THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP PRACTICES AND THE THREE-

COMPONENT MODEL OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT: AN EMPIRICAL

ANALYSIS

by

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Abstract

Organizations have started to recognize that a competitive advantage can be gained through human resources. As such, there has been considerable interest in the study of organizational commitment, primarily because of relationships between it and various measures of organizational efficiency and effectiveness. One of the critical antecedents of organizational commitment is leadership. The primary purpose of this study was to examine how much organizational commitment, in all three forms, was influenced by leadership. This study expanded the research on the relationship between normative and continuance commitment with transformational leadership. In addition, it used the previously untested combination of LPI and the Organizational Commitment Scales. Self-administered surveys were distributed to collect employee attitude and demographic data. A total of 129 surveys were distributed to two different organizational populations, a petroleum products redistribution and services company and a hedge-fund trading firm, both located in Houston, TX. The response rate for the total distributed was 69%. The internal consistency, reliability and scale statistics were calculated for the scales. Relationships between the three forms of organizational commitment and the five leadership practices were investigated using correlation analysis and linear regression. The three forms of organizational commitment and the demographic characteristics were tested using t-tests and analysis of variance (ANOVA). The results, conclusions, and limitations of this study are described in the final chapter as well as recommendations for future research. The overall conclusion of this research is that the five leadership practices has been observed to be correlated with both affective and normative commitment attitudes among the employees of the two organizations in this study when practiced by managers.

Dedication

This research is dedicated to my partner, Oksana, and to my family and friends, living and

deceased, whose love, encouragement, and support helped me achieve this dream.

Acknowledgments

There are many people who motivated, supported, and assisted me in the accomplishment of this important milestone in my life. While it is not possible to thank everyone individually who made a contribution to my success, it is important to acknowledge a few of the more significant. First, I would like to thank my committee. My mentor, Dr. Maudie Holm, and committee members, Dr. Linda Terry and Dr. Donna DiMatteo-Gibson, asked challenging questions which were crucial to me focusing my thoughts. They also provided me with positive feedback that helped me sustain my momentum. Without their patience and guidance I would not have completed this project.

Second, I would like to thank the CEO's of the corporations participating in this study. These two individuals graciously allowed me to take valuable time from their employees in order to fulfill this goal. I would also like to thank the participants who took the time from their busy schedules to complete the questionnaire.

There are members in both our families that provided words of encouragement along the way. Our parents, siblings, grandparents, aunts, uncles, and cousins provided sources of inspiration over the years. I especially want to mention my late grandfather, Eugene McCroskey, who always thought to ask about my studies and provided anecdotes and encouragement seemingly when I needed it the most. I wish he would have gotten to see me graduate.

I am also blessed to have a very strong network of close friends. This support system of close friends was integral to my completing the dissertation. Among other things they were sounding boards, counselors, task masters, and above all, friends. They kept me sane.

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CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

Introduction to the Problem

Organizations have started to recognize that a competitive advantage can be gained through human resources. As this realization has occurred, research on organizational commitment has gained importance (Colbert & Kwon, 2000). There has been considerable interest in the study of organizational commitment, primarily because of relationships between it and various measures of organizational efficiency and effectiveness (Beck & Wilson, 2000). The value of the organizational commitment concept to the study of work attitudes and behavior can be seen by the quantity, diversity, and findings in the various studies performed (McCann, Langford, & Rawlings, 2006).

Organizational commitment is generally thought of as an individual's identification with his or her organization (Steers, 1977). More recently, commitment has been defined as "the force that binds an individual to a course of action of relevance to one or more targets" (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001, p. 301). Organizational commitment has attracted interest because of its attempt to understand the intensity and stability of employee dedication to work organizations (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990). An employee's commitment is a concern to all organizations because it has been linked to reduced turnover (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), increased knowledge sharing (Alvesson, 2001), increased organizational citizenship behaviors (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002), and reduced absenteeism (Eby, Freeman, Rush, & Lance, 1999).

One of the critical antecedents of organizational commitment is leadership. For thousands of years, society has thought about leadership. Prophets, priests, chiefs, and kings

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were symbols of leadership for people in the Bible, the anishads, the Greek and Latin classics, and in the Icelandic sagas (Bass, 1995). Leadership has been thought about in many different ways, but is now generally defined as the behavior of an individual that results in non-coercive influence when that person is directing and coordinating the activities of a group towards a shared goal (Rowden, 2000).

Leadership is important because an organization's success is often determined by the quality of its leadership (Greenberg, 2002). Changing business practices, such as the use of the Internet and outsourcing, have important implications for the practice of leadership. According to Kouzes and Posner (2002b), leaders who used five key leadership behaviors saw increased performance, higher retention rates, increased intrinsic motivation, and job satisfaction in their subordinates. These five behaviors are described in their management book *The Leadership Challenge* (2002b) and are measured by the survey instrument, The Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI).

The research findings in this study were expected to show that the quality of leadership practices within an organization had an effect on the organizational commitment of employees.

Statement of the Problem

Meyer and Allen (1991) viewed commitment in terms of three components: affective commitment, reflecting the employee's emotional attachment to, and involvement with, the organization; continuance commitment, relating to the costs the employee associates with leaving; and normative commitment, the employee's feelings of obligation to stay. However, in

research on transformational leadership and organizational commitment, there have only been a few studies where the affective form of commitment was not the only one measured.

Kouzes and Posner's (2002b) leadership model is popular and widely used. In spite of this, there is little published empirical evidence as to the effects of the use of the five leadership practices on employee's organizational commitment when considering all three components of commitment. Therefore, the problem central to this study was, what effects do the practices of the five transformational leadership behaviors by managers have on an employee's affective, continuance, and normative organizational commitment.

Background of the Study

Organizational commitment research dates back to the 1960's but increased following the work of Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian (1974) that created a definition of commitment that was supported by the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire they created. The interest in organizational commitment research increased again following the publication of Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-component model of organizational commitment.

The three component model has received considerable empirical support (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). The three components have been shown to be related, but distinguishable from one another. Although this model posits that an employee can experience these three commitment components concurrently, previous research on the relationship between organizational commitment and leadership has been focused on only affective organizational commitment. Thus, this study will focus on all three components of commitment.

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There are three groups of antecedents to organizational commitment: demographics, job characteristics, and organizational characteristics. Demographic differences may have an impact on the level of organizational commitment of individuals. Demographic differences that have been researched are gender (Colbert & Kwon, 2000; Dodd-McCue & Wright, 1996; Elizur & Koslowsky, 2001), organizational tenure (Beck & Wilson, 2000; Curry, Wakefield, Price, & Mueller, 1986), age (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002; Peterson, 2003), education (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Steers, 1977), nonwork obligations (Mellor, Mathieu, Barnes-Farrell, & Rogelberg, 2001), and marital status (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972). The findings have been mixed for gender, age, and organizational tenure.

There are several job characteristics that impact an employee's organizational commitment. These job characteristics include skill variety (Colbert & Kwon, 2000), feedback (Colbert & Kwon; Dunham, Grube, & Castaneda, 1994), autonomy (Dunham, Grube, & Castaneda), task identity (Dunham, Grube, & Castaneda; Steers, 1977), task significance (Dunham, Grube, & Castaneda), organizational power (P. A. Wilson, 1995), job challenge (Birdi, Allan, & Warr, 1997; Mowday, 1998), job level (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), job stress (Sager, 1994), and the role of middle managers (Brewer, 1996). There have been mixed findings with feedback, task identity, task significance, and autonomy.

Several organizational characteristics are likely to have an impact on an employee's level of organizational commitment. These characteristics include the company's reputation on social issues (Peterson, 2004), value compatibility (Finegan, 2000), training (Chang, 1999), perception of support (Bishop, Scott, & Burroughs, 2000; Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990), organizational dependability (Steers, 1977), communication (Curry, Wakefield, Price, &

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Mueller, 1986; Rodwell, Kienzle, & Shadur, 1998), procedural fairness (Siegel, Post, Brockner, Fishman, & Garden, 2005), interactional justice (Thompson & Heron, 2005), satisfaction with benefits (Culpepper, Gamble, & Blubaugh, 2004; Davis & Ward, 1995; Heshizer, 1994), innovative human resource practices (Agarwala, 2003), organizational socialization (Taormina, 1999), group attitudes toward the organization (Steers), satisfaction with promotion opportunities (Curry, Wakefield, Price, & Mueller), and leadership.

There has been a substantial amount of research focused on the relationship between leadership behavior and organizational commitment. The findings in this area are not consistent. Several studies found a positive relationship between them (Glisson & Durick, 1988; Newman, 1974; Savery, 1994; Zeffane, 1994) while others found no relationship (Hampton, Dubinsky, & Skinner, 1986; O'Reilly & Roberts, 1978). Although, the current transformational leadership focus has seen much more consistent findings. This area of leadership research has shown that the use of transformational leadership behaviors has a positive effect on affective organizational commitment (Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996; W. A. Lowe, 2000; Niehoff, Enz, & Grover, 1990; Walumbwa, Orwa, Wang, & Lawler, 2005).

There have only been a few studies which examined the relationship of leadership to continuance or normative commitment. Bycio, Hackett, and Allen (1995) performed a study on nurses measuring all three commitment forms and found that affective organizational commitment had strong positive relationships with transformational leadership as measured by Bass' (1985a) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. The relationships were significantly larger with affective organizational commitment than those involving continuance organizational commitment and normative organizational commitment. They also found an unanticipated small,

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but significant, positive correlation between normative organizational commitment and transformational leadership.

Viator (2001) studied the relevance of transformational leadership to nontraditional accounting services and the effect on role clarity, job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment, and continuance organizational commitment. He found that transformational leadership as measured by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Felter's (1990) leader behavior inventory was directly, and positively associated with role clarity, affective organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. He also found a negative association between transformational leadership and low alternatives continuance commitment.

Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of this study was to examine how much organizational commitment, in all three forms, was influenced by leadership. A meaningful level of an employee's organizational commitment rests upon those individuals in leadership positions. Employees who show high levels of organizational commitment tend to be more effective, are less likely to leave, practice organizational citizenship behaviors, and are absent less (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002).

The foundation of the study was based upon analysis using Meyer and Allen's three-component organizational commitment model and Kouzes and Posner's Leadership Practices Inventory. Additional research of these models, especially in conjunction with one another, could increase the generalizability of these models and lead to a greater understanding of how organizational commitment and leadership relate to one another.

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Specifically, this study aimed to discover which of these leadership practices lead to the desired levels of all three forms of organizational commitment and how these forms of organizational commitment were affected by age, gender, organizational tenure, and education.

Significance of the Study

Downsizings, rightsizings, head-count reductions, and large-scale layoffs have effectively destroyed the concept of long term employment with a company and have decreased employee commitment (Baruch, 2003; Brousseau, Driver, Eneroth, & Larsson, 1996; Mowday, 1998). Employees feel that they can no longer count on anything from their employers beyond an immediate paycheck (Brousseau, Driver, Eneroth, & Larsson).

Not only are individuals likely to change jobs numerous times during their adult working years, most organizations are engaging in continuous reorganizations to meet the challenges of emerging technology, increased competition, and a global economy (Arruda, 2003; Hall & Moss, 1998; Meyer, Allen, & Topolnytsky, 1998). The survivors of downsizing may have difficulty realigning their career expectations, and aspirations, with the new work realities (Baruch, 2003; Metcalf & Briody, 1995). However, given the flux that the work environment has experienced both academic researchers (Mellor, Mathieu, Barnes-Farrell, & Rogelberg, 2001; Meyer & Allen, 1997) and practitioners (Auster, 2006; Manion, 2004) maintain that employee commitment is vital to organizational effectiveness. "The importance of commitment stems from its impact as a key mediating variable in determining organizational outcomes." (Iverson & McLeod, 1996, p. 36)

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Organization commitment is important for organizations because of the changes in the way that employees and employers interact. This study is significant because it will further the understanding of the effect of leadership practices on all three forms of commitment. It may help organizations develop more effective leadership practices to strengthen the commitment levels of employees to the organization. Determining which leadership practices influence organizational commitment would provide leaders with valuable information in order to make desired changes.

In addition to the benefits described above for organizations and individual leaders, this study was also significant to the body of research in organizational commitment and transformational leadership. Previous studies using populations from the military (Metscher, 2005), firefighters (W. A. Lowe, 2000), middle size corporations (Gunter, 1997), and CPA firms (Huang, 2000) have recommended that leadership and organizational commitment be examined in other industries. This study extended existing research to two different populations, an energy lubricants redistributor and a hedge fund financial trading organization, thus expanding the organizational commitment and transformational leadership research knowledge base.

This study expanded the research on the relationship between normative and continuance commitment with transformational leadership. Research on transformational leadership and organizational commitment had primarily focused on the affective form of commitment. Bycio, Hackett, and Allen (1995) found significant correlations between normative organizational commitment and leadership. They suggest that since transformational leaders typically hold a sense of moral obligation to the organization as an end value, perhaps the relationship involving normative organizational commitment and transformational leadership reflects the influence of less positive models in the organization, whose behavior is not indicative of the justice and the

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integrity often ascribed to transformational leaders. They were surprised to find no relationship between leadership and continuance commitment. This study helped clarify the relationships between continuance and normative organizational commitment with transformational leadership.

This study used the previously untested combination of LPI and the Organizational Commitment Scales making a contribution to the understanding of these two scales. The LPI has been administered to more than 350,000 individuals across a variety of organizations, disciplines, and demographic backgrounds. In the last 20 years, The Leadership Challenge (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a) has sold over one million copies and has been translated into 11 languages. The LPI is one of the most widely used leadership assessment instruments in the world with more than 275 doctoral dissertations and academic research projects based on this model. Thus, an exploration of the ties between the Leadership Challenge and Meyer and Allen (1991) models was needed.

Research Questions

This study extended previous research studies by exploring the following questions:

1. Is there a statistically significant relationship between employees' perception of leadership and their continuance organizational commitment?

2. Is there a statistically significant relationship between employees' perception of leadership and their normative organizational commitment?

3. Is there a statistically significant relationship between employees' personal characteristics and their organizational commitment?

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Definition of Terms

Affective Commitment – Form of commitment that reflects the employee's emotional attachment to, and involvement with, the organization.

Organizational Commitment Scales – scales developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) to measure affective, continuance, and normative organizational commitment.

Continuance Commitment – Form of commitment that refers to the employee's awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization

Organizational Commitment – the psychological tie between the organization and the employee, which increases the chance that the employee will remain with the organization and contribute above-average effort to the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1996; McCann, Langford, & Rawlings, 2006; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002).

Leadership – the process by which an individual influences others to help attain group or organizational goals (Greenberg, 2002).

Leadership practices – Patterns of action that leaders follow to be successful. These practices are modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a).

Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) – instrument created by Kouzes and Posner (2002) to measure the five leadership practices.

Normative Commitment – Form of commitment that reflects the employee's feelings that they should remain with the organization, generally a feeling of a moral obligation.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors – Behaviors by employees such as the willingness to help a coworker, assisting other employees, constructive engagement in organizational

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activities, and willingness to tolerate minor setbacks in the organization (Ackfeldt & Coote, 2005).

Assumptions

The following section discusses general assumptions under which the study was conducted. Method related assumptions will be discussed in Chapter 3. There were several assumptions that were made during the initial stages of this study. First, it was assumed that the need for leadership skills will continue and that respondents had some level of awareness about the leadership of their organization. It was also assumed that changes in the marketplace would not alter the interests of employees.

One common worry for researchers is regarding the question of how large a sample should be in order to have a reasonable study. There are several mathematical models available for determining this value. The inputs to the models depend upon the confidence limits and accuracy that the researcher desires. The optimal sample size also depends upon what is being studied, how homogeneous the population is, the size of the overall population, and other factors depending upon the model used (Nardi, 2003). Using the equation for sample size for proportions and applying a finite population correction for the estimated population of 105 calculates a necessary sample of 76 participants. However, the sample size for attribute ratings equation which gives a minimum sample size requirements for metric measurement scales and applying a finite population correction for the estimated population results in 59 complete responses needed. Therefore, using the most conservative model, it was assumed that out of the total population of 105 employees there would be 76 complete responses to the survey.

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Delimitations and Limitations

The following section lists the general delimitations and limitations under which the study was conducted. A more detailed list is provided in Chapter 3.

1. This study only considered transformational leadership as defined by Kouzes and Posner (2002a).

2. The LPI did not measure all leadership practices, only the five recommended practices by Kouzes and Posner.

3. The Organizational Commitment Scales may not measure all organizational commitments an employee may have.

4. The survey data is limited to the employees of the two participating firms in Houston, TX and not to all employees in Houston or the United States. This limitation is in place to avoid a frequent problem in research of making a conclusion about populations that were not sampled (Nardi, 2003). The question of the generalizability of results obtained was addressed in Chapter 5.

5. Several searches were performed in multiple databases to identify academic related literature related to this topic. It is possible that the research questions have been answered previously and were not located by the researcher.

6. The inexperience of the researcher could have lead to a bias, or mistakes, being inadvertently associated with the data.

Nature of the Study

This study used correlational and comparative descriptive research methodologies to explore the ways in which organizational commitment is related to the perception of leadership in two distinct populations and demographic variables.

This study used two pre-existing survey instruments, the LPI and the Organizational Commitment Scales. Both of these instruments use Likert scales to measure their respective

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variables. The LPI, by Kouzes and Posner (2002a), provides 30 descriptive statements for respondents to rate to what extent their leader engages in the five dimensions of transformational leadership: (a) model the way, (b) inspire a shared vision, (c) challenge the process, (d) enable others to act, and (e) encourage the heart. The Organizational Commitment Scales by Meyer and Allen (1991) is an 18 item scale that measures the affective, continuance, and normative commitment of an employee.

