

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (see Appendix D) is the short version designed by the University of Minnesota to measure an employee’s satisfaction with his or her job (Weiss et al., 1964). The MSQ is a detailed instrument because it can gather specific information about certain aspects of a job that make an individual feel rewarded and satisfied. The subscales of the MSQ are intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction. In past studies, the MSQ had been used to explore employees’ vocational and occupational needs to generate more information about the work factors that can reinforce positive outcomes. In this study, the two MSQ’s subscales were combined into a single measure and used to gauge mental health practitioners’ level of job satisfaction. The questionnaire comprised of 20 questions with each displayed in a five-item Likert scale: (1) very dissatisfied, (2) dissatisfied, (3) neither satisfied nor dissatisfied, (4) satisfied, and (5) very satisfied.

The reliability and validity of the MSQ short form was documented in the “Manual for the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire” by Weiss, Dawis, England, and Lofquist (1967). The test-retest reliability was .89 over one week and .70 over one year, with no intrinsic or extrinsic sub-scales results. The internal consistency of the MSQ were all acceptable being greater than .70. The MSQ short form had also shown solid construct validity among surveys of various occupational groups (Weiss et al., 1967). The MSQ short form was used by LaMarche and Tullai-McGuinness (2009) in their study of nurse practitioner job satisfaction, which showed the same findings of acceptable validity. These results supported the reliability and validity of the MSQ short form and its fitness for this study.

Managerial Practices Survey (MPS)

Perceived leadership effectiveness was assessed using the Managerial Practices Survey (see Appendix E). Dr. Gary Yukl developed the MPS in an effort to evaluate the effectiveness of managerial practices among leaders. The survey consists of 48 questions grouped into different constructs and evaluated on four categories: task orientation, relationship orientation, change orientation, and external behaviors (Yukl, 2012). Task orientation included: planning activities, clarifying roles and objectives, monitoring operations and performance, and problem-solving and disturbance handling. Relationship orientation included supporting, recognizing, developing skills, consulting, delegating, and encouraging teamwork and cooperation. Change orientation included advocating change, envisioning change, and encouraging innovation. Lastly, external behaviors included networking, external monitoring, and representing. The MPS used a five-item Likert scale: (1) not at all or not applicable, (2) to a limited extent, (3) to a moderate extent, (4) to a considerable extent, (5) to a very great extent.

The MPS is an effective instrument for providing performance feedback to leaders in management positions (Tracey & Hinkin, 1998). The MPS scale was developed to define leadership behaviors in special categories with characteristics labeled as managerial practices. Tracey and Hinkin (1998) recruited 214 participants who were asked to complete questionnaires. The average age of the participants was about 38 and all had been in their current position for more than one year. Tracey and Hinkin (1998) found that the MPS measures four dimensions of managerial practices with major distinction. The results supported the idea that the MPS assesses four distinct constructs.

Berry (1998) also used the MPS in his study about effective leadership in US Air Force (USAF) grade officers. Berry (1998) examined junior officers' behaviors that were considered critical in their leadership role. Berry's result ($\alpha = 0.9$) confirmed that the MPS was reliable for measuring leadership behaviors.

Three-Component Model - Employee Commitment Survey (TCM)

This study assessed employees' organizational commitment using the Three-Component Model - Employee Commitment Survey (see Appendix F). The TCM is based on Meyer and Allen's three-component model of commitment and measures three categories: affective commitment (desire-based), normative commitment (obligation-based), and continuance commitment (cost-based) (Meyer & Allen, 1991, 1997). Each of the commitment scales consists of six questions. The TCM utilizes the Likert scales with the following response choices: (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) slightly disagree, (4) undecided, (5) slightly agree, (6) agree, and (7) strongly agree.

This measurement of organizational commitment had been a widely researched instrument with results from many studies that strongly support its validity and reliability (Culpepper, 2000). Originally, there was some criticism about several of the scale items. Culpepper (2000) tested the revised scales of the TCM in order to further verify its psychometric soundness. He sampled 366 employees of a home improvement retailer across 14 different store locations in the southeastern region of the United States. The results showed that the revised scale improved the original constructs' measurement. Culpepper (2000) concluded that minor modifications to the original TCM significantly improved its measurement validity and reliability.

In a study by Davis (2014) on the effect of commitment on students at a university, the affective commitment subscale appeared to have the strongest predictive ability in gauging students' attitude and behaviors related to retention. Davis (2014) concluded that the affective commitment subscale provides the most comprehensive information regarding how long students remain at a university and their level of loyalty after graduation. Although all three forms of organizational commitment are informative, only the affective subscale is utilized to gauge the employee's level of commitment and their intention to stay with the organization in the current study.

Maslach Burnout Inventory - Human Services Survey (MBI-HSS)

Employee stress level and burnout were evaluated using the Maslach Burnout Inventory - Human Services Survey (see Appendix G). The MBI was developed by Maslach and Jackson in 1981. The original survey contains 22 questions and measures burnout across three dimensions: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment. All three subscales were utilized to test the hypotheses.

The survey is answered using a Likert scale with seven responses ranging from 0 to 6. The responses include: (0) never, (1) a few times a year, (2) monthly, (3) a few times a month, (4) every week, (5) a few times a week, and (6) every day. Within the MBI-HSS, emotional exhaustion has nine questions, depersonalization has five questions, and personal accomplishment has eight questions.

Maslach et al. (1996) stated that job satisfaction negatively correlates with emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. This suggested that job satisfaction is low when emotional exhaustion and depersonalization are high, and the opposite is true. According to Maslach et al. (1996), emotional exhaustion was the closest representation of the burnout variable whereas depersonalization and personal accomplishment were second. Tijdink, Vergouwen, and Smulders (2014) reiterated the vital role that emotional exhaustion plays in burnout among medical professionals and used the emotional exhaustion subscale exclusively in their research. The nine items in the emotional exhaustion subscale were used to assess if an employee feels emotionally overextended from work. A higher score on this scale would signify a higher degree of occupational burnout.

The Cronbach's coefficient alpha for the emotional exhaustion subscale is .90 compared to .76 for Depersonalization subscale and .76 for the Personal Accomplishment subscale. In addition, the test-retest reliability coefficient is documented at .82 with the standard error of measurement at 3.80 (Maslach et al., 1996). This information supports the reliability of all three subscales. The scale validity was demonstrated in three correlational analyses. First, MBI scores were correlated with behavioral ratings conducted by someone who understood the individual well. Second, MBI scores correlated with certain occupational characteristics associated with burnout. Third, MBI scores were correlated with outcomes that were suggested to be reliable predictors of burnout. All three correlation analyses provided support for the validity of the MBI-HSS.

Self-Report of Performance

A short survey was constructed to collect participant data about their work performance (see Appendix H). For the purpose of this study, the performance date would pertain to the months of 2017 only, going from July to December. Qualified participants had to possess billing productivity for these six consecutive months.

The performance data were aggregated to provide an overall individual performance assessment. Performance results was absolutely anonymous and could not be traced back to the participants. The completion of the survey was done by filling in the percentage of billable hours an employee completed for the months listed. The percentage was then calculated by dividing the hours billed by the expected hours and multiplying by 100. Expected hours is the number of hours required to be billed during a month set forth by employers. For example, a participant might report a total billable hours for a specific month at 85 hours with the expected hours for that month at 90. The percentage would be $(85/90)*100 = 94.44\%$. This percentage was calculated and reported by each participant for the month specified on the survey.

Demographics Questionnaire

The participants also completed the demographics questionnaire (see Appendix I) in order to allow the researcher to generate a classification based on personal information. The questionnaire consisted of six questions with multiple choices that allowed participants to pick an answer that most represented them. The questions explored gender, marital status, ethnic background, age, level of education, and level of pay as an employee. If participants were uncomfortable with disclosing personal data, they could opt for "decline to state." In addition, if the participants felt that the presented answers did not fully represent them as an individual or current situation, they could pick "other" on the questionnaire.

Demographic data were not used in the regression analysis but in this study to expand and incorporate aspects of human diversity. Cultural diversity is an important factor explored in the literature review. Demographic analysis enabled researchers to identify patterns among the information collected. The results were used in the final discussion of the study to draw meaningful and relevant conclusions about the diversity factor as observed in participants' responses.

Data Processing

The null hypothesis was tested using a hierarchical linear regression method. Employee job satisfaction was regressed on perceived leadership effectiveness, employees' affective organizational commitment, performance, and occupational burnout subscales. Perceived leadership effectiveness was the variable of primary interest. Organizational commitment, performance, and occupational burnout subscales were the control variables. Employee job satisfaction was the outcome variable.