The questions posed in this study were quantitative in nature and were analyzed by calculating correlations and performing regression analysis. This was an ex post facto study, since the primary objective was to observe an empirical relationship between two variables, perceived leadership practices and organizational commitment, and suggest a reason for the relationship. In this type of research, the researcher has no control over the variables, but will report on what happened (Cooper & Schindler, 2003; Watson, 2006). The data was cross-sectional in nature since only one observation will be collected per respondent during the data collection period.

Organization of the Remainder of the Study

This dissertation is organized into five chapters. This chapter contains an introduction to the study including its problem statement, background, purpose, significance, research questions, and definition of key terms, nature, assumptions, and limitations. Chapter 2 provides a review of the literature organized by major topics. The research methodology selected for this study is presented in Chapter 3. Chapter 4 provides the data collection and analysis of the study while Chapter 5 gives the results, conclusions, and suggests areas for further research.

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CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter addresses a number of the major studies contributing to the organizational commitment literature in general and specifically within the perceptions of leadership. While comprehensive, this chapter is not an attempt to review every study within organizational commitment and leadership; it is an attempt to provide the reader with sufficient information to provide a setting for this study. This review begins with an overview of organizational commitment focusing on its meaning, the antecedents, and its consequences. Next, leadership theory will be reviewed in detail highlighting the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI). Lastly, the contribution of this study to the existing body of knowledge is described.

Organizational Commitment

This section provides a review of the concept of organizational commitment. The focus of this section is to describe the meaning of commitment, its antecedents, and consequences of organizational commitment.

The Meaning of Commitment

There are many different forms of commitment in the workplace including commitment to organizations (e.g., Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991), occupations and professions (e.g., Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993; Snape & Redman, 2003), teams and leaders (e.g., Bishop, Scott, & Burroughs, 2000), unions (e.g., Bamberger, Kluger, & Suchard, 1999; Cohen, 2005), and personal careers (e.g., Hall, 1996; Noordin, Williams, & Zimmer, 2002).

There are also several different conceptual frameworks that have been proposed for commitment. Commitment has been conceptualized as unidimensional (e.g., Buchanan, 1974; Wiener, 1982) or multidimensional (e.g., Angle & Perry, 1981; Meyer & Allen, 1991). However, it is recognized by current researchers as a multidimensional construct and that the antecedents and consequences of commitment vary across dimension (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002).

The form of commitment that has received a great deal of empirical study is organizational commitment, both as a consequence and an antecedent of other work-related variables of interest (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). There has been considerable interest in this area primarily because of the reported relationships between it and various indices of organizational efficiency and effectiveness (Beck & Wilson, 2000). Therefore, for the purposes of this study, organizational commitment will be the type of commitment measured.

One of the major problems with organizational commitment has been the multitude of definitions used by early researchers. Table 1 lists some of the more common definitions that have been used for organizational commitment.

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Table 1: Organizational Commitment Definitions

Researcher(s)	Definition
Hall, Schneider, & Nygren (1970)	…the process by which the goals of the organization and those of the individual become increasingly integrated or congruent
Sheldon (1971)	…an attitude or an orientation toward the organization which links or attaches the identity of the person to the organization
Lee (1971)	…the degree of the individual's broad personal identification with the organization
Hrebiniak & Alutto (1972)	…primarily a structural phenomenon which occurs as a result of individual-organizational transactions and alterations in side bets or investments over time
Buchanan (1974)	…a partisan, affective attachment to the goals and values of an organization, to one's role in relation to goals and values, and to the organization for its own sake
Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian (1974)	…the strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization
Marsh & Mannari (1977)	…loyalty to one's organization independent of how much status enhancements or satisfaction one derives from membership
Salancik (1977)	…state of being in which an individual becomes bound by his actions and through these actions to beliefs that sustain the activities and his own involvement
Wiener (1982)	…the totality of internalized normative pressures to act in a way that meets organizational goals and interests
O'Reilly & Chatman (1986)	…the psychological attachment felt by the person for the organization
Oliver (1990)	…a combination of the rewards offered by the organization, investments made by the members, and alternative employment opportunities open to the members

Meyer and Allen (1991) classified these various unidimensional definitions into three broad classifications: affective, cost-based, and obligation based. The affective view of organizational commitment posits that organizational commitment is an individual's attitude or an orientation towards an organization which links the identity of the individual to the organization (Buchanan, 1974; Hall, Schneider, & Nygren, 1970; Lee, 1971; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974; Sheldon, 1971). The cost-based view of organizational commitment is an individual's recognition of costs associated with leaving an organization (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972; Oliver, 1990). The obligation view of commitment considers an individual's feeling of moral obligation to remain with an organization (Marsh & Mannari, 1977; Salancik, 1977; Wiener, 1982).

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Meyer and Allen (1991) recognized that each of the three categories of definitions for organizational commitment represented a legitimate and clearly different conceptualization. Building upon these classifications, they proposed a three-component model of organizational commitment with affective, continuance, and normative components. The affective component "refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization" (p. 67). Continuance commitment refers to the employee's awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization. Normative commitment reflects the employee's feelings that he should remain with the organization, generally a feeling of a moral obligation.

It has been suggested that the continuance commitment dimension is better characterized by two, distinct subdimensions: the perceived sacrifice associated with leaving (high-sacrifice commitment) and the costs resulting from a lack of employment alternatives (low-alternatives commitment) (McGee & Ford, 1987). These two components have consistently been shown to be related to each other, but differently related to other organizational commitment constructs which suggests that the Allen and Meyer framework may be defined as having four, rather than three, dimensions (Carson & Carson, 2002; Culpepper, Gamble, & Blubaugh, 2004; Dunham, Grube, & Castaneda, 1994; Hackett, Bycio, & Hausdorf, 1994; Iverson & Buttigieg, 1999; Stinglhamber, Bentein, & Vandenberghe, 2002). Carson and Carson modified the scale developed by Meyer and Allen (1991) and found that by adding additional items and eliminating several original items, the scale was significantly strengthened. Based on their findings, they conclude that the continuance organizational commitment construct is bi-dimensional.

There have been other multidimensional models of organizational commitment proposed. O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) suggested that the bond between an employee and an organization

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could take three forms: compliance, identification, and internalization. Compliance reflected an employee's behavior to gain rewards. Identification occurs when an employee identifies with the organization's values or goals, and wants to maintain a relationship with the organization. Internalization reflects behavior driven by the employee's internal values or goals that are consistent with those of the organization. However, Meyer and Allen's (1991) model has been subjected to the greatest empirical scrutiny and has received the most support from researchers (Clugston, 2000; Meyer, Becker, & Vandenberghe, 2004).

The Antecedents of Organizational Commitment

As shown in Figure 1, there are many antecedents and consequences of organizational commitment that have been researched. The discussion of these will occur in the next two sections of this chapter.
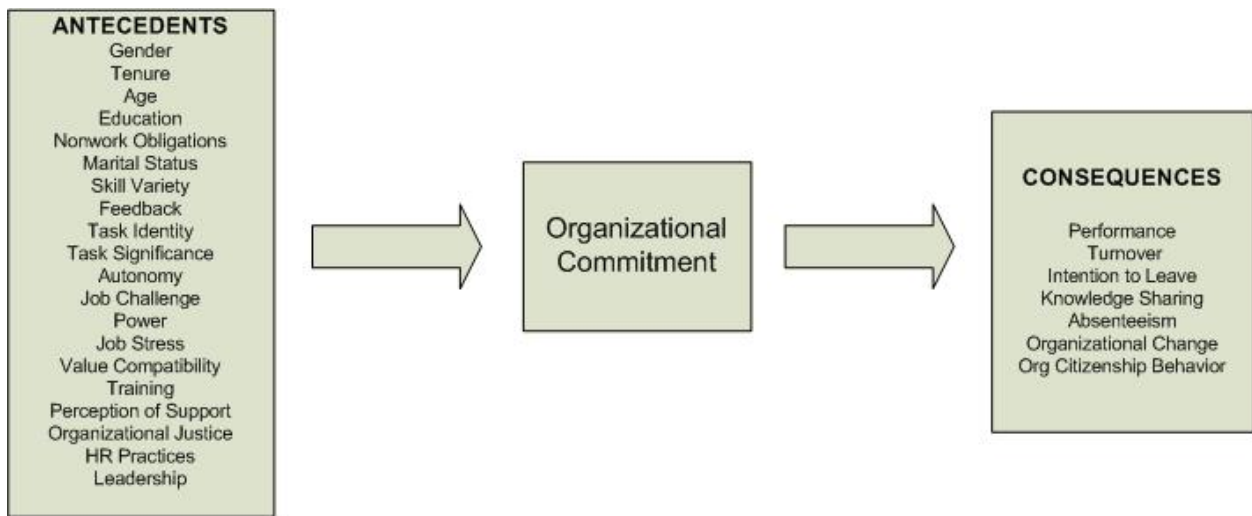
Figure 1: Antecedents and Consequences of Organizational Commitment

Demographic characteristics. Demographic differences may have an impact on the level of organizational commitment of individuals. However, research has been reluctant to stress this area because these variables cannot be altered by an organization, and selecting employees on the basis of demographics can be challenged as discriminatory. Alternatively, knowing that a particular group of employees tend to have lower commitment could allow an organization to create human resource strategies for improving the commitment of those groups (Taormina, 1999).

The study of gender and organizational commitment has received mixed results. Colbert and Kwon (2000) found that gender was significantly related to organizational commitment in their study of internal auditors in colleges and universities. Elizur and Koslowky (2001) used a sample of students to study the relationship between organizational commitment, work values, and gender. They found that gender was a significant predictor of commitment. These findings confirm a meta-analysis by Mathieu and Zajac (1990) where they found that women tend to be more committed than men. Dixon, Cunningham, Sagas, Turner, and Kent (2005) studied the affective commitment of interns in the sports and recreation industry and also found that women had greater commitment than men.

Wahn (1998) used a sample of both male and female human resource professionals to study gender differences in the continuance component of organizational commitment and found only a small to moderate effect of women being more committed than men. However, in their study of accountants Dodd-McCue and Wright (1996) found women to be less committed to their organizations than men. The findings above are in contrast to a meta-analysis by Aven, Parker, and McEvoy (1993) that used data from 27 independent samples found no relationship

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between gender and attitudinal commitment. A study by Turner and Chelladurai (2005) of intercollegiate coaches also found no significant gender differences for organizational commitment and Peterson (2003) found no relationship between gender and organization commitment in his study of business professionals.

Organizational tenure is another antecedent of organizational commitment that has received mixed results in studies. It has been found to have a statistically significant positive relationship with organizational commitment (Colbert & Kwon, 2000; Curry, Wakefield, Price, & Mueller, 1986; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Mathieu and Zajac suggested that years spent in an organization leads to greater costs for leaving, such as pension plan. However, they also stated that the causal direction of this relationship is unclear as to whether increased tenure increases commitment or whether more committed employees are most likely to stay.

The positive relationship findings are in contrast to the meta-analysis by Meyer et al. (2002) that found a weak correlation between organizational commitment and tenure and Brewer (1996) who found no significant relationship between tenure and organizational commitment in her study of bus operators. The study of police officers by Beck and Wilson (2000) found that affective commitment decreased, rather than increased, as a result of increasing experience with the police organization. Wahn (1998) used a sample of both male and female human resource professionals to study gender differences in the continuance component of organizational commitment and found a positive relationship between tenure and continuance commitment. The relationship was stronger for women that it was for men and suggests that this is because women perceive fewer alternatives to the current employer than men.

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Another demographic characteristic that has received mixed results in the studies is age. A meta-analysis by Mathieu and Zajac (1990) found that age was positively related to organizational commitment and the moderator analysis by type of commitment indicated that age was significantly more related to affective than to continuance commitment. However, other studies have found weak (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002) or no (Cohen, 1992; Peterson, 2003; Wahn, 1998) relationship between age and organizational commitment.

An individual's level of education has also been found to be related to organizational commitment. Steers (1977) found that the level of education was negatively related to organizational commitment. The meta-analysis by Mathieu and Zajac (1990) confirmed that finding and found that the relationship was significantly stronger for affective commitment as compared to continuance commitment. Wahn (1998) found a negative relationship between level of education and continuance commitment in her study of human resource professionals.

In addition to the demographic variables discussed above, other variables have been found to affect organizational commitment. These variables include employees' non-work obligations (Mellor, Mathieu, Barnes-Farrell, & Rogelberg, 2001) and marital status (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972).

Job characteristics. There are several job characteristics that impact an employee's organizational commitment. Inconsistent relationships between different job characteristics and organizational commitment were found in the study by Colbert and Kwon (2000) on internal auditors. They found that skill variety had a significant positive relationship with organizational commitment while feedback had an unexpected, significant negative relationship. Colbert and

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Kwon suggested that one possible explanation for this difference was that the feedback received may have been more negative in nature than positive. The questions measuring feedback in the survey instrument they used measured only the level, not the type, of feedback. Dunham, Grube, and Castaneda (1994) also found a positive relationship between organizational commitment and skill variety, however, they did not find the negative relationship between organizational commitment and feedback.

In their series of nine studies, Dunham, Grube, and Castaneda (1994) found significant relationships between organizational commitment and task identity, task significance, and autonomy with organizational commitment. In contrast, in their study of internal auditors, Colbert and Kwon (2000) did not find a relationship between organizational commitment and these variables. Steers (1977) found a significant relationship between organizational commitment and task identity.

Another variable that has been found to affect organizational commitment is power. A study by Wilson (1995) examined the organizational commitment of executives in the federal government. She found that employees who have the power necessary to achieve results experience higher level of commitment. Similarly, employee perceptions of decision-making influence were positively related with the organizational commitment of employees at a U.S. Federal Mint (Steel, Jennings, Mento, & Hendrix, 1992).

Several studies have shown that job challenge is positively related to affective organizational commitment using the mechanisms of empowerment and individual development (Birdi, Allan, & Warr, 1997; Dixon, Cunningham, Sagas, Turner, & Kent, 2005; MacDuffie, 1995; Mowday, 1998). For example, in their study of interns Dixon et al. found that job

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challenge held a significant and positive association with affective organizational commitment while supervisor support and role stress did not have a significant relationship.

In addition to the job characteristic variables discussed above, other variables have been found to affect organizational commitment. These variables include, but are not limited to, job level (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), job stress (Sager, 1994), and the role of middle managers (Brewer, 1996).

Organizational characteristics. There are several organizational characteristics that have an impact on an employee's level of organizational commitment. In a study of business professionals, Peterson (2004) found that a company's reputation on social issues influenced workers' attitudes. His study demonstrated that a favorable perception of corporate citizenship was associated with higher organizational commitment.

Another determinant of organizational behavior is the ethical compatibility between employees and the organization. In Peterson's (2003) study of 161 business professionals he found that organizational commitment significantly decreased as pressure to engage in unethical work behavior increased for employees who believed in universal moral rules.

Employees are more committed to organizations if they perceive the organization has high values. Finegan (2000) studied the relationship between personal values, organizational values, and organizational commitment in a large petrochemical company. He found that the employee's perception of the values of the organization is a better determinant for organizational commitment than the match between the values of the person and the organization. He further

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found that the value profile that predicted affective commitment was different from the value profile that predicted either normative or continuance commitment.

Individuals become affectively committed to the organization when they perceive the company provides proper training, pursues internal promotion, and that supervisors do a good job in providing career guidance (Chang, 1999). Chang further found that employees' continuance commitment is increased when they believe that the company is trying to prevent layoffs. Similarly, in a study of manufacturing employees Birdi, Allan, and Warr (1997) found that organizational commitment was higher when the organization provided training courses and work-based development activities. They found no relationship between organizational commitment and voluntary learning the employee did on their own time.

An employee's perception of organizational support is another antecedent of organizational commitment. Eisenberger, Fasolo, and Davis-LaMastro (1990) defined organizational support as how well an employee feels the organization values his contribution and his well-being. They found that organizational support was positively related to the organizational commitment of hourly and managerial employees in a large steel plant. Their study was replicated on non-supervisory hospital employees (Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996), automotive manufacturing plant workers (Bishop, Scott, & Burroughs, 2000), and full- and part-time manufacturing employees (Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth, 1997).

Other organizational variables have been found to affect organizational commitment. The perception of organizational politics decreases organizational commitment (Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth, 1997). The following organizational variables have been found to increase affective organizational commitment: organizational dependability (Steers, 1977),

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communication (Curry, Wakefield, Price, & Mueller, 1986; Rodwell, Kienzle, & Shadur, 1998), procedural fairness (Siegel, Post, Brockner, Fishman, & Garden, 2005), interactional justice (Thompson & Heron, 2005), satisfaction with benefits (Culpepper, Gamble, & Blubaugh, 2004; Davis & Ward, 1995; Heshizer, 1994), innovative human resource practices (Agarwala, 2003), organizational socialization (Taormina, 1999), group attitudes toward the organization (Steers), satisfaction with promotion opportunities (Curry, Wakefield, Price, & Mueller) and leadership. The relationship between leadership and organizational commitment will be covered in detail later in this chapter.

The Consequences of Organizational Commitment

There have been several consequences of organizational commitment researched. These consequences are shown in Figure 1 – Antecedents and Consequences of Organizational Commitment.

Performance. Mixed results have been found in research on the relationship between organizational commitment and performance. The meta-analysis performed by Mathieu and Zajac (1990) found that commitment has relatively little direct influence on performance. This finding was replicated by Becker, Billings, Eveleth, and Gilbert (1996). It was also replicated in the affective commitment and job performance meta-analysis by Riketta (2002).

Hackett, Bycio, and Hausdorf's (1994) study of bus operators found that neither affective nor continuance commitment were related to supervisor ratings of performance. They suggested that the failure to observe the predicted relations with performance was due to the way that they

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were measuring performance. Previous studies had used long-term performance measures whereas they captured supervisory observations of performance on only one occasion. However, the failure suggested by Hackett et al was tested in a study by Somers and Birnbaum (1998) by including both supervisory ratings and non-rating performance criteria also found no relationship between organizational commitment and performance.

Turner and Chelladurai (2005) found a small, but statistically significant, relationship between organizational commitment and performance in their study of intercollegiate coaches. Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, and Jackson (1989) found that the affective commitment of employees in a food services organization was positively related to their measured job performance, whereas continuance commitment was negatively related. Mayer and Schoorman (1992) replicated those findings with employees in a financial institution. Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, and Topolnytsky (2002) found that an employees' affective commitment led to increased job performance.

In a study of the branch network of a bank, Benkhoff (1997) found that commitment did have an impact of performance; however, the results varied depending on which performance measures were used. Benkhoff concluded that the selection of appropriate performance measures and commitment measures were of key importance.

In their review of previous performance and organizational commitment research, Becker and Kernan (2003) posited that the level of commitment would depend on the type of performance, and to whom the commitment was directed. In their study of students in a laboratory setting, they found that employees distinguish among affective and continuance commitment to supervisors and organizations. Further, certain performance types have the

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supervisor, rather than the organization, as their focus. They found that of affective and continuance commitment, only affective commitment was related to the four types of performance they studied.

When employees rated themselves on their performance, Suliman (2002) found that those who scored higher for organizational commitment rated their performance more positively than those with lower commitment levels. This finding was as expected because more committed employees should be more motivated to work hard on their organization's behalf (Cheng & Kalleberg, 1996).

Turnover. Organizational commitment has the potential to reduce employee turnover (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974). This contention was supported in Mathieu and Zajac's (1990) meta-analysis who found that turnover was more correlated with attitudinal than calculative commitment. Those findings were confirmed by the meta-analysis performed by Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, and Topolnytsky (2002). Stinglhamber, Bentein, and Vandenberghe (2002) found that organizational commitment was more influential on actual turnover than commitment to the occupation, supervisor, work group, or customers.

Intention to leave is a direct antecedent of actual turnover (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablynski, & Erez, 2001) and as such has been studied more frequently than actual turnover. Organizational commitment is significantly negatively correlated with intention to leave in general (Bishop, Scott, & Burroughs, 2000; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Williams & Hazer, 1986).

In a meta-analysis by Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch and Topolnytsky (2002) affective commitment, continuous commitment, and normative commitment were all significantly

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negatively correlated with intention to leave. Further, in a study of firefighters in Australia, Iverson and Buttigieg (1999) found that higher perceptions of sacrifice in the event of departure were significantly negatively correlated with turnover intentions and a low number of perceived alternatives had a low, positive correlation with turnover intentions. Using a sample of intercollegiate coaches, Turner and Chelladurai(2005) found that the organizational commitments of affective, normative, continuance: high sacrifice, and continuance: low alternatives correlated significantly with intention to leave the organization. However, Bentein, Vandenberg, Vandenberghe, and Stinglhamber (2005) only found that the affective and normative commitment dimensions were critical components within the turnover process in their study of commitment as it changes over time.

Knowledge creation. An employee's commitment to the organization influences their knowledge creating behaviors (Alvesson, 2001; Robertson & O'Malley Hammersley, 2000). Alvesson found that the company in his case study was successful in generating and disseminating knowledge when it created a high level of commitment to the organization. Similarly Robertson and O'Malley Hammersley studied the employees in a consulting firm and found that employees were more likely to share their knowledge when they had a high level of commitment to the organization.

Other. Other variables have been found to be consequences of organizational commitment. These variables include, but are not limited to, absenteeism (Eby, Freeman, Rush, & Lance, 1999; Iverson & Buttigieg, 1999; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002),

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organizational citizenship behavior (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky), higher acceptance of organizational change (Iverson & Buttigieg, 1999; Iverson & McLeod, 1996), and ethical behavior (Wahn, 1993).

Leadership Theory

This section provides a historical review of leadership theory. It is important to understand the history of leadership theory to better understand the current research in leadership. Leadership theory has focused on traits, behaviors, situations, and practices. Kouzes' and Posner's Leadership Theory is proposed as the core theory in this study for three reasons: they have developed an instrument that measures observer's perception of leadership, it can be operationalized, and it extends previous research into a new population.

Concept of Leadership

For thousands of years, society has thought about leadership. Prophets, priests, chiefs, and kings were symbols of leadership for people in the Bible, the anishads, the Greek and Latin classics, and in the Icelandic sagas (Bass, 1995). During this time people believed that leaders were great men who were born, and not made.

The scientific study of leadership began in the 1900's and is defined as the process by which an individual influences others to help attain group or organizational goals (Greenberg, 2002). As opposed to earlier beliefs on leadership that assumed that leaders were born, current research primarily assumes that leaders can be made. According to Kouzes and Posner (2002a), "leadership is not the private reserve of a few charismatic men and women. It is a process

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ordinary people use when they are bringing forth the best from themselves and others" (p.

xxiii). Similarly,

> In a day when so much energy seems to be spent on maintenance and manuals, on
> bureaucracy and meaningless quantification, to be a leader is to enjoy the special
> privileges of complexity, of ambiguity, of diversity. But to be a leader means, especially,
> having the opportunity to make a meaningful difference in the lives of those who permit
> leaders to lead (DePree, 1989, p. 22).

Most of the research on leadership can be classified into one of four major categories of

theory: trait, behavioral, situational, or transformational. The following sections briefly describe

the classifications and some of the more popular theories within each classification.

Trait theory. The primary period of time devoted to the trait study of leadership began

around 1910 and lasted until the onset of World War II. The primary premise of trait theory is

that effective leaders were different than other individuals and these differing traits set them

apart from others. The objective of this research was to identify what trait(s) of the individual

were associated with leadership (Chemers, 1995).

Stogdill (1948) reviewed over 120 trait studies and concluded that there was not a reliable

pattern found in these studies and that traits alone do not identify leadership. He further predicted

that leadership theory would not be accurate until personal or situational characteristics were

integrated. It is currently accepted that certain traits, along with other factors, contribute to

leaders' success (Greenberg, 2002).

Style or behavioral theory. The next stage in the evolution of leadership theory was based

upon the behaviors of leaders. The objective of this research was to identify which behaviors

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made a leader effective. Typical areas of study were how effective leaders communicated, gave directions, motivated, conducted meetings, or planned.

In the 1950's, the behavioral studies of leadership started looking at the question of what leaders do instead of the values of the personalities or leadership styles (Chemers, 1995). The most comprehensive study in this area used a rating scale called the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire developed by Stogdill and Coons (1957). The studies using this instrument found that the most variation in leader behavior could be described by two major factors of behavior: consideration and initiation of structure. Consideration was concerned with the feelings of subordinates and the use of two-way communication. Initiation of structure stressed directiveness, goal facilitation, and task related feedback. However, later studies found few consistent patterns between leader behavior and group productivity, or follower satisfaction (Chemers).

Starting in the 1960's, the Theory X and Theory Y approach to leadership became popular. Theory X described the traditional view of management that had been used for centuries. This view assumed that employees were lazy, irresponsible, and would work only when watched carefully. Researchers, such as McGregor (1960), contrasted this view with Theory Y assumptions. Theory Y assumed that people liked to work, accepted responsibility, and seek achievement at their jobs. The Theory Y perspective is still widely accepted and is the base for many later leadership theories (Greenberg, 2002).

Contingency or situational theory. Inconsistent findings in the trait and behavior research of leadership lead to the development of several contingency or situational theories of leadership.

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Contingency theories assume that there is no one best way to make decisions and that the most effective leadership style will depend on the characteristics of the situation (Chemers, 1995).

The contingency theories of leadership began with Fiedler (Fiedler, 1971; Mitchell, Biglan, Oncken, & Fiedler, 1970) who developed a model which integrated situational parameters into the leadership equation. Fiedler thought that leader-member relations, the task structure, and the position power of the leader determined the effectiveness of a leader (Chemers, 1995). Fiedler used an instrument called the least preferred co-worker (LPC) scale to measure a person's leadership style. High-LPC leaders have a relationship motivated style and those with low-LPC have a task motivated style.

House (1971) introduced a prominent contingency theory of leadership known as the Path-Goal Theory. The theory uses the term path-goal because of its emphasis on how a leader influences subordinate's perceptions of both work and personal goals, and the paths found between those two sets of goals. House studied the effects of specific leader behavior on subordinate motivation and satisfaction. Subordinate motivation and satisfaction were affected by the degree of clarity in their tasks. If the subordinates tasks were unclear, it was considered unstructured and had a negative effect on his motivation and satisfaction. The structure provided by an effective leader clarifies the path to the goal for subordinates and increases motivation and satisfaction. Subsequent studies of path goal theory, however, produced inconsistent findings (e.g., Schriesheim & Schriesheim, 1980; Sims & Szilagyi, 1975; Stinson & Johnson, 1975; Szilagyi & Sims, 1974).

Situational leadership, as defined by Hersey and Blanchard (1995), is an attempt to demonstrate the relationship between the leader's behavior and the readiness level exhibited by

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the followers. "Thus, situational leadership assumes a dynamic interaction where the readiness level of the followers may change and where the leader's behavior must change appropriately in order to maintain the performance of the followers" (p. 207). The theory posits that there is no single best way to lead.

The situational model has evolved and is illustrated in Figure 2.
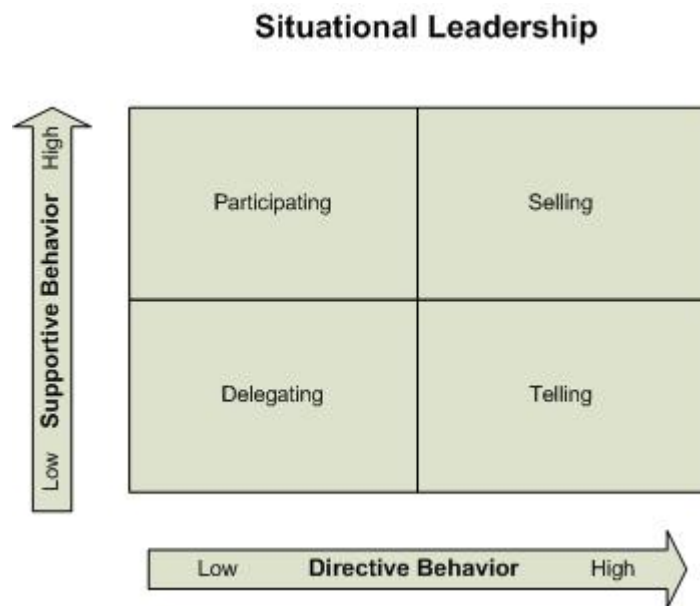
Figure 2: Situational Leadership (as interpreted from Hersey and Blanchard (1995) and Fernandez and Vecchio (1997))

The figure illustrates the amount of direction and support a leader must give his followers and shows which leadership style is most appropriate. The first leadership style is delegating and is used for subordinates who need little support, or directive behavior, from the leader. With this style, the leader discusses the problem with the subordinates and gives the responsibility for decisions and implementation to them. The leadership style appropriate for subordinates who need high direction and a low level of support is telling. With telling, the leader provides specific

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instructions and closely monitors the subordinate's performance. The selling leadership style is used with subordinates who need a high level of both direction and support. With this style a leader would explain decisions and provide opportunity for clarification. Finally, the participating leadership style is used with subordinates who need little direction, but a high level of support. A leader would share ideas and facilitate in decision making when using this style.

The situational leadership model has gone through much iteration since its inception in 1969 and it is still being actively researched. Although the model has been criticized for lacking empirical robustness and internal consistency (Fernandez & Vecchio, 1997), it has remained very popular. It has not only been a popular theory, but also one of the most widely known (Aldoory & Toth, 2004) and most widely used (Graeff, 1997).

Transformational theory. There has been extensive research performed in the last twenty years into similar leadership theories variously referred to as charismatic, transformational, or visionary leadership (Bass, 1985a; Conger & Kanungo, 1994; Kouzes & Posner, 2002a). What these theories have in common is that they focus on exceptional leaders who have extraordinary effects on their followers. In addition, these leaders cause employees to become both committed to the leader's and the organization's mission (McCann, Langford, & Rawlings, 2006). Transformational leadership is one management practice that has increasingly become dominant in both public and private sector organizations (Judge & Bono, 2000; K. B. Lowe & Gardner, 2000; Walumbwa, Orwa, Wang, & Lawler, 2005).

Earlier leadership theories described leader behavior in terms of exchanges between leader and follower, providing direction, support, and reinforcement. This behavior is defined as

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transactional in the transformational theories (Bass, 1981; Chemers, 1995). Bass (1985b) noted that this is only a subset of leadership skills, that there are some leaders who can gain quantum leaps in performance and that leaders can also bring about radical shifts of attention. The earlier leadership practices based upon exchanges he termed transactional leadership and the inspiring practices were termed transformational.

Transformational leadership includes six key leader behaviors: articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model, fostering acceptance of group goals, expecting higher performance, providing support, and offering intellectual stimulation (Bass, 1985b; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990; Viator, 2001).

Servant leadership is another theory of leadership that can be categorized as transformational in nature. Servant leadership was a theory Robert Greenleaf developed while an executive at AT&T. The basis of his theory is that great leaders must first serve others and this fact is central to their greatness. This leadership model puts serving others, including employees, customers, and community, as the top priority for the leader. It emphasizes the need for individuals to provide increased service to those around them, a more holistic mindset in the workplace, a sense of well-being and belonging in a community, and increased opportunities for decision-making power (Greenleaf, 1995; R. T. Wilson, 1998). Greenleaf's theory has been embraced by many executives as a philosophy, but there is very little empirical research in this area.

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Leadership Practices Inventory

The Leadership Practices Inventory was introduced by Barry Posner and James Kouzes in their book *The Leadership Challenge* in 1988. Kouzes and Posner (2002a) began sending out surveys and doing in-depth interviews in 1983 to determine how leaders mobilized others to want to get extraordinary things done in organizations. The Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) was developed through a triangulation of quantitative and qualitative research. The research resulted in a framework of five leadership practices: modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart.

Following several iterative psychometric processes, the resulting instrument, the LPI, has been administered to more than 350,000 individuals across a variety of organizations, disciplines, and demographic backgrounds (Kouzes & Posner, 2002b). Table 2 summarizes the five leadership practices and associated commitments.

Table 2: Leadership Practices and Commitments

Practice	Commitments
Model the Way	Clarify your Personal Values
	Align Actions with Shared Values
Inspire a Shared Vision	Imagine Exciting and Ennobling possibilities
	Appeal to Shared Aspirations
Challenge the Process	Seek Innovative Ways to Change, Grow, and Improve
	Generate Small Wins and Learn from Mistakes
Enable Others to Act	Promote Cooperative Goals and Build Trust
	Share Power and Discretion
Encourage the Heart	Show Appreciation for Individual Excellence
	Create a Spirit of Community

The next five sections describe the five leadership practices and associated commitments that the LPI measures.

Model the Way

Kouzes and Posner (2002a) found that exemplary leaders gained commitment and achieved high standards because they understood that they must model the way for others. "Modeling the way is essentially about earning the right and the respect to lead through direct individual involvement and action. People first follow the person, then the plan" (p. 15).

Kouzes and Posner (2002a) associated two commitments a leader must make in order to succeed at modeling the way. The first commitment is for the leader to find her voice by clarifying her personal values. Leaders are expected to stand up for their beliefs, therefore, they must figure out the values that they are willing to stand up for.

The second commitment associated with modeling the way is that the leader must set the example by aligning her actions with shared values. Leaders are measured by others based upon their consistency of word and action. Shared values provide people with a common language. It allows people to be more loyal to their organization resulting in increased commitment, enthusiasm, and creativity (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a).

Inspire a Shared Vision

Exemplary leaders believe that they can make a difference and are driven by an image of what they believe the organization can become. A good leader will inspire followers by enlisting them in her vision (Kouzes & Posner, 2004). In order for a leader to enlist followers in her

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vision, she must know her constituents and speak their language. The followers must believe

that the leader understands their needs, dreams, hopes, aspirations, and values.

Kouzes and Posner (2002a) associated two commitments for a leader to succeed at

inspiring a shared vision. The first commitment was to envision the future by imagining exciting

and ennobling possibilities. Leaders cannot only be concerned with short-term performance.

They must also think about the long-term creation of value.

Another commitment for a leader to inspire a shared vision is by enlisting others in a

common vision by appealing to shared aspirations. Leadership is not about enforcing the leader's

dream, it is about developing a shared sense of destiny (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a). Research has

shown that an inspired vision motivates employees (Collins, 2001; DePree, 1989; Goleman,

Boyatzis, & McKee, 2001; Kouzes & Posner, 2002a, 2004; Shoemaker, 1999).

Challenge the Process

Exemplary leaders challenge the status quo. They search for opportunities to grow,

innovate, and improve. They seek these opportunities not only within themselves, but from

others. According to Kouzes and Posner (2002a), there are two commitments associated with

challenging the process. The first commitment for the leader is to search for opportunities by

seeking innovative ways to change, grow, and improve.

The second commitment for a leader to make in order to challenge the process is to

experiment and take risks by constantly generating small wins and learning from mistakes

(Kouzes & Posner, 2002a). Shoemaker (1999) found that the leaders ability to challenge the

process positively affected job satisfaction. More specifically, she found that sales people tend to

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take risks in order to gain sales and the leader who allows them to take risks and rewards them accordingly increases their job satisfaction.

Enable Others to Act

Exemplary leaders realize that it takes more than a single person to achieve the inspired vision, it takes a team. Therefore, the exemplary leader will build an organization that enables others to act (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a). The first commitment a leader must make to this leadership practice is to foster collaboration by promoting cooperative goals and building trust.

Strengthening others by sharing power and discretion is the second commitment a leader makes in order to enable others to act (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a). In a study by Teas (1981), it was found that a salespersons' perception of autonomy is significantly related to his motivation and feeling of self-fulfillment. Similarly, a study by Bakan, Suseno, Pinnington, and Money (2004) showed that participative decision making showed significant positive effects on job attitudes such as involvement, satisfaction, and commitment.