According to Field (2013), a multiple regression allows researchers to predict the outcome variable's future value based on the predictors' values. It also provides a means to explain why values vary on the outcome variable measure in terms of predictor variables in the model. Further data analyses through descriptive statistics, inferential statistics, tables, and plots were included in the results to provide a more holistic picture of the study and its significance. Exploratory analyses were also conducted. All data analyses were conducted using IBM SPSS 23 Statistics.

Assumptions and Limitations in Method

Data collection that relied on self-reported ratings could limit the study due to personal bias. As leadership effectiveness of supervisors was rated by their subordinates, this information was influenced by the employees' subjective perceptions based on the health of the relationship between the individual and his or her leaders. For example, a disgruntled employee who had been consistently dissatisfied for many years might catastrophize and rate everything worse than it was. The testing period might also present some limitations in the data collection process. For instance, new employees might have lower performance data than seasoned professionals who grasped the ins and outs of clinic operations.

The study focused on a specific occupational category. Consequently, the results were not easily extrapolated to the general population. In future studies, researchers can extend data collection to other occupations within the nonprofits instead of limiting to only one profession. In addition, the study did not consider any cultural factors that may lead to differences when comparing one ethnic group with another within the population of mental health practitioners.

The order of the surveys presented to the participants was not randomized due to a limitation experienced by the hosting survey website, Qualtrics. At the time of data collection, Qualtrics could not randomize the order of the survey being presented to participants. When surveys are presented in a fixed order, the latter measures in the sequence can often get most missing values due to fatigue effects. The research addressed this concern by requiring all participants to complete all items before successfully submitting a measure.

Delimitations

Delimitations describe the limits of the scope of the data specified by the research criteria. As previously stated, the criteria for participation included: possessing an associate's, bachelor's, master's, or doctorate degree in field of psychology, mental health, behavioral health, social work and other related field; working for a nonprofit agency; working directly with client; having expectations for billing for services; and having six consecutive months of billing from July to December 2017. Participants who did not meet the criteria were not included in the sample. Another delimitation pertained to the type of agency chosen for the research. For instance, the study excluded participants who reported working for government agencies, for-profits, private practices, schools. Lastly, the research did not examine other types of nonprofits not specialized in mental health services.

Ethical Assurances

Data collected were aggregated and individual-level data were not reported. The participants' personal information were kept strictly confidential to prevent any identifiable information. Research records were kept in a locked file, and all electronic information was secured using a password protected computer. Participants were assured that their personal information remained anonymous and would not be published.

In addition, research materials were to be kept for at least five years after publication per APA guidelines. The research records could be reviewed by federal agencies responsible for protecting human

subjects participating in research, including the Office of Human Research Protections (OHRP) and by representatives from The Chicago School of Professional Psychology Institutional Review Board (IRB), a committee that oversees research. After five years, research data would be destroyed. Researcher would take measures to protect participants' confidentiality throughout the process. Paper records would be shredded, and electronic records stored on computer would be erased.

All qualified practitioners were invited to participate in the research, however their participation was voluntary and there were no consequences for refusing. Participants could choose to discontinue during data collection if they became triggered by the process. The study followed closely to the guidelines established by the school's IRB in ensuring that data gathering falls within the standards of practice. Participants were strongly encouraged to contact the researcher in cases of questions or concerns. The final findings were available to all participants who inquired about the final results.

FINDINGS

Demographics Information

Marital Status

The statistics for marital status were 42.4% single, 47.0% married, 4.0% divorced, 6.0% other, and 0.7% separated (see Table 1). No person declined to answer his or her marital status.

**TABLE 1
MARITAL STATUS**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Single	64	42.4	42.4	42.4
	Married	71	47.0	47.0	89.4
	Divorced	6	4.0	4.0	93.4
	Separated	1	.7	.7	94.0
	Other	9	6.0	6.0	100.0
	Total	151	100.0	100.0	

Gender

From the sample size, 48 were male and 145 were female (see Table 2). There were a total of three individuals in the category of transgender, other, and decline to state. The percentage for each classification were 71.50 % female, 26.5 % male, 0.7 % transgender, 0.7 % other, and 0.7 % decline to state.

**TABLE 2
GENDER**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	40	26.5	26.5	26.5
	Female	108	71.5	71.5	98.0
	Transgender	1	.7	.7	98.7
	Decline to state	1	.7	.7	99.3
	Other	1	.7	.7	100.0
	Total	151	100.0	100.0	

Age

Most participants fell in the age group of 30-34, fully 28.5% (see Table 3). Other categories were .7% for under 25, 27.8% for age 25-29, 19.9% for age 35-39, 10.6% for age 40-44, and 6.0% for ages 45-49, 4.6% for 50-54, .7% for 55-59, and 1.3% for 60-64. No person declined to answer about his or her age.

TABLE 3
AGE

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Under 25	1	.7	.7	.7
	25-29	42	27.8	27.8	28.5
	30-34	43	28.5	28.5	57.0
	35-39	30	19.9	19.9	76.8
	40-44	16	10.6	10.6	87.4
	45-49	9	6.0	6.0	93.4
	50-54	7	4.6	4.6	98.0
	55-59	1	.7	.7	98.7
	60-64	2	1.3	1.3	100.0
	Total	151	100.0	100.0	

Racial/Ethnic Background

This was one of the most comprehensive categories with 19 choices as part of the background identification (see Table 4). The higher percentage categories were 37.1 % Caucasian/European, 15.2 % Mexican American, 9.9 % other, 9.3 % Chinese, 7.9 % Vietnamese, and 4.6 % for Black/African American. Asian Americans had been divided into individual subgroups (e.g., Amerasian, Chinese, Indian, Japanese, Korean, Pacific Islander, and Vietnamese). When combined, clinicians who identified as having an Asian background made up 24.4 % of the sample size. A 1.3 % of individuals declined to share their background identification.

TABLE 4
RACIAL/ETHNIC BACKGROUND

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Amerasian	2	1.3	1.3	1.3
	Armenian	4	2.6	2.6	4.0
	Black/African American	7	4.6	4.6	8.6
	Caucasian/European	56	37.1	37.1	45.7
	Chinese	14	9.3	9.3	55.0
	Egyptian	1	.7	.7	55.6
	Indian	1	.7	.7	56.3
	Japanese	2	1.3	1.3	57.6
	Korean	2	1.3	1.3	58.9
	Mexican American	23	15.2	15.2	74.2
	Pacific Islander	4	2.6	2.6	76.8
	Pakistani	1	.7	.7	77.5
	Palestinian	1	.7	.7	78.1
	Puerto Rican	1	.7	.7	78.8

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
South American	3	2.0	2.0	80.8
Vietnamese	12	7.9	7.9	88.7
Decline to state	2	1.3	1.3	90.1
Other	15	9.9	9.9	100.0
Total	151	100.0	100.0	

Level of Pay

The majority of participants (59.7 %) reported level of pay in the range of \$45,000 to \$64,999 (see Table 5). A 1.5 % of individuals did not want to reveal their level of pay.

**TABLE 5
LEVEL OF PAY**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Below 30,000	6	4.0	4.0	4.0
	30,000 - 34,999	8	5.3	5.3	9.3
	35,000 - 39,999	10	6.6	6.6	15.9
	40,000 - 44,999	13	8.6	8.6	24.5
	45,000 - 49,999	24	15.9	15.9	40.4
	50,000 - 54,999	33	21.9	21.9	62.3
	55,000 - 59,999	16	10.6	10.6	72.8
	60,000 - 64,999	17	11.3	11.3	84.1
	65,000 - 69,999	8	5.3	5.3	89.4
	70,000 - 74,999	6	4.0	4.0	93.4
	75,000 - 79,999	4	2.6	2.6	96.0
	80,000 - 84,999	1	.7	.7	96.7
	85,000 - 89,999	1	.7	.7	97.4
	100,000 and above	1	.7	.7	98.0
	Decline to state	3	2.0	2.0	100.0
Total	151	100.0	100.0		

Education

The majority of participants reported having a master's degree at 79.5% (see Table 6). The remaining were 11.9% with bachelor's degree, 7.9% with doctorate degree, and .7% with associate's degree. All participants chose to disclose their educational background.

TABLE 6
LEVEL OF EDUCATION

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Associate's degree	1	.7	.7	.7
	Bachelor's degree	18	11.9	11.9	12.6
	Master's degree	120	79.5	79.5	92.1
	Doctorate degree	12	7.9	7.9	100.0
	Total	151	100.0	100.0	

Descriptive Statistics

As previously stated, 137 participants were required to ensure a satisfactory level of statistical power. Upon completion, a total of 150 valid responses were collected, with one participant having a missing value.

Correlational analyses were performed for age, education, and pay level to assess their relationship with employee job satisfaction. The correlation coefficients were .002, .032, and .017 respectively. This indicated a weak relationship for each variable with how satisfied employees feel about their jobs. A t-test was conducted on gender regarding job satisfaction and revealed a non-significant difference [$t(149) = .822, p = .05$]. In addition, there appeared to be no literature indicating a relationship between marital status and job satisfaction nor racial/ethnic identification and job satisfaction.

Scale analyses were performed for each of the other scales to verify their reliability except for self-report of performance. The self-report of performance was not a multiple-choice survey but an aggregated percentage of how well the employees could produce in their position. As such, it did not require the test-retest reliability. The Cronbach alpha for the MSQ signified high test reliability ($\alpha = .929$). The TCM scale also had high reliability ($\alpha = .912$). Similarly, the MBI-HSS exhibited strong reliability for emotional exhaustion ($\alpha = .938$) and personal accomplishment ($\alpha = .919$). However, the depersonalization subscale of MBI-HSS indicated a lower test reliability ($\alpha = .559$).

The MPS had strong reliability for each of its subscales: task-oriented behaviors ($\alpha = .927$); relationship-oriented behaviors ($\alpha = .948$); change-oriented behaviors ($\alpha = .939$); and external-oriented behaviors ($\alpha = .923$). The correlation was performed on the four subscales because multicollinearity was present. The results showed that all four subscales were highly correlated, with coefficients above .80 (see Table 12, Appendix L). In addition, factor analysis was utilized to test the whole MPS measure. The factor analysis result showed that more than 57% of variance was accounted for by one single factor. Only about 11% of variance was spread out across five additional factors with the variance from each ranging from 1% to 4%. Scale analysis was performed on the MPS as a whole scale and yielded a high Cronbach alpha ($\alpha = .984$). This suggested that the MPS continued to exhibit high reliability when utilized as a single scale. For this reason, all four subscales were combined into a single measure for subsequent statistical analyses.

Inferential Statistics

The ANOVA result (see Table 7) showed a satisfactory fit. Model 1 significantly predicted the outcome variable [$F(5,144) = 9.702, p < .001$]. Model 2 also significantly predicted the outcome variable [$F(6,143) = 16.171, p < .001$].

TABLE 7
ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	6218.182	5	1243.636	9.702	.000 ^b
	Residual	18458.111	144	128.181		
	Total	24676.293	149			
2	Regression	9974.911	6	1662.485	16.171	.000 ^c
	Residual	14701.382	143	102.807		
	Total	24676.293	149			

a. Dependent Variable: MSQ

b. Predictors: (Constant), MBI-HSS DP, Self-report Performance, TCM Affective, MBI-HSS PA, MBI-HSS EE

c. Predictors: (Constant), MBI-HSS DP, Self-report Performance, TCM Affective, MBI-HSS PA, MBI-HSS EE, MPS Total

The Model Summary results (see Table 8) addressed the degree of fit for each of the models with the outcome variable data. Model 1 encompassed the following predictors: affective organizational commitment, emotional exhaustion (burnout), depersonalization (burnout), personal accomplishment (burnout), and performance. Model 2 added employees' perception of leadership effectiveness of supervisors. For Model 2, the R square change showed a significant increase (.152) compared to Model 1. Furthermore, the multiple correlation coefficient for Model 2 ($R = .636$) indicated a significantly stronger fit than Model 1 ($R = .502$). By adding the MPS to the group of predictors, Model 2 accounted for 40.4 % of the variance in the outcome variable compared to 25.2 % in Model 1. Therefore, it was indicated that perceived leadership effectiveness had a greater influence on job satisfaction than the combined effects of organizational commitment, performance, and occupational burnout.

TABLE 8
MODEL SUMMARY^c

Change Statistics										
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df 1	df 2	Sig. Change	F Durbin-Watson
1	.502 ^a	.252	.226	11.322	.252	9.702	5	144	.000	
2	.636 ^b	.404	.379	10.139	.152	36.542	1	143	.000	1.849

a. Predictors: (Constant), MBI-HSS DP, Self-report Performance, TCM Affective, MBI-HSS PA, MBI-HSS EE

b. Predictors: (Constant), MBI-HSS DP, Self-report Performance, TCM Affective, MBI-HSS PA, MBI-HSS EE, MPS Total

c. Dependent Variable: MSQ

Since the R square change was significant, the null hypothesis was rejected. In turn, this supported the hypothesis that an employee's perception of his or her leaders' effectiveness substantially influenced an individual's job satisfaction. The Coefficient Table (see Table 9) can be utilized to explore which components of Model 2 contributed to its strong fit.

TABLE 9
COEFFICIENTS^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Std. Coeff.	t	Sig.	95 % Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	49.82	8.703		5.72	.000	32.619	67.023		
TCM Affective	.523	.125	.370	4.19	.000	.276	.769	.669	1.49
Self-report Performance	-.073	.060	-.089	-1.22	.223	-.192	.045	.982	1.01
MBI-HSS EE	-.046	.109	-.046	-.427	.670	-.262	.169	.451	2.21
MBI-HSS PA	.343	.136	.215	2.51	.013	.073	.612	.705	1.41
MBI-HSS DP	.071	.202	.038	.350	.727	-.328	.470	.449	2.22
2 (Constant)	31.63	8.355		3.78	.000	15.118	48.147		
TCM Affective	.312	.117	.221	2.67	.008	.081	.543	.610	1.64
Self-report Performance	-.045	.054	-.055	-.839	.403	-.152	.061	.975	1.02
MBI-HSS EE	-.004	.098	-.004	-.038	.970	-.197	.189	.449	2.22
MBI-HSS PA	.252	.123	.159	2.04	.043	.009	.495	.695	1.44
MBI-HSS DP	.058	.181	.031	.319	.750	-.300	.415	.449	2.22
MPS Total	.152	.025	.439	6.04	.000	.102	.202	.790	1.26

a. Dependent Variable: MSQ

According to the findings, three variables were identified as significant when predicting employee job satisfaction: affective organizational commitment, personal accomplishment (burnout) and perceived leadership effectiveness. Affective organizational commitment predicted job satisfaction ($b = .312$, $\beta = .221$, $SE = .123$, BCa 95 % [.046, .535]). Personal accomplishment burnout predicted job satisfaction ($b = .252$, $\beta = .159$, $SE = .123$, BCa 95 % [.013, .508]). Lastly, perceived leadership effectiveness predicted job satisfaction ($b = .152$, $\beta = .439$, $SE = .026$, BCa 95 % [.097, .205]). The beta values confirmed that perceived leadership effectiveness had the most impactful on employee job satisfaction among the three significant variables.

Bootstrapping at 95 % confidence interval was used to obtain robust standard errors. The Bootstrap for Coefficients Table (see Table 10) again confirmed the statistical significance for each of the three predictors: affective organizational commitment, personal achievement (burnout); and perceived leadership effectiveness. All three variables continued to demonstrate their significance within the model after bootstrapping.

TABLE 10
BOOTSTRAP FOR COEFFICIENTS

Model		B	Bootstrap ^a			BCa 95% Confidence Interval	
			Bias	Std. Error	Sig. (2-tailed)	Lower	Upper
1	(Constant)	49.821	-.053	7.586	.000	35.026	64.745
	TCM Affective	.523	-.002	.120	.000	.270	.750
	Self-report Performance	-.073	.001	.052	.145	-.180	.040
	MBI-HSS EE	-.046	-.001	.096	.642	-.242	.137
	MBI-HSS PA	.343	.000	.121	.005	.114	.580
	MBI-HSSDP	.071	.002	.165	.668	-.251	.396
2	(Constant)	31.632	.245	8.054	.000	14.990	47.806
	TCM Affective	.312	-.004	.123	.009	.046	.535
	Self-report Performance	-.045	-.002	.044	.286	-.132	.031
	MBI-HSS EE	-.004	-.003	.088	.964	-.176	.157
	MBI-HSS PA	.252	.002	.123	.045	.013	.508
	MBI-HSS DP	.058	.001	.160	.724	-.246	.383
	MPS Total	.152	.000	.026	.000	.097	.205

a. Unless otherwise noted, bootstrap results are based on 2500 bootstrap samples

The final interpretation of data could be viewed as: (a) an increase in one unit of affective organizational commitment was associated with a .312 increase in employee job satisfaction, (b) an increase in one unit of personal accomplishment (burnout) was associated with a .252 increase in employee job satisfaction, and (c) an increase in one unit of perceived leadership effectiveness was associated with a .152 increase in employee job satisfaction.