Encourage the Heart

The final leadership practice outlined by Kouzes and Posner (2002a) is to encourage the heart. The first commitment a leader must make in order to encourage the heart is to recognize contributions by showing appreciation for individual excellence. Encouraging the heart means linking rewards with performance. Greater performance feedback is associated with better performance and increased job satisfaction (Greenberg, 2002; Smither, London, & Reilly, 2005; Spector, 1997).

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The second commitment for a leader to encourage the heart is to celebrate the values and victories by creating a spirit of community. According to Kouzes and Posner (2002a) while individual recognition increases the recipients performance and self-worth, public celebrations have this effect plus add other significant and lasting contributions to the welfare of individuals and the organization. In a survey of human resource managers Ford, McLaughlin, and Newstrom (2003) found that the managers believed that public celebrations, social events, and similar activities created a fun work environment that lead to increased performance and satisfaction of the employees.

<div align="center">Organizational Commitment and Leadership</div>

There has been a substantial amount of research focused on the relationship between leadership behavior and organizational commitment. The findings in this area are not consistent. Several studies found a positive relationship between these variables (Glisson & Durick, 1988; Newman, 1974; Savery, 1994; Zeffane, 1994) while others found no relationship (Hampton, Dubinsky, & Skinner, 1986; O'Reilly & Roberts, 1978).

Currently, the focus in this area of research between leadership and organizational commitment has primarily used the more recent transformational leadership theories. The findings in this area have been more consistent than when using the earlier leadership theories. Shamir and colleagues (Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993; Shamir, Zakay, Breinin, & Popper, 1998) suggest that transformational leaders influence organizational commitment by raising the level of intrinsic value associated with goal accomplishment and by creating a higher level of personal commitment on the part of the leader and followers to a common vision, mission, and

organizational goals. Table 3 summarizes the major research on transformational leadership and

organizational commitment.

Table 3: Research on Transformational Leadership and Organizational Commitment

Author(s)	Sample	Instruments	Findings
Niehoff, Enz, and Grover (1990)	Insurance company employees	Various scales for leadership and the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)	Both transactional and transformational leadership styles affect affective OC.
Bycio, Hackett, and Allen (1995)	Registered nurses	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire and the Organizational Commitment Scales (OCS).	The relationships were larger with affective OC than with continuance or normative OC. Positive correlation between normative OC and leadership.
Barling, Weber, and Kelloway (1996)	Banking employees	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire and OCQ	Transformational leadership increases the affective OC to the organization.
Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Bommer (1996)	Meta-analysis	Meta-analysis of previous research	Articulating a vision was positively related to employees' affective OC.
Gunter (1997)	Music company employees	LPI and OCQ	Affective OC was related to the leadership behaviors. Higher levels of commitment found in females.
Rowden (2000)	Large organizations in Atlanta	C-K scale and OCQ	Charismatic leader behaviors were positively related to affective OC.
Lowe (2000)	Fire service employees	LPI and OCQ	Affective OC was increased by the leadership behaviors.
Huang (2000)	CPA firm employees	Perceived Leadership Scales and OCQ	Significant relationships between instrumental leadership, participative leadership, and supportive leadership to affective OC.
Viator (2001)	American Institute of Certified Public Accountant members	Leader behavior inventory and the Affective and Continuance Commitment Scales.	Transformational leadership was positively associated with role clarity, affective OC, and job satisfaction. Negative association between leadership and low alternatives continuance OC.
Bono and Judge (2003)	Organizations in multiple industries	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire and the Affective Commitment Scale	There is a positive link between transformational leadership and affective OC.
Bell-Roundtree (2004)	Knowledge workers	LPI and OCQ	Employees reported higher levels of affective OC and job satisfaction when managers practiced the five leadership behaviors.
Metscher (2005)	Air Force personnel and civil service employees	LPI and OCQ	Affective OC was increased by the leadership behaviors.
Walumbwa, Orwa, Wang, and Lawler (2005)	Banking employees	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire and OCQ	Transformational leadership had a strong and positive effect on both affective OC and job satisfaction.

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Niehoff, Enz, and Grover (1990) studied how both transactional and transformational leadership styles related to affective organizational commitment. They found that both leadership styles had a significant positive relationship with affective organizational commitment. They further found that the relationship was stronger with affective organizational commitment than with job satisfaction. Similarly, Walumbwa, Orwa, Wang, and Lawler (2005) explored the relationship between transformational leadership, and affective organizational commitment and job satisfaction at several banking organizations. They found that transformational leadership had a strong and positive effect on both affective organizational commitment and job satisfaction.

The level of affective organizational commitment before and after the supervisor had attended leadership training was studied by Barling, Weber, and Kelloway (1996) using a sample of banking. The study showed that transformational leadership training increases the affective organizational commitment to the organization.

Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Bommer (1996) examined the effects of transformational leadership behaviors, within the context of Kerr and Jermier's (1978) substitutes for leadership theory. They found that articulating a vision was positively related to employees' affective organizational commitment. They did not find a relationship between being a good model, communicating high performance expectations, fostering the acceptance of group goals, individualized support, and intellectual stimulation with affective organizational commitment.

Using charismatic leadership behaviors and its relationship to organizational commitment Rowden (2000) found that charismatic leader behaviors, such as sensitivity to member needs and having a clear vision, were positively related to affective organizational commitment.

Gunter (1997) examined the effects of perceived leadership behavior and affective organizational commitment using music company employees and found that affective organizational commitment was related to the LPI leadership behaviors. He also found higher levels of commitment for females than for males. Lowe (2000) examined the effects of perceived leadership behavior and affective organizational commitment using fire service employees. He used the LPI to measure the perception of leadership and found that the practices advocated did increase the level of affective organizational commitment. His study was replicated by Metscher (2005) on Air Force personnel and civil service employees. Bell-Roundtree (2004) replicated and expanded these studies using a sample of knowledge workers and by also measuring job satisfaction. She found that employees reported higher levels of affective organizational commitment and job satisfaction when managers practiced the five transformational leadership behaviors.

Huang (2000) examined the relationship of perceived leadership and affective organizational commitment using employees at CPA firms. He used the Perceived Leadership Behavior Scales by House and Dessler (1974) to measure perceived leadership and found significant relationships between instrumental leadership, participative leadership, and supportive leadership to affective organizational commitment.

A positive link between transformational leadership and affective organizational commitment was found in a study by Bono and Judge (2003) comprised of leaders holding supervisory, or managerial positions, and the individuals who reported directly to them from nine organizations in industries ranging from advertising to aerospace, including both service and manufacturing organizations.

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The majority of studies regarding leadership and organizational commitment measured only affective organizational commitment. There have only been a few studies which examined the relationship of leadership to continuance or normative commitment. Bycio, Hackett, and Allen (1995) performed a study on nurses measuring all three commitment forms and found that affective organizational commitment had strong positive relationships with transformational leadership as measured by Bass' (1985a) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. The relationships were significantly larger with affective organizational commitment than those involving continuance organizational commitment and normative organizational commitment. They also found an unanticipated small, but significant, positive correlation between normative organizational commitment and transformational leadership.

Viator (2001) studied the relevance of transformational leadership to nontraditional accounting services and the effect on role clarity, job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment and continuance organizational commitment. He found that transformational leadership as measured by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Felter's (1990) leader behavior inventory was directly and positively associated with role clarity, affective organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. He also found a negative association between transformational leadership and low alternatives continuance commitment.

Contribution of the Study

There are three contributions this study made to the body of research. The first contribution was expanding the research on the relationship between normative and continuance commitment with transformational leadership. Meyer and Allen (1991) viewed commitment in

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terms of three components: affective commitment, reflecting the employee's emotional attachment to, and involvement with, the organization; continuance commitment, relating to the costs the employee associates with leaving; and normative commitment, the employee's feelings of obligation to stay. Meyer and Allen's model has been subjected to the greatest empirical scrutiny and has received the most support from researchers (Clugston, 2000; Meyer, Becker, & Vandenberghe, 2004). However, in research on transformational leadership and organizational commitment, there have only been a few studies where the affective form of commitment was not the only one measured.

As the studies in Table 3 showed, transformational leadership exhibits strong positive relationships to affective organizational commitment, given the strong feelings of emotional attachment it fosters. However, it is reasonable to hypothesize that an employee's continuance commitment may also be affected by transformational leadership behaviors. Bycio, Hackett, and Allen (1995) used the one dimensional construct of continuance commitment and were surprised to find no relationship between leadership and continuance commitment. Viator (2001) used the bi-dimensional continuance commitment construct and found a negative association between transformational leadership and low alternatives continuance commitment.

Bycio, Hackett, and Allen (1995) found unexpected, but significant correlations between normative organizational commitment and leadership. They suggest that since transformational leaders typically hold a sense of moral obligation to the organization as an end value, perhaps the relationships involving normative organizational commitment and transformational leadership reflects the influence of less positive models in the organization whose behavior is not indicative of the justice and the integrity often ascribed to transformational leaders. This study helped

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clarify the relationships between continuance and normative organizational commitment with transformational leadership.

This study used the previously untested combination of LPI and the Organizational Commitment Scales making a contribution to the understanding of these two scales. The LPI has been administered to more than 350,000 individuals across a variety of organizations, disciplines, and demographic backgrounds. In the last 20 years, The Leadership Challenge (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a) has sold over one million copies and has been translated into 11 languages. The LPI is one of the most widely used leadership assessment instruments in the world with more than 275 doctoral dissertations and academic research projects based on this model. Thus, an exploration of the ties between the Leadership Challenge and Meyer and Allen (1991) models was needed.

Another contribution this study made to body of research on organizational commitment was related to demographic characteristics. As shown in the organizational commitment section on demographic characteristics there are several characteristics in which the research results have been mixed. This study measured three of these characteristics: Gender, age, and organizational tenure.

Summary

This chapter summarized a number of the major studies contributing to the organizational commitment literature in general, and specifically within leadership theory. The chapter provided an overview of organizational commitment focusing on its meaning, the antecedents, and its consequences. Organizational commitment has attracted substantial research interest because of

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its attempt to understand the intensity and stability of employee dedication to work organizations (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990). A number of antecedents have been identified which were categorized as demographic differences, job characteristics, and organizational characteristics. The findings in these areas, especially with demographic differences, have largely been inconsistent.

An employee's commitment is a concern to all organizations because it has been linked to several important consequences such as reduced turnover (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), increased knowledge sharing (Alvesson, 2001), increased organizational citizenship behaviors (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002), and reduced absenteeism (Eby, Freeman, Rush, & Lance, 1999).

One important antecedent of organizational commitment is leadership. This chapter also reviewed leadership theory which was categorized into four major areas: trait, behavioral, situational, and transformational. This study used the Leadership Practices Inventory developed by Kouzes and Posner (2002a) and is based on transformational leadership theory.

Lastly, this chapter discussed the primary contributions this study made to the body of knowledge. The first contribution was expanding the research on the relationship between normative and continuance commitment with transformational leadership. Second, this study used the previously untested combination of LPI and the Organizational Commitment Scales making a contribution to the understanding of these two scales. Finally, this study examined the demographic characteristics of gender, age, and organizational tenure to attempt to explain the mixed results that have been found to date.

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Chapter III will discuss the research methodology used in this study, including

instrumentation, procedures, and analysis of data.

CHAPTER 3. METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the research design followed for determining the relationship between leadership practices and organizational commitment. The objective of this empirical research was to extend the body of knowledge on organizational commitment and transformational leadership practices. Included in this chapter is information related to the research questions and hypotheses, research design, variables, population, instrumentation, data collection procedures, data analysis techniques, assumptions, and limitations.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Research has shown that there is a statistically significant relationship between an employee's perception of leadership and affective organizational commitment (Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996; W. A. Lowe, 2000; Niehoff, Enz, & Grover, 1990; Walumbwa, Orwa, Wang, & Lawler, 2005). Therefore, this study extended previous research studies by exploring the following questions:

1. Is there a statistically significant relationship between employees' perception of leadership and their continuance organizational commitment?

2. Is there a statistically significant relationship between employees' perception of leadership and their normative organizational commitment?

3. Is there a statistically significant relationship between employees' personal characteristics and their organizational commitment?

Using appropriate statistical methods the research questions suggested 6 hypotheses to be established and tested.

Hypothesis 1

H_{01} There is no significant relationship between employee affective organizational commitment and the employees' perceptions of the supervisors' leadership practices of modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart.

H_{01a} There is a significant relationship between employee affective organizational commitment and the employees' perceptions of the supervisors' leadership practices of modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart.

Hypothesis 2

H_{02} There is no significant relationship between employee normative organizational commitment and the employees' perceptions of the supervisors' leadership practices of modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart.

H_{02a} There is a significant relationship between employee normative organizational commitment and the employees' perceptions of the supervisors' leadership practices of modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart.

Hypothesis 3

H_{03} There is no significant relationship between employee continuance organizational commitment and the employees' perceptions of the supervisors' leadership practices of modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart.

H_{03a} There is a significant relationship between employee continuance organizational commitment and the employees' perceptions of the supervisors' leadership practices of modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart.

Hypothesis 4

H_{04} There is no significant relationship between employee gender, age, educational level, or tenure, and employee affective organizational commitment.

H_{04a} There is a significant relationship between employee gender, age, educational level, or tenure, and employee affective organizational commitment.

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Hypothesis 5

H_{05} There is no significant relationship between employee gender, age, educational level, or tenure, and employee normative organizational commitment.

H_{05a} There is a significant relationship between employee gender, age, educational level, or tenure, and employee normative organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 6

H_{06} There is no significant relationship between employee gender, age, educational level, or tenure, and employee continuance organizational commitment.

H_{06a} There is a significant relationship between employee gender, age, educational level, or tenure, and employee continuance organizational commitment.

Research Design

The research design is dependent upon the research questions that are asked (Creswell, 2003). In this case, the questions inquired about relationships between different constructs. These types of questions are quantitative in nature and can be analyzed by calculating correlations and performing regression analysis. This was an ex post facto study, since the primary objective was to observe an empirical relationship between two variables, perceived leadership practices and organizational commitment, and suggest a reason for the relationship. Correlational analysis was used to measure the strength of the relationship between the variables. The data was cross-sectional in nature since only one observation was collected per respondent during the data collection period.

This study used self-administered surveys to collect the employee attitude and demographic data. The survey respondents were employees from two different organizational

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populations. The first organization was a petroleum products redistribution and services company located in Houston, TX. The second organization was a hedge-fund trading firm also located in Houston, TX. While using employees from different firms and in different industries increases the ability to generalize the findings, the study only used employees in Houston which limited the ability of the researcher to generalize the results to other populations. The use of the entire population of each firm will allowed inferences to be made for those two populations, but using these firms as samples from the larger population of all United States employees would have lead to bias because it is unknown how well these samples represented the characteristics of that larger population (Cooper & Schindler, 2003; Nardi, 2003).

The use of surveys is one of the most commonly used forms of data collection. It is a well-accepted practice for collecting data in many fields of research particularly in the social sciences and organizational behavior (Roztocki & Morgan, 2002). Surveys are popular because they are non-intrusive and a fairly inexpensive approach to gathering data (Church, 2001). Currently, the number of surveys conducted each year by self-administration exceeds those completed as interviews (Dillman, 2000). This study used two pre-existing survey instruments, the LPI (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a) and the Organizational Commitment Scales (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

This study only used one source, employees, and one method, surveys, to address the research questions. Consequently, there was a possibility for bias due to the single-source, single method approach. Ideally, follow-up interviews would have been conducted with respondents, non-respondents, and key stakeholders in the organization ensure accuracy. However, resource

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limitations and access constraints from participating organizations limited the data collection methods.

<div align="center">Variables</div>

This section discusses the variables measured in this study. The primary independent variable for this study was perceived leadership practices. This variable was measured using the Leadership Practices Inventory – Observer (LPI) questionnaire developed by Kouzes and Posner (2002b). The LPI assessed five dimensions of transformational leadership: (a) model the way, (b) inspire a shared vision, (c) challenge the process, (d) enable others to act, and (e) encourage the heart.

Certain employee characteristics, or demographics, were also considered independent variables to determine influence on organizational commitment for the purposes of this study. This demographic data collected included gender, organizational tenure, age, and educational level.

The dependent variables for this study were the three forms of organizational commitment as defined by Meyer and Allen (1991). The variables were measured using the Organizational Commitment Scales.

<div align="center">Population</div>

This study attempted to survey all employees of two firms located in Houston, TX. Firm A was a petroleum products redistribution and services company with 96 Houston based employees. Firm B was a hedge-fund financial trading company with 33 employees. Employee specific responsibilities included accountants, sales people, software developers, computer

<div align="center">53</div>

support, financial traders, drivers, marketing personnel, human resources, and administrative staff. The employees of these organizations varid significantly with respect to education level and organizational tenure and provided a rich set of data to compare and contrast with one another in answering the research questions in this study.

Using the equation for sample size for proportions and applying a finite population correction for the estimated population of 105 calculated a necessary sample of 76 participants. However, the sample size for attribute ratings equation which gives a minimum sample size requirements for metric measurement scales and applying a finite population correction for the estimated population resulted in 59 complete responses needed. The deviation from the desired number of respondents is addressed in the documentation of the findings from this study.

<center>Data Collection Instruments</center>

The survey instrument for this research contained three components. The components in this survey were demographic data, the Organizational Commitment Scales developed by Meyer and Allen (1991), and the Leadership Practices Inventory – Observer questionnaire published by Kouzes and Posner (2002a). The Organizational Commitment Scales were chosen because it has been subjected to the greatest empirical scrutiny and has received the most support from organizational commitment researchers (Clugston, 2000; Meyer, Becker, & Vandenberghe, 2004). It is also the only scale that measures the three forms of commitment that are key to this study.

There are several different leadership questionnaires available and frequently used by academics and practitioners alike. These instruments include, but are not limited to, the

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Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a), the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass, 1985a), and the Perceived Leadership Scales (House & Dessler, 1974). Neither the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire nor the Perceived Leadership Scales measured the leadership behavior that was of interest in this study. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire does not have a form available to survey the perceptions of leadership by the followers. The Perceived Leadership Scales does measure perception, but appeared to the researcher to be more focused on the leadership style (supportive, participative, and instrumental) rather than specific behaviors.

The Leadership Practices Inventory – Observer (LPI-O) questionnaire was chosen because it measured the specific behaviors of interest and because of its popularity and use by organizations. It has been administered to more than 350,000 individuals across a variety of organizations, disciplines, and demographic backgrounds (Kouzes & Posner, 2002b). In addition, the LPI-O has been used extensively in related research (Bell-Roundtree, 2004; Carless, 2001; Gunter, 1997; Metscher, 2005).

In the following sections, each instrument is described by its characteristics, reliability, validity, and scoring procedure.

Organizational Commitment Scales

The Organizational Commitment Scales were developed by Meyer and Allen (1991) based upon their study of a manufacturing company and a university. The scale originally consisted of a series of eight questions for each of the following sub-scales: affective (AC), continuance (CC), and normative (NC). Initial Cronbach's alpha calculations for each of these

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scales were .87, .75, and .79 respectively. Further studies to verify the model have resulted in Cronbach's alpha ranges for the AC, CC, and NC of .74 to .89, .69 to .84, and .69 to .79, respectively (Meyer & Allen). Cronback's alpha is a measure of internal consistency of a test.

To address some issues identified with the original version of the scales, Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993) modified the scales using data from nursing students. They eliminated items showing poor factor loading. Three items were removed from the scales, one item was added to the CC scale, and the NC scale was extensively revised.

All three commitment components have been shown to load on the appropriate construct. Meyer and Allen (1991) used exploratory factor analysis to demonstrate that both discriminate and convergent validity exist for each of the three scales, which supports the three components as being conceptually and empirically distinct.

The revised scale contains 18 items and is measured on a seven-point Likert scale with 1 = very strongly disagree and 7 = very strongly agree. Some of the questions in the scale are reverse scored. Example questions from the AC are "This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me" and "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization". Example questions for CC are "I believe that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization" and "It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to". Example questions for the NC are "This organization deserves my loyalty" and "I owe a great deal to my organization".

There have been several studies performed by other researchers to establish the validity of the revised scales. Table 4 shows the reliability values for coefficient alpha. Reliability coefficients with values of .70 or above are considered respectable (Henson, 2001).

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Table 4: Reliability values for the Organizational Commitment Scales

Researcher(s)	Affective	Continuance	Normative
Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993)	.87	.79	.73
Hackett, Bycio, and Hausdorf (1994) Sample 1	.86	.79	.73
Hackett, Bycio, and Hausdorf (1994) Sample 2	.84	.75	.73
Meyer and Allen (1997)	.85	.79	.73
Culpepper (2000)	.84	.86	.72
Herscovitch and Meyer (2002)	.91	.87	.90
Van Dijk (2004)	.84	.81	.83

Leadership Practices Inventory – Observer Questionnaire

The Leadership Practices Inventory was introduced by Barry Posner and James Kouzes in their book *The Leadership Challenge* in 1988. Kouzes and Posner (2002a) began sending out surveys and doing in-depth interviews in 1983 to determine how leaders mobilized others to want to get extraordinary things done in organizations. The Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) was developed through a triangulation of quantitative and qualitative research. The research resulted in a framework of five leadership practices: modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart.

There are multiple versions of the LPI that are dependent upon the environment and purpose for which the survey is being used (Kouzes & Posner, 2002b). The LPI – Self is for leaders to evaluate themselves. The LPI – Observer allows the leader to receive a confidential assessment from their subordinates. The LPI – Team measures the performance and effectiveness of work teams. The LPI – Individual Contributor allows non-managers to assess their leadership skills. Finally, the LPI – Student is designed for use with students in an academic environment. For the purposes of this study, only the LPI – Observer form was used because of the focus on the perception of leadership by the employees.

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The LPI – Observer Questionnaire contains 30 descriptive statements about leadership practices. It uses a 10-point Likert scale with 1 = Almost Never and 10 = Almost Always. Six statements are provided for each of the five leadership practices. The participants in this study were instructed that they were to answer the questions about his or her immediate supervisor.

Kouzes and Posner updated the psychometric properties report in June 2000. Table 5 lists the reported mean, standard deviation, and reliability values. The sample size used for the observer form was 5,234.

Table 5: Psychometric Properties for the LPI – Observer Form (Kouzes & Posner, 2002b)

Leadership Practice	Reliability	Mean	Standard Deviation
Challenge the Process	.89	44.4	9.1
Inspire a Shared Vision	.92	42.0	10.6
Enable Others to Act	.88	47.8	8.4
Model the Way	.88	47.5	8.5
Encourage the Heart	.92	44.9	10.2

Kouzes and Posner (2002a) have compared the LPI every 2 years since 1987 and report relative stability over time. The LPI scores are not related to demographic variables such as age, years of experience, educational level, or marital status. Validation of the reliability of the LPI has been performed by other researchers (Bell-Roundtree, 2004; Carless, 2001; Gunter, 1997; W. A. Lowe, 2000; Tourangeau & McGilton, 2004). These studies have confirmed the reliability of this instrument.

Factor analysis, using principal component analysis with varimax rotation and Kaiser normalization, has been performed on the LPI – Observer form. Kouzes and Posner (2002b) report that while some statements load on more than one factor, the highest loading was

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generally with the other statements conceptualized as comprising that factor. They conclude that the leadership behaviors can be conceptualized within the five practices.

Demographic Data

Included in the survey to the respondents were four questions collecting demographic data. This data was requested to establish the characteristics of the population and to help evaluate the relationship between organizational commitment and the individual characteristics of gender, age, organizational tenure, and education.

Data Collection Procedures

Data for this study was collected via a self-administered questionnaire at each of the organization's offices. A sealed box was provided for employees to drop their surveys into. The survey was prefaced with a cover letter describing the purpose of the survey, instructions for completion of the survey, a statement that the organization will not be provided with the individual surveys only a summary of the results, and thanking them for their participation. The instructions stated that the survey was being done with the approval of the CEO, participation is voluntary, and that anonymity is assured. Employees were instructed to seal the survey into the envelope provided and to drop it into the sealed box.

The participants were given one week to answer the survey before a reminder email was sent to the participants. Results of the survey will be summarized and provided to the CEO of each participating organization as compensation for participation.

Data Analysis

Several methods of data analysis were used to explore the research questions. Descriptive statistics, such as means, standard deviations, and percentages, were calculated to provide basic information about the scales used in the study. The survey questionnaires, three organizational commitment subscales and LPI, were tested for reliability using standardized alpha testing.

The research hypotheses testing the relationships between the forms of organizational commitment and the five leadership practices were tested using correlations analysis using product-moment correlation coefficients, also known as *Pearson r.* The levels of significance were set at p<.01 and .05.

Linear regression analysis was used to determine how much variability was explained by all five of the leadership behaviors.

Data analysis on the relationships between the gender demographic characteristic and the dependent variable organizational commitment used t-tests for independent samples. This technique is appropriate when dealing with characteristics represented by two groups. The affect of gender was tested using this technique. The demographic variables of age, organizational tenure, and educational level are measured on more than two levels. Therefore, these variables were measured using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with a 0.05 level of significance.

Data analysis was conducted using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 12.0 for Windows software.

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Assumptions

It is important for a study to state the assumptions under which it is operating. Assumptions help prevent misunderstandings between the researchers and the readers (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). As such, the following assumptions were made during this study:

1. It was assumed that the need for leadership skills will continue.

2. It was assumed that changes in the marketplace will not alter the interests of employees.

3. Respondents had some level of awareness about the leadership of their organization.

4. The number of employees in the participating organizations did not change significantly during the time of the study.

5. The Leadership Practices Inventory will continue to be highly successful and used in organizational environments.

6. Meyer and Allen's three component model of organizational commitment will continue to be highly regarded by researchers.

7. Respondents were voluntary and willing participants in completing the surveys provided.

8. Demographic variables used in this study (age, gender, organizational tenure, and education) are relevant in the study of organizational commitment.

9. Instruments used in this study are an appropriate measurement of personal attributes, perceptions of leadership, and organizational commitment.

10. Respondents that completed this study were truthful and answered the survey questions accurately, to the best of their ability.

11. The editing, coding, and categorization of raw data followed standard data preparation techniques.

Limitations

The following section lists the limitations under which the study was conducted.

1. This study only considered transformational leadership as defined by Kouzes and Posner.

2. The LPI did not measure all leadership practices, only the five recommended practices by Kouzes and Posner.

3. The inexperience of the researcher could have lead to a bias, or mistakes, being inadvertently associated with the data.

4. The Organizational Commitment Scales may not measure all organizational commitments an employee may have.

5. The survey data was limited to the employees of the two participating firms in Houston, TX and not to all employees in Houston or the United States.

6. The data collection phase was conducted during January and February of 2007. Every attempt was made to avoid traditionally busy times for the employees of the participating organizations.

7. As with other self-report instruments, the LPI and Commitment scales were subject to intentional deception.

8. Respondents may have misunderstand questions therefore providing inaccurate responses

9. Non-responses to questions or statements, or the failure of the respondent to complete demographic information may have produced errors.

Summary

This chapter addressed the research methods used to study the research questions. Included in this chapter were the research questions, research hypotheses, research design, variables, population, instrumentation, data collection procedures, data analysis techniques, assumptions and limitations.

CHAPTER 4. DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

This study sought to expand the research on the relationship between normative and continuance commitment with transformational leadership. It also used the previously untested combination of LPI and the Organizational Commitment Scales making a contribution to the understanding of these two scales. A three part questionnaire comprised of two pre-existing survey instruments, the LPI-Observer (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a) and the Organizational Commitment Scales (Meyer & Allen, 1991) and some demographic questions were used in this study. The relationship between all three forms of organization commitment and the five leadership practices defined by the LPI-Observer were examined.

The results in Chapter IV are presented in six parts. First, the response rate of the population is discussed. Second, in the descriptive statistics section, the frequencies of the demographic data are presented for each individual participating organization as well as the total population. In addition, histograms are provided showing the central tendencies of the three forms of organizational commitment and the five leadership practices. The third section discussed the internal consistency, reliability and scale statistics. For each of the survey instruments used, the Cronbach alpha measure, mean, variance, and standard deviation are given. In the fourth section, further scale analysis was performed on the LPI-Observer scale including correlational and factor analysis. The first three hypotheses are tested in the fifth section. The relationships between the three forms of organizational commitment and the five leadership practices are investigated using correlation analysis and linear regression. Finally, the final three hypotheses relating to the three forms of organizational commitment and the demographic characteristics are tested using t-tests and analysis of variance (ANOVA).

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Response Rate

Questionnaires were distributed to all 96 employees in Organization A and all 33 employees in Organization B. The total number of questionnaires distributed was 129. Sixty-Five employees from Organization A returned the questionnaire for a response rate of 67.7%. Twenty-four employees from Organization B returned the questionnaires for a response rate of 72.7%. The response rate for the total distributed was 69%.

Descriptive Statistics

Frequencies

The first part of the three-part questionnaire collected demographic data about the respondents. Each participant was asked to provide information regarding their gender, age group, organizational tenure, and educational level.

The first demographic variable evaluated was Gender; table 6 summarizes the gender of the respondents.

Table 6: Gender Frequency

		Organization A		Organization B		Total	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Valid	Male	40	61.5	20	83.3	60	67.4
	Female	24	36.9	4	16.7	28	31.5
	Total	64	98.5	24	100.0	88	98.9
Missing	Blank	1	1.5	0	0.0	1	1.1
Total		65	100.0	24	100.0	89	100.0

The majority of the respondents (67.4%) were male, 31.5% were female, and one respondent did not answer.

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The age groups of the respondents are shown in Table 7. For the purposes of this study, age was grouped into 5 categories: 18 – 24 Years, 25 – 34 years, 35 – 44 years, 45-54 years, and older than 55.

Table 7: Age Group Frequencies

		Organization A		Organization B		Total	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Valid	18 - 24 Years	6	9.2	1	4.2	7	7.9
	25 - 34 Years	9	13.8	11	45.8	20	22.5
	35 - 44 Years	27	41.5	10	41.7	37	41.6
	45 - 54 Years	13	20.0	2	8.3	15	16.9
	55 Years and older	7	10.8	0	0.0	7	7.9
	Total	62	95.4	24	100.0	86	96.6
Missing	Blank	3	4.6	0	0.0	3	3.4
Total		65	100.0	24	100.0	89	100.0

Organization A had the majority (41.5%) of the employees in the 35 – 44 years age group. However, Organization B's employees were primarily in the 25 – 34 years age group. Combining the employees of both organizations resulted in the majority of respondents being in the 35 – 44 years age group.

Another demographic variable evaluated was the organizational tenure of the respondents as shown in Table 8. Organizational tenure was grouped into 6 categories: 0 – 1 year, 1 – 4 years, 5 – 9 years, 10 – 14 years, 15 – 20 years, and more than 20 years.

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Table 8: Organizational Tenure Frequencies

		Organization A		Organization B		Total	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Valid	0 - 1 Year	19	29.2	6	25.0	25	28.1
	1 - 4 Years	17	26.2	12	50.0	29	32.6
	5 - 9 Years	20	30.8	4	16.7	24	27.0
	10 - 14 Years	1	1.5	2	8.3	3	3.4
	15 - 20 Years	4	6.2	0	0.0	4	4.5
	Over 20 Years	1	1.5	0	0.0	1	1.1
	Total	62	95.4	24	100.0	86	96.6
Missing	Blank	3	4.6	0	0.0	3	3.4
Total		65	100.0	24	100.0	89	100.0

Organization A has been in business longer than Organization B and it is reflected in the organizational tenure of its employees. Organization A had the majority of the employees with 5 – 9 years of tenure while the majority of employees in Organization B had worked there 1 – 4 years. This weighting caused the total to be weighted towards the three categories less than 10 years, 28.1 %, 32.6%, and 27.0%.

The educational level of the respondents is shown in Table 9.

Table 9: Highest Level of Education Completed Frequencies

		Organization A		Organization B		Total	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Valid	High School/GED	19	29.2	0	0.0	19	21.3
	Some College	33	50.8	3	12.5	36	40.4
	Associate Degree	5	7.7	0	0.0	5	5.6
	Bachelors Degree	7	10.8	9	37.5	16	18.0
	Graduate Degree	0	0.0	12	50.0	12	13.5
	Total	64	98.5	24	100.0	88	98.9
Missing	Blank	1	1.5	0	0.0	1	1.1
Total		65	100.0	24	100.0	89	100.0

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There were significant differences between the two organizations with respect to educational level. The majority of Organization A employees do not have a college degree (80%) while 87.5% of Organization B employees do have a degree, 50% of that total is for graduate degrees. No employees of Organization A have a graduate degree and only 10.8% have a Bachelors degree. Organization A is a much larger organization than Organization B and therefore the total has the majority of employees with some college (40.4%).

The respondents were also asked for their employment status, employee or contractor. All of the respondents were employees.

Due to the limited population size, the remaining statistical analyses are performed using the total population and not by individual organizations.

Histograms

Histograms provide a visual way to view the mean, standard deviation, and normal distribution curve to assess central tendencies. The histograms for the three forms of organizational commitment are found in figures 3 – 5.
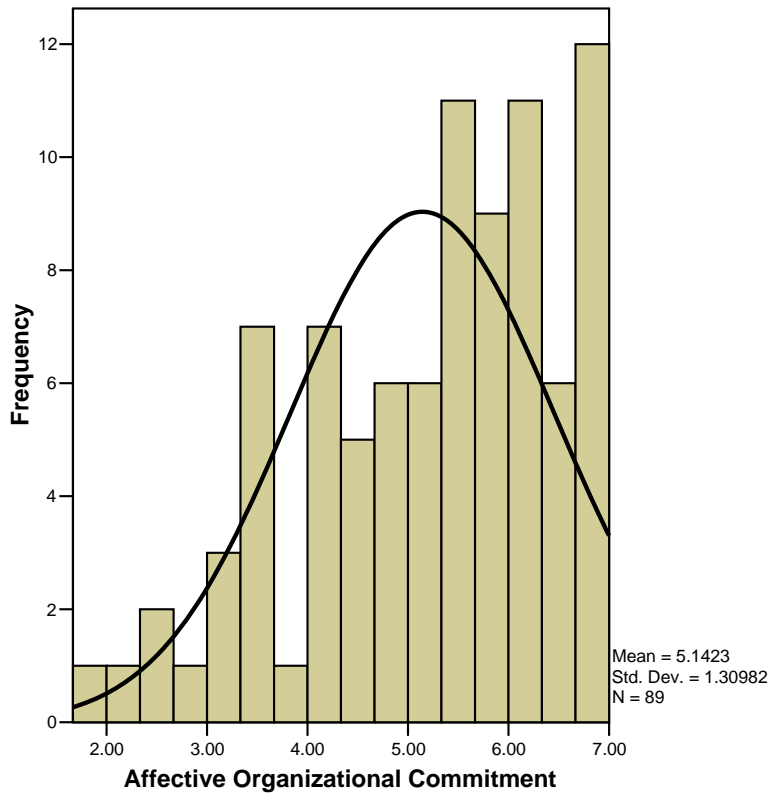
Figure 3: Affective Organizational Commitment: Histogram

The mean value for affective organization commitment was 5.1423 which meant that the

majority of the respondents felt a strong emotional attachment to, and involvement with, the

organization. The distribution curve illustrates that the answers were skewed towards the

positive.