The following variables were not statistically significant in predicting employee job satisfaction: performance ($b = -.045$, $\beta = -.055$, $SE = .044$, BCa 95% [-.132, .031]); emotional exhaustion ($b = -.004$, $\beta = -.004$, $SE = .088$, BCa 95% [-.176, .157]); and depersonalization ($b = .058$, $\beta = .031$, $SE = .160$, BCa 95% [-.246, .383]).

Assumptions were checked to ensure satisfactory regression prior to running the analysis. The histogram (see Figure 1) revealed a negative skew in distribution on the outcome variable; however, there was no significant kurtosis.

FIGURE 1
HISTOGRAM OF DISTRIBUTION OF DATA

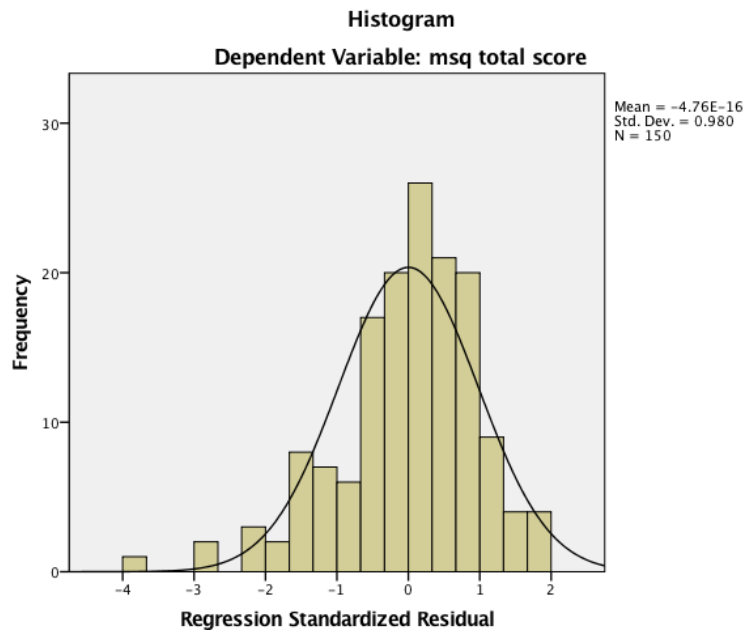
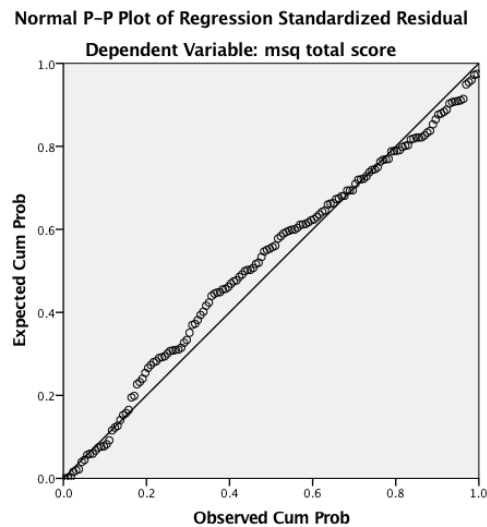
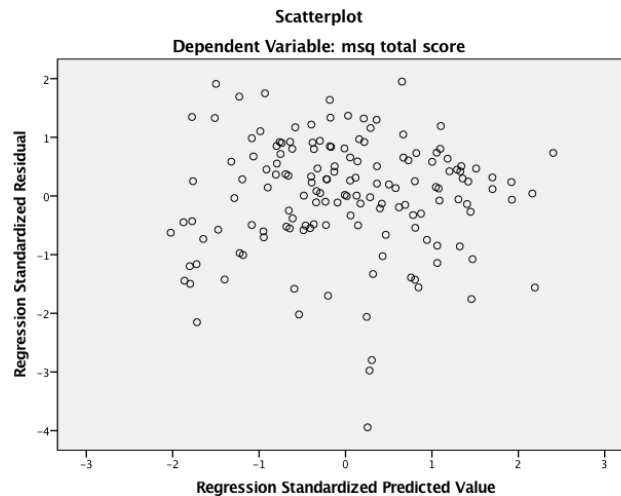


FIGURE 2
NORMAL P-PLOT OF REGRESSION STANDARDIZED RESIDUAL



The P-P Plot (see Figure 2) confirmed that data was not normally distributed. There was a negative skew in the sample; however, there was no significant kurtosis.

FIGURE 3
SCATTERPLOT OF RANDOM DATA SAMPLING



The scatterplot (see Figure 3) demonstrated that data collection met the assumption for homoscedasticity and linearity. No influential cases were indicated. Bootstrapping was utilized to adjust for the estimation of standard error. The Durbin-Watson indicated a value of 1.849, which suggested independence of errors.

Analysis of Design

The study utilized hierarchical linear regression as the method of data analysis. The control variables in block 1 included affective organizational commitment, performance, emotional exhaustion (burnout), depersonalization (burnout), and personal accomplishment (burnout). Initially, block 2 added the four subscales of effective leadership behaviors to the group of predictors: task orientation, relationship orientation, change orientation, and external orientation. However, multicollinearity was found among the four subscales of the MPS. Factor analysis confirmed that one single factor accounted more than 57% of variance. Only about 11% of variance was spread out across five additional factors with the variance from each ranging from 1% to 4%. All four subscales were combined into a single measure for subsequent statistical testing to adjust for multicollinearity. In the final analysis, employee job satisfaction was regressed on a total of six predictors: MPS Total, TMC Affective, Self-report of Performance, MBI-HSS Emotional Exhaustion, MBI-HSS Depersonalization, and MBI-HSS Personal Accomplishment. Additional statistical data can be found in Appendix L.

Discussion

The regression findings indicated that adding perceived leadership effectiveness to the model resulted in a significant increase in variance accounted for regarding employee job satisfaction. Thus, the results supported the hypotheses that those employees' perceptions of their leaders' effectiveness are related to their job satisfaction among mental health practitioners.

Both the statistical findings and past literature appeared to agree that good leadership substantially enhances an employee's satisfaction at work. The importance of leadership is further emphasized in nonprofits due to the growth of nonprofit organizations (Hannum et al., 2011). For all intents and purposes, this research indicated that employees in high-stress environments such as mental health facilities need to feel supported by their leaders to grow and flourish in their professional roles.

CONCLUSION

A mental health practitioner is a person who offers services geared towards improving a person's psychological well-being. Due to the stressful nature of the work, these professionals are highly susceptible to a variety of conditions (e.g., secondary trauma, compassion fatigue, and chronic stress) as mentioned in the literature review. The results from this study indicated that leadership can influence a practitioner's job satisfaction above and beyond the effects of organizational commitment, performance, and occupational burnout. These findings supported the idea that effective leadership has a universal effect in all settings, including the conditions inside mental health nonprofits.

Eleanor Roosevelt said about the role of a leader that "A good leader inspires people to have confidence in the leader. A great leader inspires people to have confidence in themselves" (Prior, 2011, para. 1). To that end, leadership is viewed as the process of effecting subordinates' actions and perceptions, as well as shaping workplace outcomes. As classified in the MPS, the four dimensions of effective leadership are: task orientation, relationship orientation, change orientation, and external orientation. Each of these aspects is further explored in the following details.

Gill (2014) described relationship-oriented leadership as a method grounded in people. This style is also known as: people-oriented leadership, relationship-focused leadership, consideration leadership, and inspirational leadership. Relationship-oriented leaders can demonstrate high levels of support and regard for their subordinates. In addition, they possess exceptional skills at: showcasing trust; having confidence in their employees; acting friendly; and being attentive to their subordinates' problems. Moreover, it was observed that a positive and meaningful relationship between a leader and an employee substantially boosted employee performance. In Ariani (2015), the development of trust was viewed as highly dependent upon the quality of relationship between supervisors and employees. A great advantage of this style is allowing supervisors to communicate areas of development without being seen as punitive or critical. Because supervisors are seen as a representation and embodiment of the organization, a good relationship with them correlates to a good relationship with the organization. Likewise, employees tend to perform better and more consistently with the organization's objectives when they perceive a close relationship with their supervisors. This feeling of mutual support enables the employees to identify as the organization's members and have a sense of belonging. Most critically, Ariani (2015) discovered that a good supervisor-employee relationship is negatively related to absenteeism, withdrawn behaviors, tardiness, intention to leave, and turnover.