68
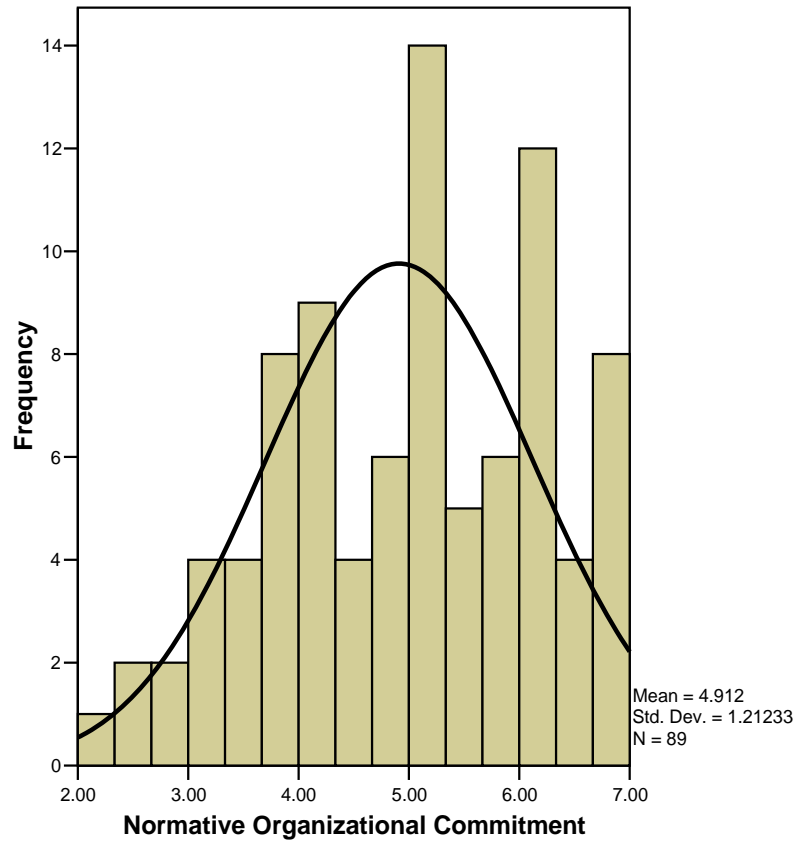
Figure 4: Normative Organizational Commitment: Histogram

The mean value for normative organizational commitment was 4.912. The distribution curve shows that the answers from the respondents were fairly equally weighted between the negative and positive answers. These results show that almost as many respondents did not feel an obligation to stay with the organization as those who felt that obligation.

69
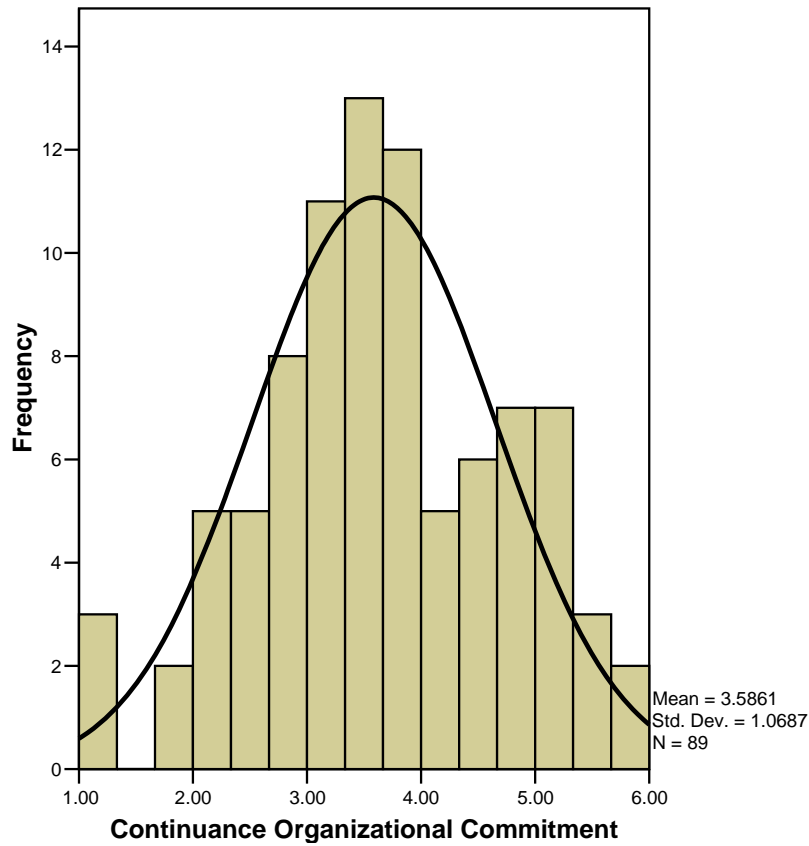
Figure 5: Continuance Organizational Commitment: Histogram

With a mean value of 3.5861 the majority of the respondents did not feel that they did not have

other alternatives for employment or that the costs of leaving were too great. The responses were

slightly skewed towards the negative.

The histograms for the five leadership practices were also evaluated. These histograms

are shown in figures 6 – 10.

70
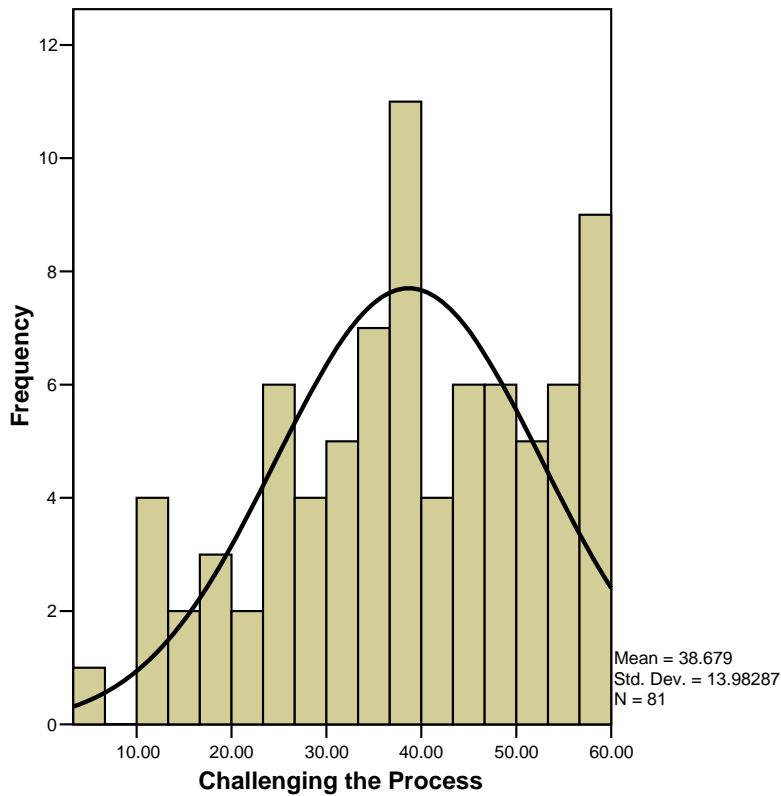
Figure 6: Challenging the Process: Histogram

The mean score for the leadership behavior of challenging the process is 38.679. This score is only slightly higher than the middle value in the range. This value reflects that slightly more respondents feel that the leaders challenge the status quo, search for opportunities to grow, innovate, and improve. Looking at the distribution curve further reflects this fact by it only being slightly skewed towards the positive.

71
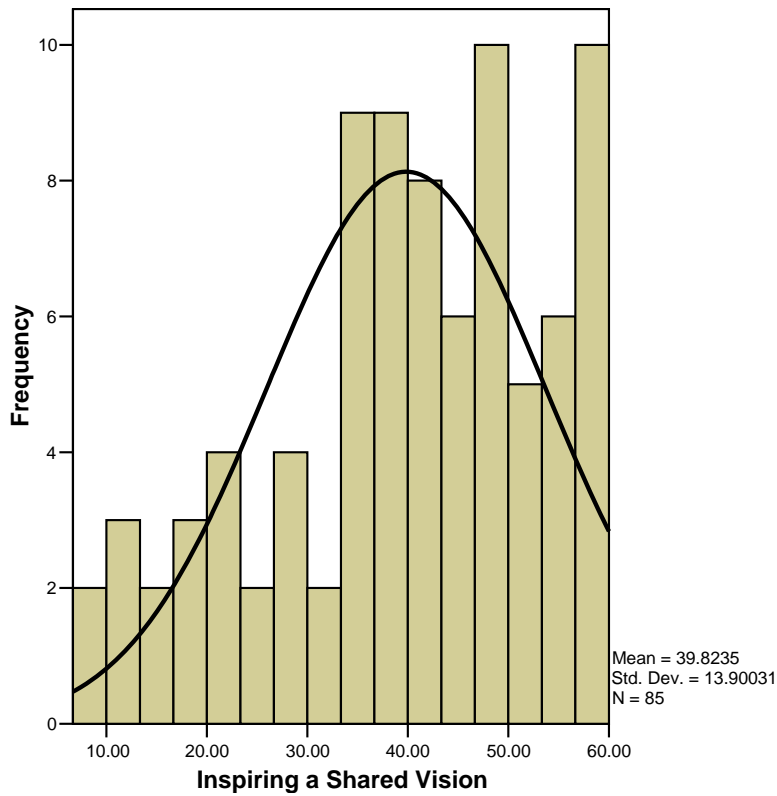
Figure 7: Inspiring a Shared Vision: Histogram

The distribution curve for inspiring a shared vision is slightly more positive than for challenging the process. The mean value is 39.8235 and reflects the fact that the majority of respondents felt that his supervisor had the ability to inspire him and communicate a shared vision.

72
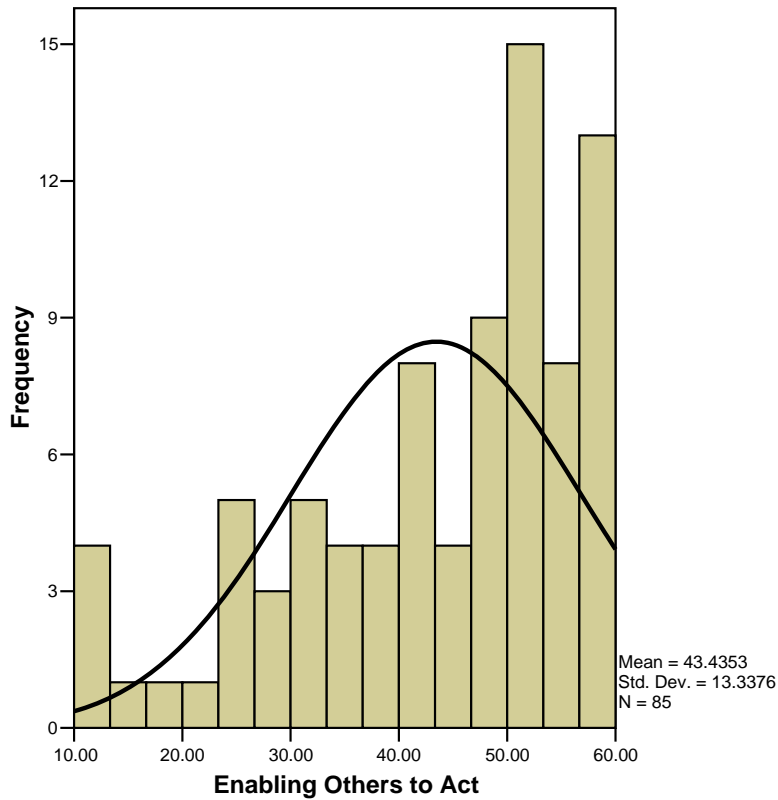
Figure 8: Enabling Others to Act: Histogram

The most positively skewed distribution of answers was for enabling others to act. The mean

score for the respondents was 43.4353 meaning that the majority of respondents felt empowered

in their jobs.

73
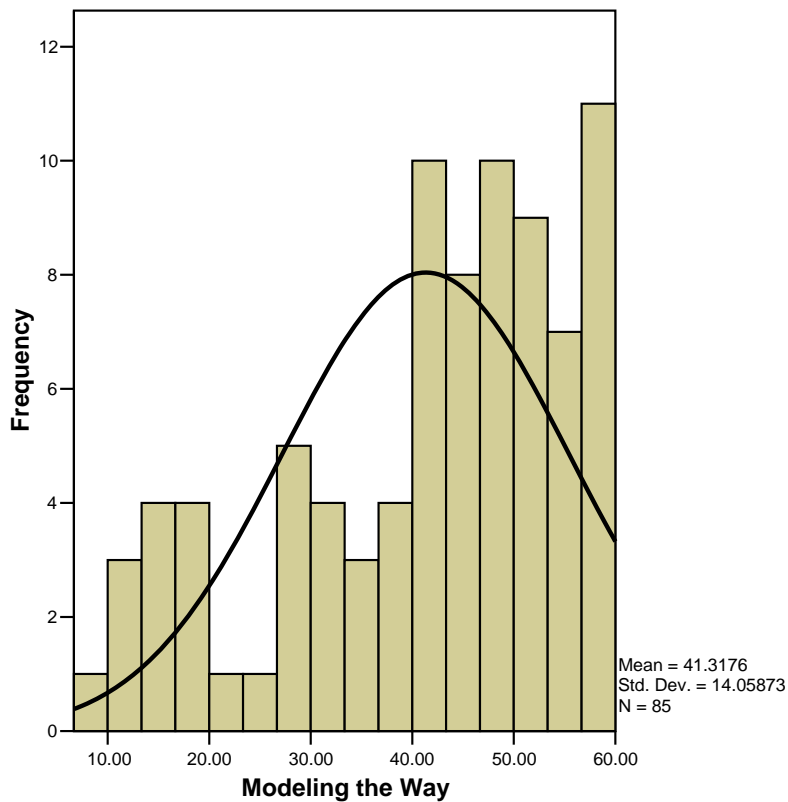
Figure 9: Modeling the Way: Histogram

Another positively skewed distribution curve for the respondents was for the modeling the way leadership practice. The mean score was 41.3176 which means that the respondents felt that their supervisor lead by example.

74
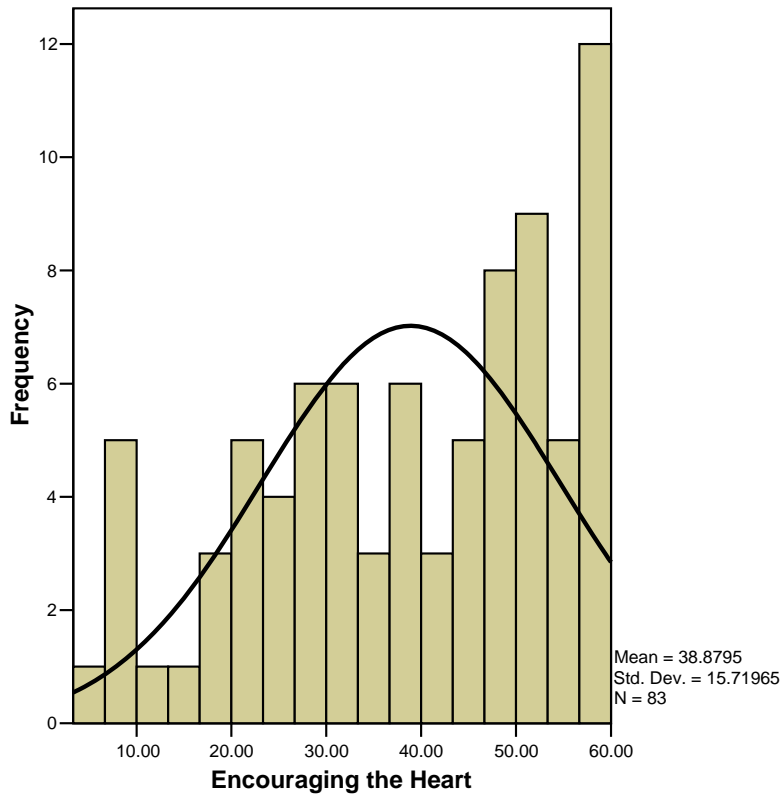
Figure 10: Encouraging the Heart: Histogram

The final leadership practice evaluated was encouraging the heart. The mean value for this practice was 38.8795. This mean reflects that only slightly more respondents felt that their supervisor encouraged their efforts than did not. The distribution curve is skewed slightly more to the positive due to the frequency of very positive answers by some of the respondents.

Internal Consistency Reliabilities and Scale Statistics

Reliability is the consistency with which an instrument yields the same result when the underlying variable being measured has not changed (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). Internal

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consistency reliabilities were evaluated using Cronbach's alpha for the five leadership practices constructs and the three organizational commitment constructs. Cicchetti (1994) suggested the following reliability (r) guidelines for clinical significance: $r < .70$ (unacceptable), $.70 \leq r < .80$ (fair), $.80 \leq r < .90$ (good), and $r \geq .90$ (excellent). Loo (2001) noted that internal consistency estimates are often considered to have a "generally accepted .80 cutoff value" (p. 223) for general research purposes. However, anything greater than .70 in general research studies is generally acceptable.

The primary independent variables in this study were the five leadership commitment practices defined by Kouzes and Posner (2002a): challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart. These practices were measured using the LPI – Observer Questionnaire which contains 30 descriptive statements about leadership practices. It uses a 10-point Likert scale with 1 = Almost Never and 10 = Almost Always. Six statements are provided for each of the five leadership practices. The participants in this study were instructed that they were to answer the questions about his or her immediate supervisor. The LPI values are summed to create the score for each leadership practice. Table 10 shows the internal reliability numbers and scale statistics calculated for the five leadership practices.

Table 10: LPI-O: Reliability and Scale Statistics

	Cronbach's Alpha	Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
Challenging	.914	38.68	195.521	13.983	6
Inspiring	.927	39.82	193.218	13.900	6
Enabling	.904	43.44	177.892	13.338	6
Modeling	.920	41.32	197.648	14.059	6
Encouraging	.956	38.88	247.107	15.720	6

As with previous studies, the reliability of the LPI-O instrument was confirmed. The calculated reliability for all five constructs was greater than .90 which is considered excellent. These values are comparable to those found by Kouzes and Posner (2002b) and in previous studies (Bell-Roundtree, 2004; Carless, 2001; Gunter, 1997; W. A. Lowe, 2000; Tourangeau & McGilton, 2004).