In contrast to a focus on relationships, task-oriented leadership emphasizes on getting work done and meeting deadlines (Wroblewski, 2018). The principles of this style mirror those of transactional leadership. Task-oriented leadership has two critical aspects: task management and leadership. Some of its key components include: paying attentions to administrative details, monitoring product quality, coordinating work activities, and preparing financial reports. Under its implementation, organizations tend to motivate staff using incentives such as: benefits, compensation, promotions, and bonuses, etc. These are the perfect examples of a transactional method because they involve the give-and-take process between the employee and employer. Gill (2014) surmised that task-oriented leaders thrive in structured settings with a well-defined productivity process. Organizations can greatly benefit from this approach when their working environments are complex and require strict attention to details. Hence, task-oriented leadership is much needed in middle management where the focus is on completing assignments and projects.

With the increase in globalization and rapid evolution of technology, organizations and their leaders are tasked with keeping up with the changing world (Gil, Rico, Alcover, & Barrasa, 2005). This demand requires that management become skillful at adapting and creating necessary changes. Change-oriented leadership or transformational leadership has been a prevalent topic in recent research on organization development. A transformational leader works closely and collaboratively with his or her employees towards a common goal. According to Thamrin (2012), transformational leadership seeks to fulfill an employee's higher level of self-actualization and dignity rather than just appealing to his or her lower level needs (e.g., safety, money, vacation hours, affiliation). In addition, these leaders strive for innovation and encourage employees' active problem-solving instead of passive taking of instructions. Under this style,

employees are directed to: engage in collaborative work, generate new ideas, and produce creative solutions. Consequently, change-oriented leadership has been regarded as an essential component of successful management.

The last component of effective leadership is external orientation. Externally oriented leaders enable organizational success because they are actively engaged in outside of the box thinking (Bresman, 2007). By paying close attention to surrounding markets and environments, these leaders gather information about what works and is not. In turn, this enables them to develop problem-solving strategies that are progressive and relevant to current issues. Because of this learning element, external-oriented leaders are less likely to make the same mistakes or produce solutions to problems that no longer exist. External orientation leadership has three principles: high levels of external activity, extreme execution, and flexible phases. High levels of external activity requires leaders to frequently explore outside resources to develop a comprehensive understanding of the situations. Extreme execution demands leaders collaborate with staff and coordinate a decisive plan before carrying out. Lastly, flexible phases challenge leaders to quickly adapt to changes at the same time they exhibit a high level of vicarious learning and curiosity.

The literature and statistical results confirmed effective leadership as a reliable predictor of employee job satisfaction. This happens because positive leaders can create a safe and constructive environments that enable employees' professional growth. All four facets of effective leadership behaviors are relevant for organizational settings, but different circumstances determine which behaviors are more important (Yukl et al., 2002). Nonetheless, leaders who possess skills in each area are more capable and effective than those who do not. On that ground, the conclusion can be drawn that the development of leadership training and implementation programs is an integral part of organizational success for facilities such as mental health nonprofits.

RECOMMENDATIONS

As the study affirms, effective leadership is the catalyst for improving employee job satisfaction. The aggregate information also showed that leaders can create an environment at work that stimulates both the employees' and organizations' growth. Without a doubt, organizations that seek success need to expend more resources on developing leadership training and implementation programs.

Multicultural Diversity and Culturally Competent Leadership

The demographics data revealed that about 25 % of participants who participated identified as Asian. This is a significant figure in the demographics analysis. Nonetheless, this element was not considered as predictor in the study due to the lack of literature relating racial and ethnic background to job satisfaction. Future studies are recommended to evaluate the effect of leadership by contrasting different racial and ethnic groups in their statistical analyses. For instance, future research can look into the differences in practitioners from Asian background compare to others from an American background. The result might reveal the similarities and differences in how they perceive and react to their supervisors. The following rationale continues to address the diversity aspect using Asian background as the case reference.

With the increase in globalization, it is more likely than ever that people from different backgrounds find themselves working together. The differences in upbringing and ways of conducting business can make conflicts possible. One of the potential problems is miscommunication. The cultural background of employees often dictates how they communicate. Park and Kim (2008) state that Asian Americans tend to be indirect compared to European American counterparts who often exemplify an open communication style. This difference is due to the adherence to emotional regulation and control. Gudykunst (2001) explained that individuals of Asian background utilize context as a source of information exchange. This style emphasizes direct communication less, relying more on making inferences from context in the communicator's message. On the other hand, Western cultures tend to prefer low context in which most messages are derived directly and explicitly. This style values clarity and effectiveness.

As a consequence, Asian Americans tend to be reserved and formal in the way they interact. The soft-spoken nature of Asian Americans can lead to their messages being misinterpreted by others who have a

different communication style. Therefore, education about diversity is necessary in helping employees become more acquainted with the cultural factors at work.

In addition, problems may occur when team members from different backgrounds react in stressful situations. Some are conditioned by their cultures to repress negative reactions or emotions, while others are taught to vocalize their feelings. In these instances, conflicts can arise from the differences in culturally based interpretations of normal interaction (Chen & Starosta, 1997). The authors suggest that people of high-context cultures are more inclined towards an indirect method to conflict resolution. On the contrary, people from low-context cultures tend to adopt a more aggressive and direct style. Addressing this problem requires a degree of empathy and compassion from each person. Once trust and understanding are established, conflicts can be minimized for better collaboration and intergroup learning.

Resolution cannot be achieved if leaders are unaware of the diversity existing in their workplace. For this reason, a culturally competent leader must actively develop programs to enhance staff appreciation of multiculturalism. A few diversity components to focus on may include: multi-cultural values and stereotypes; various communication styles; and differentiation in conflict resolution methods. Working with people from different backgrounds is not impossible or a difficult task. By being mindful, leaders can create a conflict-free environment and allow their team members to learn from one another.

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APPENDIX 1: RECRUITMENT ADVERTISEMENT

As a mental health provider and researcher, I am writing to let you know that a research study is being conducted that may be of great interest to you. The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between leadership effectiveness and employee job satisfaction among mental health practitioners.

All required participation will be completed online. The series of surveys will take approximate 15-20 mins to complete. There will be 5 Starbucks gift cards (\$25 each) to be raffled off to all qualified participants of the study.

It is possible that you may be eligible to take part in this study. To participate, please click on the link below to get started. Do not hesitate to let me know if you have any questions or comments.

Study link: https://survey.az1.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_7TXlspRieN9M20t

Joey Pham, MA
Licensed Marriage and Family Therapist
PhD in Business Psychology, Consulting Track Candidate
Jpp5157@ego.thechicagoschool.edu
714.872.2051

APPENDIX 2: INFORMED CONSENT



Investigators: Joey Pham, M.A.

- I am a PhD student at The Chicago School of Professional Psychology. This study is being conducted as a part of my dissertation requirement for Business Psychology: Consulting Track program
- I am asking you to participate in a research study. Please take your time to read the information below and feel free to ask any questions before signing this document.

Study Title:

- The Impact of Perceived Leadership Effectiveness on Job Satisfaction among Mental Health Practitioners in Nonprofit Organizations.

Purpose:

- The purpose of the study is examine the effect of leadership effectiveness as a predictor of employee job satisfaction with organizational commitment, performance, and occupational burnout as the control variables.
- The outcome of this research can provide understanding about the interaction among these variables and used as background information for future leadership trainings.
- Ultimately, the researcher aims to publish this study as a peer reviewed article in the field of business psychology.

Procedures:

- If you agree to be in this study, you will be asked to complete six short surveys. The surveys includes a series of questionnaires about job satisfaction, organizational commitment, performance, burnout, and employees' perception of their leaders' effectiveness.
- The series of surveys will take approximately 15-20 minutes to complete.
- All required participation will be conducted online.

Risks to Participation:

- Participants are asked to provide personal information about themselves as well as how they are satisfied with their employment.
- The process may trigger intense feelings for the participants in regard to their jobs.
- There might be a risk associated with the participants' identity and their responses being revealed.
- The risk will be minimized by ensuring that all participations will be anonymous. Collected data will be aggregated and cannot be traced back to the participants.
- The anonymity will ensure that participants' responses will not affect their employment status.