The dependent variables for this study were the three forms of organizational commitment as defined by Meyer and Allen (1991). These variables were measured on the Organizational Commitment Scales. These scales contain 18 items and is measured on a seven-point Likert scale with 1 = very strongly disagree and 7 = very strongly agree. Four items are phrased negatively and reverse scored. Employees responses to all of the items within a scale are averaged to yield an overall score for each of the three components of commitment. This is the recommended methodology for these scales so that the existence of missing data has less of an impact. Table 11 summarizes the internal reliability numbers and scale statistics calculated for the three forms of organizational commitment.

Table 11: Organizational Commitment Scales: Reliability and Scale Statistics

	Cronbach's Alpha	Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
Affective	.858	30.8571	63.570	7.97306	6
Continuance	.622	21.5802	43.572	6.60088	6
Normative	.789	29.3690	53.826	7.33662	6

The calculated reliability for affective and normative commitment was within the acceptable range and similar to the reliability values calculated in other studies (Culpepper, 2000; Hackett, Bycio, & Hausdorf, 1994; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993). The Continuance Commitment reliability value, however, was low. Using "Cronbach's Alpha if Item

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Deleted" tests, shown in Table 12, the reliability value increases to .687 if one of the six

questions for continuance commitment is removed.

Table 12: Continuance Commitment: Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
CC1	17.2346	33.382	.249	.100	.624
CC2	17.2716	29.575	.458	.393	.533
CC3	17.7160	30.481	.448	.290	.539
CC4	18.6914	31.566	.453	.325	.541
CC5	18.5062	41.028	.002	.106	.687
CC6	18.4815	29.228	.537	.420	.502

While Cronbach alpha is a very useful tool to investigate the reliability of the results, it is

important to remember that reliability is not a characteristic in the test itself, but in the

consistency of a set of items when administered to a particular population under particular

conditions for a specific purpose (Brown, 2002).

Further Analysis on the LPI-Observer Instrument

The reliability analysis on the LPI-Observer form resulted in calculated Cronbach alpha

numbers of greater than .90 for all five subscales. This value indicates that the scale is very

reliable. However, when all subscales score this high, it can be an indication that the subscales

are measuring the same underlying construct. Therefore, correlation analysis was performed

using the Pearson Correlation Coefficient (r). The results are shown in Table 13.

Table 13: Correlation Analysis on the LPI-Observer Instrument

	Challenging the process	Inspiring a shared vision	Enabling others to act	Modeling the way	Encouraging the heart
Challenging the process	1	.905(**)	.770(**)	.780(**)	.892(**)
Inspiring a shared vision	.905(**)	1	.811(**)	.818(**)	.897(**)
Enabling others to act	.770(**)	.811(**)	1	.901(**)	.856(**)
Modeling the way	.780(**)	.818(**)	.901(**)	1	.841(**)
Encouraging the heart	.892(**)	.897(**)	.856(**)	.841(**)	1

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

The correlation analysis showed that for this population, all of the leadership variables were highly correlated to each other. As one further analysis on the LPI-Observer, confirmatory factor analysis was performed to see the number of underlying constructs being measured. The results of the component matrix are shown in Table 14.

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Table 14: Rotated Component Matrix for the LPI-Observer

	Component		
	1	2	3
Challenge1			.813
Challenge2	.507		.709
Challenge3	.664		.523
Challenge4	.675		
Challenge5	.509		.564
Challenge6	.736		
Inspiring1			.772
Inspiring2	.417		.703
Inspiring3	.596	.353	.574
Inspiring4	.676	.453	.458
Inspiring5	.701		.376
Inspiring6	.703		.366
Enabling1		.695	.535
Enabling2		.604	
Enabling3	.377	.815	
Enabling4	.491	.653	
Enabling5	.434	.658	
Enabling6	.759		
Modeling1		.727	.531
Modeling2		.635	.376
Modeling3	.370	.777	
Modeling4	.569	.591	
Modeling5	.619	.612	
Modeling6	.768	.393	
Encourage1	.403	.382	.700
Encourage2	.629	.390	.476
Encourage3	.575	.527	.391
Encourage4	.813		
Encourage5	.802		
Encourage6	.653	.488	.438
Explained Variance	31.336%	22.855%	20.667%

Rotation converged in 11 iterations.
All loadings exceeding .35 are included in this table.

The matrix indicates that the five leadership practices are measuring three constructs, with

significant overlap. After rotation, the first factor explained 31.336% of the variance, the second

factor explained 15.59% and the third, 20.667%, with a total of 74.858% of the variance

explained by these three factors.

Organizational Commitment and the Five Leadership Behaviors

Affective Organizational Commitment

Hypothesis 1 proposed that affective organizational commitment had a significant

relationship with the five perceived leadership practices.

H_{01} There is no significant relationship between employee affective organizational commitment and the employees' perceptions of the supervisors' leadership practices of modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart.

H_{01a} There is a significant relationship between employee affective organizational commitment and the employees' perceptions of the supervisors' leadership practices of modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart.

The rejection criteria set for each null hypothesis was $\alpha = 0.01$. Correlation analysis was

performed using the Pearson Correlation Coefficient (r). Table 15 shows the correlations

between the variables.

Table 15: Affective Commitment: Correlation Analysis

	Challenging	Inspiring	Enabling	Modeling	Encouraging	Continuance OC	Normative OC
Affective Organizational Commitment	.675(**)	.652(**)	.618(**)	.610(**)	.724(**)	-.032	.707(**)

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

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Affective organizational commitment is positively and statistically significantly correlated with all five leadership practices. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is accepted.

The correlation analysis also indicated a significant and high inter-correlation between affective and normative commitment (r=.707, p<.01). This correlation indicates that both constructs share similar underlying components which make it questionable as to whether they are distinct. This finding has been seen other studies (e.g., Chuo, 2003; van Dijk, 2004).

Simple linear regression analysis was used to further understand the relationship between affective organizational commitment and the five leadership behaviors. The results are presented in Table 16.

Table 16: Affective Organizational Commitment Regression Results

Model Summary				
R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	
.724	.525	.492	.91995	

ANOVA					
	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Regression	68.206	5	13.641	16.118	.000
Residual	61.781	73	.846		
Total	129.987	78			

Coefficients							
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	2.713	.386		7.029	.000		
Challenging	.012	.019	.130	.625	.534	.151	6.626
Inspiring	-.007	.020	-.070	-.329	.743	.144	6.968
Enabling	.013	.019	.138	.692	.491	.163	6.138
Modeling	-.009	.018	-.096	-.497	.621	.176	5.678
Encouraging	.052	.019	.630	2.736	.008	.123	8.134

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The coefficient of determination (R^2) tells us that approximately 49.2% of the variance in affective organizational commitment is accounted for by the model. The F-test is statistically significant, which means that the model is statistically significant. However, the model is unable to determine to what degree each leadership practice affected the variance in affective organizational commitment. We can see this by the collinearity statistics values. VIF is the Variance inflation factor, which is the reciprocal of tolerance. When the VIF value is high it indicates that there is high multicollinearity and instability of the B and beta coefficients. Standard error is doubled when VIF is 4.0 and the tolerance is .25. Therefore, a VIF value greater than or equal to 4 is a common cut-off criterion for deciding when a given independent variable displays too much multicollinearity (Garson, 2007). All five of the leadership practices show a VIF value greater than 4.

Normative Organizational Commitment

Hypothesis 2 proposed that normative organizational commitment had a significant relationship with the five perceived leadership practices.

H_{02} There is no significant relationship between employee normative organizational commitment and the employees' perceptions of the supervisors' leadership practices of modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart.

H_{02a} There is a significant relationship between employee normative organizational commitment and the employees' perceptions of the supervisors' leadership practices of modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart.

Table 17 shows the correlations between the variables.

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Table 17: Normative Commitment: Correlation Analysis

	Challenging	Inspiring	Enabling	Modeling	Encouraging	Affective OC	Continuance OC
Normative Organizational Commitment	.529(**)	.490(**)	.473(**)	.476(**)	.544(**)	.707(**)	.132

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

Normative organizational commitment is positively and statistically significantly correlated with all five leadership practices. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is accepted. As noted with affective organizational commitment, there is also a significant correlation between affective organizational commitment and normative organizational commitment.

Linear regression was also run to further understand the relationship between normative organizational commitment and the five leadership behaviors. The results are shown in Table 18.

Table 18: Normative Organizational Commitment Regression Results

		Model Summary		
R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
.550	.302	.254	1.04103

			ANOVA		
	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Regression	34.268	5	6.854	6.324	.000
Residual	79.113	73	1.084		
Total	113.381	78			

			Coefficients				
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	3.143	.437		7.194	.000		
Challenging	.035	.022	.400	1.590	.116	.151	6.626
Inspiring	-.024	.023	-.262	-1.016	.313	.144	6.968
Enabling	.013	.022	.148	.610	.544	.163	6.138
Modeling	-.004	.021	-.047	-.201	.841	.176	5.678
Encouraging	.024	.022	.315	1.129	.263	.123	8.134

The coefficient of determination (R^2) tells us that approximately 25.4% of the variance in normative organizational commitment is accounted for by the model. The F-test is statistically significant. As with affective organizational commitment, all five of the leadership practices show collinearity issues with VIF values greater than 4.

Continuance Organizational Commitment

Hypothesis 3 proposed that continuance organizational commitment had a significant relationship with the five perceived leadership practices.

H_{03} There is no significant relationship between employee continuance organizational commitment and the employees' perceptions of the supervisors' leadership practices of

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modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart.

H$_{03a}$ There is a significant relationship between employee continuance organizational commitment and the employees' perceptions of the supervisors' leadership practices of modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart.

Table 19 shows the correlations between the variables

Table 19: Continuance Commitment: Correlation Analysis

	Challenging	Inspiring	Enabling	Modeling	Encouraging	Affective OC	Normative OC
Continuance Organizational Commitment	-.059	-.002	-.060	-.011	-.071	-.032	.132

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

Continuance organizational commitment was not found to be significantly correlated to any of the five leadership practices nor the other two commitment constructs. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted and the alternative hypothesis was rejected. As the relationship between the continuance form of organizational commitment and the five leadership practices was not found to be statistically signification, linear regression analysis was not performed.

It is important to note that the results of the continuance correlation analysis should be viewed with caution as the continuance organizational commitment scale did not meet the established criteria for internal consistency.

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Demographic Analysis

The final three hypotheses focused on the relationships between the three forms of commitment and the demographic information collected.

Gender

Data analysis on the relationships between the gender demographic characteristic and the dependent variable organizational commitment used t-tests for independent samples. This technique is appropriate when dealing with characteristics represented by two groups. Table 20 summarizes the differences between genders.

Table 20: Organizational Commitment and Gender

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
						F	Sig	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
affective organizational commitment	Male	60	5.2778	1.17317	.15146	2.803	.098	1.486	86	.141
	Female	28	4.8333	1.56018	.29485					
continuance organizational commitment	Male	60	3.5028	1.10703	.14292	.346	.558	-1.104	86	.273
	Female	28	3.7738	.99506	.18805					
normative organizational commitment	Male	60	5.0056	1.23354	.15925	.733	.394	1.110	86	.270
	Female	28	4.6964	1.17943	.22289					

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances tests the t-tests homogeneity of variance assumption. Because the F values are not large and the significance values are all greater than .05, the population is considered to be homogenous and equal variances are assumed when performing the t-test. As in most statistical tests, the basic criterion for statistical significance is a "2-tailed

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significance" which is less than .05. The results of the t-tests for all three forms of commitment result in significance values greater than .05 which means that there is no statistically significant relationship between any of the three forms of organizational commitment and gender.

Age

The relationship between the three forms of commitment and age was investigated using one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) because these variables are measured on more than two levels. Table 21 shows the results of the analysis between affective organizational commitment and age.

Table 21: Affective Organizational Commitment and Age

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	
18 - 24 Years	7	5.0000	.95743	.36187	
25 - 34 Years	20	4.7917	1.29425	.28940	
35 - 44 Years	37	5.3919	1.13666	.18687	
45 - 54 Years	15	4.7778	1.88211	.48596	
55 Years and older	7	5.5476	1.21226	.45819	
Total	86	5.1260	1.32964	.14338	
ANOVA	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	8.026	4	2.006	1.143	.343
Within Groups	142.248	81	1.756		
Total	150.274	85			

There are small differences in the means between the age groups; however, the ANOVA results show that these differences are not significant.

The differences were also not significant for either normative or continuance commitment. The results of those analyses are shown in Table 22 and Table 23.

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Table 22: Normative Organizational Commitment and Age

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
18 - 24 Years	7	4.6905	1.51971	.57440
25 - 34 Years	20	4.7583	.97404	.21780
35 - 44 Years	37	5.3288	1.06754	.17550
45 - 54 Years	15	4.6000	1.25325	.32359
55 Years and older	7	4.4286	1.71015	.64637
Total	86	4.9438	1.20147	.12956

ANOVA	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	10.254	4	2.563	1.847	.128
Within Groups	112.447	81	1.388		
Total	122.701	85			

Table 23: Continuance Organizational Commitment and Age

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
18 - 24 Years	7	3.5476	1.51142	.57126
25 - 34 Years	20	3.5917	1.12582	.25174
35 - 44 Years	37	3.6712	.96344	.15839
45 - 54 Years	15	3.8444	1.07176	.27673
55 Years and older	7	2.8095	1.03829	.39244
Total	86	3.6027	1.08048	.11651

ANOVA	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	5.478	4	1.369	1.183	.324
Within Groups	93.754	81	1.157		
Total	99.232	85			

Educational Level

As with age group, none of the three forms of organizational commitment were found to be significantly related to educational level. Tables 24 – 26 show the results.

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Table 24: Affective Organizational Commitment and Educational Level

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
High School/GED	19	5.3596	1.33479	.30622
Some College	36	4.9954	1.17951	.19659
Associate Degree	5	5.6000	1.32077	.59067
Bachelors Degree	16	4.7083	1.51474	.37869
Graduate Degree	12	5.5833	1.36423	.39382
Total	88	5.1364	1.31611	.14030

ANOVA	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	8.066	3	2.017	1.174	.328
Within Groups	142.631	84	1.718		
Total	150.697	87			

Table 25: Normative Organizational Commitment and Educational Level

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
High School/GED	19	5.1053	1.34510	.30859
Some College	36	4.6574	1.17104	.19517
Associate Degree	5	5.7333	1.00416	.44907
Bachelors Degree	16	4.7396	1.12212	.28053
Graduate Degree	12	5.2222	1.26598	.36546
Total	88	4.9072	1.21843	.12989

ANOVA	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	8.044	4	2.011	1.378	.249
Within Groups	121.114	83	1.459		
Total	129.159	87			

Table 26: Continuance Organizational Commitment and Educational Level

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
High School/GED	19	3.9825	.86940	.19945
Some College	36	3.5556	1.13249	.18875
Associate Degree	5	3.5667	1.05804	.47317
Bachelors Degree	16	3.5313	1.23711	.30928
Graduate Degree	12	3.1528	.91414	.26389
Total	88	3.5890	1.07448	.11454

ANOVA	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	5.321	4	1.330	1.161	.334
Within Groups	95.121	83	1.146		
Total	100.442	87			

Organizational Tenure

The relationship between the three forms of commitment and organizational tenure was also investigated using ANOVA. Due to the small number or responses in the 15 – 20 years and the over 20 years groups those were combined into the 10 – 14 year group to make a 10 years or greater group. Table 27 shows the results for affective organizational commitment.

Table 27: Affective Organizational Commitment and Organizational Tenure

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	
0 - 1 Year	25	5.4067	1.07268	.21454	
1 - 4 Years	29	4.6264	1.44314	.26798	
5 - 9 Years	24	5.0903	1.33331	.27216	
10 or greater	8	6.3333	.56344	.19920	
Total	86	5.1415	1.32806	.14321	
ANOVA	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	20.878	3	6.959	4.422	.006
Within Groups	129.040	82	1.574		
Total	149.918	85			

The F-test with a significance value of .006 shows that there is a significant difference somewhere between the groups. The results of post-hoc tests using the Least Significant Difference (LSD) method in Table 28 show between which specific groups.

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Table 28: Post-Hoc Tests between Affective Organizational Commitment and Organizational Tenure

(I) Years of Employment	(J) Years of Employment	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
0 - 1 Year	1 - 4 Years	.78023(*)	.34236	.025
	5 - 9 Years	.31639	.35849	.380
	10 or Greater	-.92667	.50956	.073
1 - 4 Years	0 - 1 Year	-.78023(*)	.34236	.025
	5 - 9 Years	-.46384	.34617	.184
	10 or Greater	-1.70690(*)	.50097	.001
5 - 9 Years	0 - 1 Year	-.31639	.35849	.380
	1 - 4 Years	.46384	.34617	.184
	10 or Greater	-1.24306(*)	.51213	.017
10 or Greater	0 - 1 Year	.92667	.50956	.073
	1 - 4 Years	1.70690(*)	.50097	.001
	5 - 9 Years	1.24306(*)	.51213	.017

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

There are significant differences between the first year of employment and the 1 – 4 years group. There are also significant differences between the 10 or Greater years of organizational tenure and the 1 – 4 years group and the 5 – 9 years group.

Organizational tenure was also evaluated against normative and continuance organizational commitment. The results in Tables 29 and 30 show no significant relationships.