Benefits to Participants:

- You will not directly benefit from this study
- However, taking part in research is one of the most important ways that we can improve our knowledge about our surroundings. Your contribution will facilitate the process of understanding and improving job satisfaction of mental health practitioners in nonprofit settings.
- Results from this study may be used to help to reinforce employee satisfaction through leadership trainings.

Alternatives to Participation:

- Participation in this study is voluntary. You may withdraw from participation at any time without any penalty.
- Participants may choose to discontinue with the research if they become triggered by the process.

Compensation:

- There will be five Starbucks gift cards (\$25 each) to be raffled off to participants of the study.
- Note: since all participations are anonymous. In order to participate in the raffle, participants must email the researcher at the end of completion. Researcher will contact raffle winners via email for delivery details.

Confidentiality:

- During this study, personal information will be collected about you for the purpose of this research. This includes demographic data, total billable hours you have completed for each month, and data pertaining to the surveys completed.
- Data collected will be aggregated to include all participants. Individual level data will not be reported. Collected data will be absolutely anonymous to ensure that it cannot be traced back to the participants.
- The participants' personal information will be kept strictly confidential and data will be aggregated to prevent any identifiable information.
- Research records will be kept in a locked file, and all electronic information will be secured using a password protected computer. The location of the records will be kept at the researcher's home office.

- Personal information in any report will NOT be published that would make it possible to identify any participant in the study. In addition, research materials will be kept for a minimum of five years after publication per APA guidelines.
- Your research records may be reviewed by federal agencies whose responsibility is to protect human subjects participating in research, including the Office of Human Research Protections (OHRP) and by representatives from The Chicago School of Professional Psychology Institutional Review Board, a committee that oversees research.
- After five years, research data will be destroyed. Researcher will take measure to protect participants' confidentiality throughout the process. Paper records will be shredded. Records stored on a computer hard drive will be erased.

Questions/Concerns:

- If you have questions related to the procedures described in this document please contact Joey Pham at 714.872.2051 and jpp5157@ego.thechicagoschool.edu, or my dissertation chair, Dr. Niary Gorjian, at ngorjian@thechicagoschool.edu.
- If you have questions concerning your rights in this research study you may contact the Institutional Review Board (IRB), which is concerned with the protection of subjects in research project. You may reach the IRB office Monday-Friday by calling 312.467.2343 or writing: Institutional Review Board, The Chicago School of Professional Psychology, 325 N. Wells, Chicago, Illinois 60654.

Consent to Participate in Research

Participant:

I have read the above information and have received satisfactory answers to my questions. I understand the research project and the procedures involved have been explained to me. I agree to participate in this study. My participation is voluntary, and I do not have to sign this form if I do not want to be part of this research project. I acknowledge that by checking "Yes, I consent" will serve to acknowledge my consent to participate in the study in lieu of my signature.

Yes, I consent

No, I do not consent

APPENDIX 3: QUALIFYING CRITERIA AND QUESTIONNAIRE

Instruction:

The participants must meet each of the following criteria to be considered qualified.

1. Possessing an associate's, bachelor's, master's, doctorate degree in field of psychology, mental health, behavioral health, social work and other related field.
2. Working directly with clients and have billing requirement.
3. Working for a nonprofit agency.
4. Having 6 consecutive months of billing for services from July to December of 2017.

Questions:

1. Which of the following degree do you possess?

_____ Associate's

_____ Bachelor's

_____ Master's

_____ Doctorate degree

_____ No degree

2. Is your degree in the field of psychology, mental health, behavioral health, social work and other related field?

- Yes
 No

3. Do you work directly with clients?

- Yes
 No

4. Do you have billing for services requirement/expectation?

- Yes
 No

5. What setting do you work in?

- For-profit
 Nonprofit
 Government Agency
 Private Practice
 Other

6. Do you have six consecutive months of billable hours for client services from July to December of 2017?

- Yes
 No

END OF SURVEY

APPENDIX 4: MINNESOTA SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE (SHORT FORM VERSION)

Instructions:

- Read each statement carefully.
- Decide how satisfied you feel about the aspect of your job described by the statement.
 - 1 = Extremely Dissatisfied
 - 2 = Dissatisfied
 - 3 = Neither Satisfied nor Dissatisfied
 - 4 = Satisfied
 - 5 = Extremely Satisfied

*Note: Due to copyright restrictions, the MSQ items were not included for publishing of this study.

END OF SURVEY

APPENDIX 5: MANAGERIAL PRACTICES SURVEY

Instructions:

- Please describe how much your boss uses each managerial practice or behavior below. The term “work unit” refers to the team, department, division, or company for which your boss is the formal leader, and the term “members” refers to the people in the unit who report directly to your boss.
- Think about each type of behavior separately, and do not allow your general evaluation of the manager to bias your answers about specific behaviors. For each item, select one of the following response choices and write the number or code for it on the line provided.
 - 1 = Not at all, or Not Applicable
 - 2 = To a Limited extent
 - 3 = To a Moderate extent
 - 4 = To a Considerable extent
 - 5 = To a Very great extent

Questions:

Clarifying

- ___ 1. Clearly explain task assignments and member responsibilities
- ___ 2. Explain what results are expected for a task or assignment
- ___ 3. Set specific performance goals and quality standards for important aspects of the work owed

Supporting

- ___ 4. Show concern for the needs and feelings of individual members
- ___ 5. Show consideration and support for members of the work unit?
- ___ 6. Provide encouragement and support when there is a difficult or stressful task

Envisioning Change

- ___ 7. Describe a proposed change or new initiative with enthusiasm and optimism
- ___ 8. Describe a clear, appealing vision for the work unit or organization
- ___ 9. Make an inspiring presentation about what the work unit can accomplish

External Monitoring

- ___ 10. Analyze information about external events and trends to identify threats and opportunities
- ___ 11. Keep informed about advances in technology that are relevant for the work
- ___ 12. Try to learn about the needs and preferences of potential customers or clients

Planning Activities

- ___ 13. Develop short-term plans for accomplishing the unit’s tasks
- ___ 14. Plan and organize unit activities to use people, equipment, and resources efficiently
- ___ 15. Schedule work activities to avoid delays, duplication of effort, and wasted resources

Recognizing and Rewarding

- ___ 16. Praise effective performance by members of the work unit
- ___ 17. Provide recognition for member achievements and contributions to a project or activity
- ___ 18. Provide or recommend appropriate rewards for effective performance

Advocating Change

- ___ 19. Explain why it is necessary to make major changes
- ___ 20. Propose changes in objectives, strategies, policies, or work procedures
- ___ 21. Take personal risks to push for approval of essential but difficult changes

Representing

- ___ 22. Promote a favorable image for the work unit with superiors and outsiders
- ___ 23. Make a persuasive presentation to get more funding or resources for the work unit
- ___ 24. Negotiate favorable agreements for the work unit or organization

Monitoring Operations

- ___ 25. Check on the progress and quality of the work
- ___ 26. Evaluate how well important tasks or projects are being performed
- ___ 27. Evaluate the job performance of unit members in an objective and systematic way

Developing Member Skills

- ___ 28. Provide advice or coaching to help members develop their skills and confidence
- ___ 29. Provide opportunities for members to develop their skills and confidence
- ___ 30. Provide helpful career advice and mentoring to members

Encouraging Innovation

- ___ 31. Talk about the importance of innovation and flexibility for the success of the unit
- ___ 32. Encourage innovative thinking and creative solutions to problems
- ___ 33. Encourage and supports efforts to develop new products, services, or work processes

Consulting about Decisions

- ___ 34. Consult with members before making decisions that will affect them
- ___ 35. Ask members for their ideas and suggestions when making decisions about the work
- ___ 36. Modify a proposal or plan to include member suggestions and deal with their concerns

Problem Solving

- ___ 37. Take the initiative in identifying and resolving work-related problems
- ___ 38. Quickly determine the cause of a problem before taking corrective action
- ___ 39. Handle work-related problems and crises in a confident and decisive way

Encouraging Teamwork and Cooperation

- ___ 40. Talk about the importance of teamwork and cooperation among members
- ___ 41. Explain why cooperation will help members accomplish their shared objectives
- ___ 42. Encourage members to share information and help each other when appropriate

Delegating

- ___ 43. Delegate responsibility and authority to members for important task decisions
- ___ 44. Encourage members to take responsibility for determining the best way to do their work
- ___ 45. Trust members to make decisions without getting prior approval

Networking

- ___ 46. Build and maintain a wide network of contacts among peers and outsiders
- ___ 47. Develop cooperative relations with people who can provide resources and assistance
- ___ 48. Use social networks, professional groups, and outside contacts get useful information

END OF SURVEY

APPENDIX 6: THREE-COMPONENT MODEL - EMPLOYEE COMMITMENT SURVEY

Instructions:

- Below is a series of statements that represent feelings that individuals might have about their organization. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling a number from 1 to 7 using the scale below.

- 1 = Strongly disagree
- 2 = Disagree
- 3 = Slightly disagree
- 4 = Undecided/Neutral
- 5 = Slightly agree
- 6 = Agree
- 7 = Strongly agree

Questions: Affective Commitment Scale

- ___ 1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
- ___ 2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
- ___ 3. I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization. (R)
- ___ 4. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization. (R)
- ___ 5. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. (R)
- ___ 6. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.

*Note: (R) indicates a reverse-keyed item. Scores must reflect it before computing.

END OF SURVEY

APPENDIX 7: MASLACH BURNOUT INVENTORY - HUMAN SERVICES SURVEY

Instructions:

- This survey measures how you feel about your present job.
- Rate each statement based on how many times you have had that feeling using the following scale.
 - 0 = Never
 - 1 = A few times a year
 - 2 = Monthly
 - 3 = A few times a month
 - 4 = Every week
 - 5 = A few times a week
 - 6 = Every day

*Note: Due to copyright restrictions, the MBI-HSS items were not included for publishing of this study.

APPENDIX 8: SELF-REPORT OF PERFORMANCE

Instructions:

- The performance data will be aggregated to provide an overall performance of the individual. The performance result will be absolutely anonymous and cannot be traced back to the participants.
- Please fill in the blank space of the percentage of billable hours you have completed for each of the month of July, August, September, October, November, and December of 2017.
- For example: your expectation is to bill 90 hours per month, you have billed 85 hours for that month. The percentage would be $(85/90)*100 = 94.44\%$.

Questions:

- July: _____ percent
August: _____ percent
September: _____ percent
October: _____ percent
November: _____ percent
December: _____ percent

END OF SURVEY

APPENDIX 9: DEMOGRAPHICS QUESTIONNAIRE

Instructions:

- Select the answer in each multiple choice that most represents you. If you are not comfortable with disclosing personal data, you can opt for the option of “decline to state.”
- If you feel that the presented answers do not fully represent you as an individual or current situation, you can pick “other” on the questionnaire.

Questions:

1. What is your marital status?

- | | |
|---|------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Single | <input type="checkbox"/> Married |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Divorced | <input type="checkbox"/> Separated |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Widowed | <input type="checkbox"/> Other |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Decline to state | |

2. What is your gender?

- | | |
|---------------------------------|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Male | <input type="checkbox"/> Transgender |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Female | <input type="checkbox"/> Decline to state |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Other | |

3. What is your age?

- | | |
|---|-----------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Under 25 | <input type="checkbox"/> 25-29 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 30-34 | <input type="checkbox"/> 35-39 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 40-44 | <input type="checkbox"/> 45-49 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 50-54 | <input type="checkbox"/> 55-59 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 60-64 | <input type="checkbox"/> Above 65 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Decline to state | |

4. What is your racial/ethnic background?

- | | |
|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Amerasian | <input type="checkbox"/> Armenian |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Black/African American | <input type="checkbox"/> Cambodian |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Caucasian/European/White | <input type="checkbox"/> Chinese |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Cuban | <input type="checkbox"/> Egyptian |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Filipino | <input type="checkbox"/> Hawaiian Native |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Indian | <input type="checkbox"/> Iranian |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Iraqi | <input type="checkbox"/> Japanese |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Korean | <input type="checkbox"/> Laotian |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Lebanese | <input type="checkbox"/> Mexican American |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Native American | <input type="checkbox"/> Pacific Islander |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Pakistani | <input type="checkbox"/> Palestinian |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Puerto Rican | <input type="checkbox"/> Samoan |

- | | |
|---|--------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> South American | <input type="checkbox"/> Thai |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Vietnamese | <input type="checkbox"/> Other |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Decline to state | |

5. What is your level of pay as an employee? (Do not include additional consulting fees or other income earned outside of the organization in which you are an employee.)

- | | |
|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Below \$30,000 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$30,000 to \$34,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$35,000 to \$39,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$40,000 to \$44,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$45,000 to \$49,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$50,000 to \$54,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$55,000 to \$59,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$60,000 to \$64,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$65,000 to \$69,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$70,000 to \$74,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$75,000 to \$79,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$80,000 to \$84,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$85,000 to \$89,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$90,000 to \$94,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$95,000 to \$99,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$100,000 and above |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Decline to state | |

6. What level of education have you attained?

- | | |
|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Associate's degree | <input type="checkbox"/> Bachelor's degree |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Master's degree | <input type="checkbox"/> Doctorate degree |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Decline to state | |

END OF SURVEY

APPENDIX 10: LETTERS OF PERMISSION

The Manager Practices Survey's Description and Condition for Use

The Managerial Practices Survey (MPS) was designed to measure observable behaviors of managers or administrators in organizations. Since the earlier (2002) identification of three meta-categories and 12 specific component behaviors, the taxonomy has been revised and extended. The most recent version (2015) includes four meta-categories (task, relations, change, and external) and 16 specific component behaviors, which are defined in the attached table. Note that the latest version of the MPS has separate scales for Delegating and Consulting, as in most of my earlier versions of the leader behavior taxonomy. In addition, the most recent version adds a scale on Encouraging Cooperation, which is especially relevant when teamwork is important for subordinate performance. A scale on Encouraging Collective Learning was not included in this version, because, the items are very diverse and are not used by most leaders (even when they are relevant).

The 16 specific behaviors are all potentially relevant for influencing team or work-unit performance, but the situation determines which behaviors are most important and not every behavior is relevant for every leader. For research on effective leadership it is desirable to identify relevant behaviors, and if any of the 16 specific behaviors are clearly not relevant for the sample of leaders and situation, these behaviors can be deleted, as can behaviors that are difficult for subordinates to observe (such as external behaviors). If you are not sure about the relevance of some behaviors, then a good research strategy is to begin by using focus groups of managers to explore the relevance of each type of behavior. An alternative is to use the entire 48 item version to ensure that no important behaviors are overlooked and to determine whether there is any serious confounding of retained behaviors with behaviors you do not expect to be relevant. The wording of the items is appropriate for describing the observable behavior of most middle and lower level managers in a company, but for other types of leaders it may be desirable to revise some of the items.

The primary version of the MPS is designed to be used by subordinates to describe the leadership behavior of their immediate supervisor or team leader. There are some leader self-report versions, but they are less accurate than the pooled ratings from multiple subordinates of the leader and were not included in the validation research. The self-report versions are most useful for comparing a leader's self-ratings on

each behavior to the mean rating on that behavior from three or more of the leader's subordinates, which is commonly done in behavior feedback workshops.

In the most recent (2015) version of the subordinate MPS the number of items for each specific behavior scale was reduced from 4 to 3 (the minimum necessary for adequate reliability and content validity), and they are still grouped under the behavior label to facilitate respondent understanding. For each item there are five fixed response choices (5-To a Very great extent, 4-To a Considerable extent, 3-To a Moderate extent, 2-To a Limited extent, 1-Not at all, or Not applicable). The scale score for a specific behavior should be reported in terms of the mean item score (with has a possible range from 1 to 5). Primary analyses should use the specific component behaviors, but a secondary analysis can use the meta-category scores. A meta-category score is computed as the mean of the behavior scale scores in the meta-category. When used for feedback to the manager, the scores for each component behavior should be the mean score of three or more subordinates of the manager to ensure that respondents will remain anonymous.

All leader behavior questionnaires are prone to respondent biases and attributions, but ratings are more accurate when respondents have some initial preparation to ensure they understand the difference among the behaviors, and to warn them about avoiding response biases such as halo and attributions. If possible it is also desirable to have subordinates observe their leader for an appropriate time interval after learning the definitions so they can pay more attention to the behaviors and make more accurate ratings. Best of all is to get subordinates to keep a weekly behavior checklist (using definitions of the 16 specific behaviors) or an incident diary for a few months prior to the questionnaire survey. In addition to improving the accuracy of the MPS scores, if it is possible to get data from this type of supplementary measure, it will make the study more interesting, unique, and useful.

The MPS is a copyrighted questionnaire, but there is no charge for using it in research projects. However, do not use it for consulting interventions without prior approval and agreement about compensation. No changes should be made in the content or response choices for the MPS without first getting my approval, and only scale definitions and sample items (rather than the entire questionnaire) should be shown in any research reports involving it. The best sources to cite for the MPS are the following articles.