Table 29: Normative Organizational Commitment and Organizational Tenure

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	
0 - 1 Year	25	5.0667	1.11907	.22381	
1 - 4 Years	29	4.7241	1.22254	.22702	
5 - 9 Years	24	4.8333	1.32789	.27105	
10 or Greater	8	5.5833	.88641	.31339	
Total	86	4.9341	1.20437	.12987	
ANOVA	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	5.334	3	1.778	1.236	.302
Within Groups	117.960	82	1.439		
Total	123.293	85			

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Table 30: Continuance Organizational Commitment and Organizational Tenure

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	
0 - 1 Year	25	3.2867	1.09134	.21827	
1 - 4 Years	29	3.8161	1.04116	.19334	
5 - 9 Years	24	3.7222	1.05027	.21438	
10 or Greater	8	3.5000	1.18523	.41904	
Total	86	3.6066	1.07585	.11601	
ANOVA	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	4.243	3	1.414	1.232	.303
Within Groups	94.141	82	1.148		
Total	98.384	85			

Summary

This chapter began with the response rate of the population. The population was comprised of two organizations located in Houston, TX and had a 69% response rate. Next, the frequencies of the demographic data are presented for each individual participating organization as well as the total population. The majority of the respondents was male, was between the age of 35 and 44, had some college, and had been employed by the current organization for 9 years or less. Histograms were used to show mean, standard deviation, and the distribution curve so that the central tendencies could be assessed.

The third section discussed the internal consistency reliability and scale statistics. For each of the survey instruments used, the Cronbach alpha measure, mean, variance, and standard deviation is given. The five leadership subscales of the LPI-Observer were all found to have reliabilities greater than .90. The reliability values found for affective and normative organizational commitment were found to be acceptable and similar to other studies. However, the calculated reliability value for continuance commitment was low, .622.

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Due to the high cronbach alpha values for the LPI-Observer scale further analysis was performed including correlational and factor analysis. The results showed that the five leadership practices were highly correlated with each other. Factor analysis showed that the scales were measuring three factors and that there was significant overlap.

The first three hypotheses are tested in the fifth section using correlation analysis and linear regression. Both affective and normative organizational commitment was positively and statistically significantly correlated with all five leadership practices. However, due to the multicollinearity between the leadership practices, the degree to which each leadership practice affected the variance in either affective or normative organizational commitment could not be determined. There was no statistically significant relationship found between continuance organizational commitment and the five leadership practices.

Finally, the final three hypotheses relating to the three forms of organizational commitment and the demographic characteristics were tested using t-tests and analysis of variance (ANOVA). The three forms of commitment were not found to be statistically significantly related to gender, age, or educational level. There was a statistically significant relationship found between affective organizational commitment and organizational tenure. Post-hoc tests were ran to show between which organizational tenure groups the significance lied. Neither normative nor continuance organizational commitment was found to be significantly related to organizational tenure.

A summary of all findings for the research hypotheses are presented in Table 31.

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Table 31: Summary of the Hypotheses Tested

Hypothesis 01a:	Affective organizational commitment is positively related to:
Supported	modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart.
Hypothesis 02a:	Normative organizational commitment is positively related to:
Supported	modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart.
Hypothesis 03a:	Continuance organizational commitment is positively related to:
Not Supported	modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart.
Hypothesis 04a:	Affective organizational commitment is positively related to:
Not Supported	Gender
Not Supported	Age
Not Supported	Educational Level
Supported	Organizational Tenure
Hypothesis 05a:	Normative organizational commitment is positively related to:
Not Supported	Gender
Not Supported	Age
Not Supported	Educational Level
Not Supported	Organizational Tenure
Hypothesis 06a:	Continuance organizational commitment is positively related to:
Not Supported	Gender
Not Supported	Age
Not Supported	Educational Level
Not Supported	Organizational Tenure

CHAPTER 5. DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS

A competitive advantage can be gained for organizations through human resources. There has been considerable interest in the study of organizational commitment, primarily because of relationships between it and various measures of organizational efficiency and effectiveness (Beck & Wilson, 2000). The value of the organizational commitment concept to the study of work attitudes and behavior can be seen by the quantity, diversity, and findings in the various studies performed (McCann, Langford, & Rawlings, 2006). The purpose of this study was to examine whether organizational commitment, in all three forms, was influenced by leadership.

To answer the research questions posed in this study, a self-administered questionnaire to collect the employee attitude and demographic data was distributed to all Houston based employees of two firms. The first organization was a petroleum products redistribution and services company. The second organization was a hedge-fund trading firm. The survey instrument contained three components: demographic data, the Organizational Commitment Scales developed by Meyer and Allen (1991), and the Leadership Practices Inventory – Observer questionnaire published by Kouzes and Posner (2002a). A total of 89 employees participated in this study for a response rate of 69%.

This purpose of this final chapter is to discuss the results, conclusions, and limitations of this study as well as relate these findings to existing knowledge of organizational commitment. This chapter is presented in three sections. The first section presents the findings for each of the research questions with relevant discussion about observed relationships. Next, the limitations of the current study are discussed. Finally, recommendations for future research are given.

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Summary of Research Question Findings

There were three primary research questions investigated in this study. These research questions led to the hypotheses tested and summarized in Chapter 4. The discussions of the research findings, as they pertain to the research questions, are included in this section.

Research Question One

The first research question in this study was, is there a statistically significant relationship between employees' perception of leadership and their continuance organizational commitment?

This study was the first study to examine continuance organizational commitment with the five transformational leadership behaviors measured by the LPI-Observer. There have been, however, two previous studies that examined continuance organizational commitment with other transformational leadership behaviors. Bycio, Hackett, and Allen (1995) expected to see a statistically significant relationship between continuance organizational commitment and contingent reward. However, their study found no relationship between continuance organizational commitment and this or any of the other leadership traits measured.

Viator (2001) used a modified version of the Continuance Organizational Scale that separated out continuance organizational commitment into high sacrifice and low alternative forms. His study found a negative association between transformational leadership and low alternatives continuance commitment.

The anticipated relationship between continuance organizational commitment and the five leadership practices was not observed in this study. One possible explanation for this discrepancy may be due to the specific nature of the continuance organizational commitment

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scale item content. As noted by other researchers (e.g., Bycio, Hackett, & Allen, 1995; Hackett, Bycio, & Hausdorf, 1994; McGee & Ford, 1987) the continuance organizational commitment scale contains items that reflect both the accumulated benefits that would be lost by leaving and one's perception of the number of other employment options that exist. Perhaps the comingling of these two dimensions put restrictions on the magnitude of the relationship between the leadership practices and continuance organizational commitment.

A second possible explanation for the lack of an observed statistically significant relationship between these two variables could be caused because the continuance organizational commitment scale did not meet the established criteria for internal consistency.

Research Question Two

The second research question studied was, is there a statistically significant relationship between employees' perception of leadership and their normative organizational commitment? One previous study had evaluated the relationship between normative organizational commitment and the perception of leadership. Bycio, Hackett, and Allen (1995) conducted a study on nurses and found a small, but significant, positive correlation between normative organizational commitment and transformational leadership.

The predicted relationship between normative organizational commitment and transformational leadership was found in this study. Transformational leaders typically hold a sense of moral obligation to the organization as an end value and are effective at communicating this obligation. Therefore, the relationship involving normative organizational commitment and transformational leadership reflects the influence of the feelings of obligation and loyalty.

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Research Question Three

The final research question investigated in this study was, is there a statistically significant relationship between employees' personal characteristics and their organizational commitment? In previous studies, the relationships between the three forms of organizational commitment and demographic characteristics have been mixed. This study measured four of these characteristics: Gender, age, educational level, and organizational tenure.

Colbert and Kwon (2000), Elizur and Koslowky (2001), and a meta-analysis by Mathieu and Zajac (1990) all found that gender was a significant predictor of organizational commitment. Wahn (1998) used a sample of both male and female human resource professionals to study gender differences in the continuance component of organizational commitment and found only a small to moderate effect of women being more committed than men. The findings above are in contrast to a meta-analysis by Aven, Parker, and McEvoy (1993) that used data from 27 independent samples found no relationship between gender and attitudinal commitment. That finding is supported by Turner and Chelladurai (2005) and Peterson (2003). This study also found no relationship between the respondents' gender and organizational commitment.

Age was another demographic characteristic investigated that had received mixed results in prior studies. A meta-analysis by Mathieu and Zajac (1990) found that age was positively related to organizational commitment. However, other studies have found weak (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002) or no (Cohen, 1992; Peterson, 2003; Wahn, 1998) relationship between age and organizational commitment. This study also found no relationship between age and organizational commitment.

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An individual's level of education has also been found to be related to organizational commitment. Steers (1977) found that the level of education was negatively related to organizational commitment. The meta-analysis by Mathieu and Zajac (1990) confirmed that finding and found that the relationship was significantly stronger for affective commitment as compared to continuance commitment. Wahn (1998) found a negative relationship between level of education and continuance commitment in her study of human resource professionals. In contrast to these earlier findings, this study found no relationship between educational level and organizational level. The expected relationship may not have occurred due to the small population in this study and the fact that the majority of respondents had little or no college education. Perhaps a larger population with more evenly distributed educational levels would have supported the findings in previous studies.

Organizational tenure is another antecedent of organizational commitment that has received mixed results in studies. It has been found to have a statistically significant positive relationship with organizational commitment (Colbert & Kwon, 2000; Curry, Wakefield, Price, & Mueller, 1986; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), weak relationships (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002) or no significant relationship (Brewer, 1996). This study found a positive, significant, relationship between organizational tenure and affective organizational commitment. The respondents that had been employed for less than 1 year or more than 10 years had the highest affective organizational commitment levels. There was no relationship found between organizational tenure and either normative or continuance organizational commitment.

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Limitations

There were several limitations to this study that may have influenced the results and should be considered. The first limitation, and one of the most important, has to do with the population used in this study. The population was comprised of employees from two firms within Houston, TX. Both of these firms have a small number of employees which limits the generalizability of the findings to larger populations. In addition, because of the small size of the population a very high response rate was needed to generalize the findings for the organizations involved in the study. Using the equation for sample size for proportions and applying a finite population correction for the population of 129 calculates a necessary sample of 97 participants with a 95% confidence level. The number of responses received was 89 which were slightly less than the number needed for the desired confidence level. However, only 88 responses were needed for a 90% confidence level. Therefore, the results from this study can only be generalized to the participating populations with a 90% confidence level.

The multicollinearity between the five leadership practices observed in this study was another limitation to this study. The multicollinearity precluded any analysis as to which leadership practices had the most effect on the three forms of organizational commitment. Without this analysis it is not possible to determine which practice, if improved by an organization, would result in the largest impact on the organizational commitment of its employees. This multicollinearity was not consistent with the findings of Kouzes and Posner (2000). However, it has been observed in at least one other study (Stonestreet, 2002). One possibility for this multicollinearity could be caused by a halo effect resulting from the high level of leadership perceived. The respondents who had a very strong positive perception of their

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leader may not have discriminated effectively between the five dimensions of leadership practices.

The Continuance Commitment reliability value calculated in this study was low as compared to other studies using the Organizational Commitment Scales. Reliability is not a characteristic in the test itself, but in the consistency of a set of items when administered to a particular population under particular conditions for a specific purpose (Brown, 2002). The effect of this limitation to the study is unknown. The results may or may not have changed if the reliability value had met the established criteria. Results computed using this scale must be viewed with caution because the respondents were not consistent in their responses.

The cross-sectional design of this study is also a limitation. Attitudes and circumstances can vary over time. A longitudinal study would beneficial in predicting the impact on organizational commitment that results from other factors, such as leadership training or business cycles. A longitudinal study would allow for these trends to be observed and the impact more accurately assessed.

Recommendations

This study generated several areas of interest that could benefit from further study. This study was the first study to examine the three forms of organizational commitment with the five transformational leadership behaviors measured by the LPI-Observer. There were a few limitations on this study related to the small population. It would be very beneficial for this study to be replicated in a larger population.

The population used in this study was also very ethnically diverse. However, because of the small population and fear of the respondent's as to confidentiality, the impact of ethnic diversity on the relationships could not be investigated. A larger population would allow for these ethnic differences to be investigated.

As noted in the summary of the research findings for question one, the continuance organizational commitment scale contains items that reflect both the accumulated benefits that would be lost by leaving and one's perception of the number of other employment options that exist. The study of continuance organizational commitment with regards to these five leadership practices would benefit by separating the continuance commitment scale into the sub-scales of low alternatives and high costs as recommended by other organizational commitment researchers (Carson & Carson, 2002; McGee & Ford, 1987).

A more educationally diverse population would also add to the findings from this study. The population in this study had primarily little to no college education. A more educationally diverse population would allow for research as to whether more educated individuals have higher expectations for management's leadership practices. The findings for organizational commitment and educational level have been mixed. A more educationally diverse population would allow for further clarification in this area.

There was a statistically significant correlation between affective organizational commitment and normative organizational commitment. Further research on the psychometric properties of the Organizational Commitment Scales needs to be undertaken. The items in these sub-scales need to be reworded in order for the differences between these two sub-scales to be clearer.

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Another area that could benefit from further research is investigating leadership effectiveness. It may be useful to compare the organizational commitment scores between leaders rated as effective and non-effective relative to how frequently they practice the five leadership practices.

This study only used one source, employees, and one method, surveys, to address the research questions. The limitation due to the single-source, single method approach could be overcome by performing a study that includes follow-up interviews with the respondents, non-respondents, and key stakeholders in the organization to ensure accuracy.

Conclusion

This dissertation was organized into five chapters. The first chapter contained an introduction to the study including its problem statement, background, purpose, significance, research questions, and definition of key terms, nature, assumptions, and limitations. Chapter 2 provided a review of the relevant literature organized by major topics. The research methodology selected for this study was presented in Chapter 3. Chapter 4 provided the data collection and analysis of the study while this chapter gave the results, conclusions, and suggested areas for further research.

The overall conclusion of this research is that the five leadership practices has been observed to be correlated with both affective and normative commitment attitudes among the employees of the two organizations in this study when practiced by managers. These results suggest that managers who practice these five leadership practices will most likely experience higher trends for both affective and normative organizational commitment. Managing employee

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organizational commitment is important because it has been linked to reduced turnover (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), increased knowledge sharing (Alvesson, 2001), increased organizational citizenship behaviors (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002), and reduced absenteeism (Eby, Freeman, Rush, & Lance, 1999).

The management practice of using the five leadership behaviors was more correlated with affective organizational commitment than to normative organizational commitment. This result suggests that the use of these five transformational leadership behaviors is effective at generating a strong emotional attachment between the employee and the organization without causing the employee to feel an obligation to the organization. This distinction is important because affective organizational commitment shows the strongest correlations with desired employee behaviors (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

The positive correlation between affective and normative organizational commitment with the five leadership practices has provided validation of Kouzes and Posner's five leadership practices theory (2002a) in an environment comprised of petrochemical redistributors and hedge fund employees in Houston, TX. The research findings in this study showed that the quality of leadership practices within an organization had an effect on the organizational commitment of employees.

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APPENDIX A. SURVEY

Part I: Demographic Questions

Please respond to the following demographic questions. Responses are strictly confidential.

1. Employment Status:
   ____ Employee
   ____ Contractor

2. Gender:
   ____ Male
   ____ Female

3. Years of Employment with this Company:
   ____ 0 – 1 year
   ____ 1 – 4 years
   ____ 5 – 9 years
   ____ 10 – 14 years
   ____ 15 – 20 years
   ____ Over 20 years

4. Age Group:
   ____ 18 – 24 years
   ____ 25 – 34 years
   ____ 35 – 44 years
   ____ 45 – 54 years
   ____ 55 years and older

5. Highest Education Level Completed:
   ____ High School/GED
   ____ Some College
   ____ Associates Degree
   ____ Bachelors Degree
   ____ Graduate Degree

Part II: Leadership Practices Inventory The following 30 statements are about the leadership behavior of your supervisor. Please read each statement carefully and use the rating scale at the right to indicate how frequently they engage in this behavior. Do not answer in terms of how you wish this person would behavior, but rather how the supervisor typically behaves on most days, on most projects, and with most people. Typically, my supervisor:	Almost Never	Rarely	Seldom	Once in a While	Occasionally	Sometimes	Fairly Often	Usually	Frequently	Almost Always
1. Seeks out challenging opportunities that test his or her own skills and abilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
2. Talks about future trends that will influence how our work gets done.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
3. Develops cooperative relationships among the people with whom he or she works.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
4. Sets a personal example of what he or she expects from others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
5. Praises people for a job well done.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
6. Challenges people to try out new and innovative approaches to their work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
7. Describes a compelling image of what our future could be like.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
8. Actively listens to diverse points of view.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
9. Spends time and energy on making certain that the people he or she works with adhere to the principals and standards that have been agreed upon.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
10. Makes a point to let people know about his or her confidence in their abilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
11. Searches outside the formal boundaries of his or her organization for innovative ways to improve the way work is done.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
12. Appeals to others to share an exciting dream of the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
13. Treats others with dignity and respect.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
14. Follows through on the promises and commitments that he or she makes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
15. Makes sure that people are creatively rewarded for their contributions to the success of the projects.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

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Part II: Continued Typically, my supervisor:	Almost Never	Rarely	Seldom	Once in a While	Occasionally	Sometimes	Fairly Often	Usually	Frequently	Almost Always
16. Asks "What can we learn?" when things do not go as expected.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
17. Shows others how their long-term interests can be realized by enlisting support in a common vision.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
18. Supports the decisions that people make on their own.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
19. Is clear about his or her philosophy of leadership.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
20. Publicly recognizes people who exemplify commitment to shared values.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
21. Experiments and takes risks even when there is a chance of failure.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
22. Is contagiously enthusiastic and positive about future possibilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
23. Gives people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
24. Makes certain that achievable goals are set, with solid plans and measurable milestones for the programs and projects at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
25. Finds ways to celebrate accomplishments.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
26. Takes the initiative to overcome obstacles even when outcomes are uncertain.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
27. Speaks with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purposes of the job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
28. Ensures that people grown in their jobs by learning new skills and developing themselves.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
29. Makes progress toward goals one-step at a time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
30. Gives the members of the team lots of appreciation and support for their contributions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

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Part III: Employee Commitment The following 18 statements represent feelings that individuals might have about the company or organization for which they work. With respect to your own feelings about the particular organization for which you are now working, please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Undecided	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization right now.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. This organization deserves my loyalty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I do not feel a strong sense of 'belonging' to my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. I owe a great deal to my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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