The Three-Component Model – Employee Commitment Survey's Email Corresponding and Permission for Use

From: Joey Pham [<mailto:joeyhpham@yahoo.com>]

Sent: July-12-17 3:01 PM

To: Jonathan Deeks <jdeeks@uwo.ca> Subject: TCM inquiry

Good morning,

My name is Joey Pham and I am a PhD student. I would like to use the TCM in my research. Please let me know the instructions on how to proceed. Thank you, Joey Pham

From: Jonathan Deeks <jdeeks@uwo.ca>

Date: July 12, 2017 at 1:03:40 PM PDT

To: Joey Pham <joeyhpham@yahoo.com>

Subject: RE: TCM inquiry

Hi Joey

Thank you for your interest and intended use of TCM.

You can register for the survey on our website and you will be able to download it directly -

<http://www.employeecommitment.com/>.

Since your intended use is within academic research, it will be free to register.

If I can be of any more help, please don't hesitate to contact me

Kind regards, Jonathan

Jonathan Deeks
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Think before you print

APPENDIX 11: THANK YOU MESSAGES

Message #1: To participants who did not consent

Dear Readers,

Thank you for taking the time to examine the study. I'm sorry that you did not choose to participate in the study. Nonetheless, I hope you gained valuable knowledge from this exposure.

Best regards,

Joey Pham, MA
Licensed Marriage and Family Therapist
PhD in Business Psychology, Consulting Track Candidate
Jpp5157@ego.thechicagoschool.edu
714.872.2051

Message #2: To unqualified participants

Dear Participants,

Thank you for spending your time to participate in the study. Unfortunately, you did not meet the criteria for the study. Nonetheless, I hope you gained valuable knowledge from this exposure as taking part in research is one of the most important ways that we can improve our knowledge about our surroundings.

The aggregate findings from the study will be made available to anyone who participated in this research and is interested in learning the results. Participants may request the results of the study by contacting me directly. Do not hesitate to let me know if you have any questions or comments.

Thank you again for your participation,

Joey Pham, MA
Licensed Marriage and Family Therapist
PhD in Business Psychology, Consulting Track Candidate
Jpp5157@ego.thechicagoschool.edu
714.872.2051

Message #3: To qualified participants

Dear Participants,

Thank you for participating in the study. Taking part in research is one of the most important ways that we can improve our knowledge about our surroundings. Your contribution will facilitate the process of understanding and improving job satisfaction of mental health practitioners in nonprofit settings.

The aggregate findings from the study will be made available to anyone who participated in this research and is interested in learning the results. Participants may request the results of the study by contacting me directly. Do not hesitate to let me know if you have any questions or comments.

As a reward, all participants are eligible to participate in a raffle and have a chance to win one of five Starbucks gift cards (\$25 each). To participate in the raffle, forward your full name to researcher at the email provided below. The selected winners will be contacted via email for delivery detail.

Thank you again for your participation,

Joey Pham, MA

Licensed Marriage and Family Therapist

PhD in Business Psychology, Consulting Track Candidate

Jpp5157@ego.thechicagoschool.edu

714.872.2051

APPENDIX 12: GPOWER ANALYSIS FOR SAMPLE SIZE

F tests: Linear multiple regression: Fixed model, R^2 deviation from zero

Analysis: A priori: Compute required sample size

Input: Effect size $f^2 = 0.15$

α err prob = 0.05

Power ($1-\beta$ err prob) = 0.80

Number of predictors = 9

Output: Noncentrality parameter $\lambda = 17.1000000$

Critical F = 1.9711129

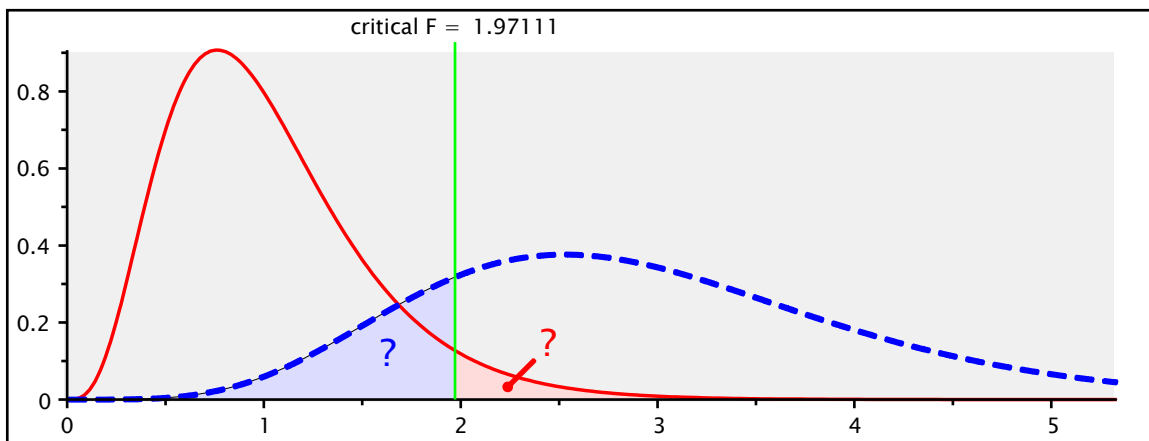
Numerator df = 9

Denominator df = 104

Total sample size = 114

Actual power = 0.8043554

**FIGURE L-1
GPOWER ANALYSIS**



APPENDIX 13: ADDITIONAL STATISTICAL DATA

**TABLE M1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS**

		Bootstrap ^a				
		Statistic	Bias	Std. Error	BCa 95 % Confidence Interval	
					Lower	Upper
MSQ	Mean	67.89	-.01	1.04	65.87	69.89
	Std. Deviation	12.869	-.055	.774	11.372	14.169
	<i>N</i>	150	0	0	.	.
TCM Affective	Mean	23.01	.00	.76	21.55	24.49
	Std. Deviation	9.102	-.033	.390	8.306	9.764
	<i>N</i>	150	0	0	.	.
Self-report Performance	Mean	81.1183	-.0142	1.2516	78.5950	83.4440
	Std. Deviation	15.6002	-.14850	1.24661	13.34421	17.57402
	<i>N</i>	150	0	0	.	.
MBI-HSS EE	Mean	35.25	.00	1.03	33.27	37.23
	Std. Deviation	12.685	-.050	.546	11.700	13.595
	<i>N</i>	150	0	0	.	.
MBI-HSS PA	Mean	37.17	-.01	.67	35.84	38.42
	Std. Deviation	8.095	-.026	.330	7.489	8.668
	<i>N</i>	150	0	0	.	.
MBI-HSS DP	Mean	12.85	.01	.59	11.72	14.04
	Std. Deviation	6.857	-.018	.334	6.188	7.460
	<i>N</i>	150	0	0	.	.
MPS Total	Mean	149.79	-.09	2.98	143.93	155.49
	Std. Deviation	37.160	-.174	1.697	33.921	39.871
	<i>N</i>	150	0	0	.	.

a. Unless otherwise noted, bootstrap results are based on 2500 bootstrap samples

**TABLE M2
CORRELATIONS**

		MPS Task	MPS Relationship	MPS Change	MPS External
MPS Task	Pearson Correlation	1	.877**	.834**	.767**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000
	<i>N</i>	151	151	151	151
MPS Relationship	Pearson Correlation	.877**	1	.856**	.822**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000
	<i>N</i>	151	151	151	151
MPS Change	Pearson Correlation	.834**	.856**	1	.859**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000
	<i>N</i>	151	151	151	151
MPS External	Pearson Correlation	.767**	.822**	.859**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	
	<i>N</i>	151	151	151	151

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

**TABLE M3
RESIDUALS STATISTICS**

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	51.34	87.56	67.89	8.182	150
Std. Predicted Value	-2.023	2.403	.000	1.000	150
Standard Error of Predicted Value	1.050	3.963	2.122	.546	150
Adjusted Predicted Value	51.67	87.00	67.90	8.195	150
Residual	-39.979	19.763	.000	9.933	150
Std. Residual	-3.943	1.949	.000	.980	150
Stud. Residual	-3.993	1.999	.000	1.001	150
Deleted Residual	-41.004	20.787	-.002	10.376	150
Stud. Deleted Residual	-4.222	2.020	-.003	1.014	150
Mahal. Distance	.603	21.768	5.960	3.690	150
Cook's Distance	.000	.065	.006	.011	150
Centered Leverage Value	.004	.146	.040	.025	150

a. Dependent Variable: MSQ