THE ROLE OF TRUST IN LEADERSHIP: U.S. AIR FORCE OFFICERS'

COMMITMENT AND INTENTION TO LEAVE THE MILITARY

by

Jamiel Vadell

JOHNNY MORRIS, Ph.D., Faculty Mentor and Chair

JOSEPH R. AVELLA, Ph.D., Committee Member

ANTHONY W. POET, Ph.D., Committee Member

Kurt Linberg, Ph.D., Dean, School of Business & Technology

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Abstract

Trust continues to be a leading concept organizational commitment. Milligan (2003) conducted a survey looking at trust in the Air Force within junior officers. This study was conducted as a follow-up study to determine if trust continues to be an issue in the Air Force. The purpose of this study is to measure the comparative strengths and weaknesses as well as the significance of leadership's ability to gain trust form its subordinates in order to reduce the numbers of officers leaving after their commitment. This research measures organizational commitment and trust in a random sample of 372 Air Force captains. All participants completed the following surveys: The Management Behavior Climate Assessment, Organizational Commitment Scales, Intent to Leave Scale, and a demographics survey. Findings of the research concluded with the following points, as trust is a growing factor in leadership and junior officers leaving the Air Force, there is a relationship between trust and commitment. There is also a strong relationship between commitment and intent of junior officers leaving the Air Force. Finally, trust was the primary variable in this study and found with an increase of trust in leadership there will be a decrease of junior officers' leaving the Air Force.

Dedication

I would like to dedicate this paper to my family, Susan (wife), Victoria (daughter), and Jamiel II (son), my parents Julie Vadell (mother) and Sabato Del Pozzo (father). You all have stood beside me through this long journey and supported me when times were tough. I thank you for you love and dedication to my education and moving forward in life. You now have your husband, daddy, and son back. Finally, this paper is written to my grandparents; this was their dream and if it wasn't for them pushing me, encouraging me, and telling me to never give up I would of never gone this far. Thank you Epifania Rivera (Mama) and Radames Rivera (Papa). I could not have done this without each of you. I love you all and this degree is dedicated to you.

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wait to get together with our pillow hats one day and go dancing. You all have been such good friends.

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CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

Introduction to the Problem

Trust in leadership is increasingly a problem of confidence and commitment in the military, a phenomenon documented in detail within the Quadrennial Defense Review (QDR) which the U.S. Department of Defense (DOD) established in 2001 as a means of developing a strategic master plan of a common vision for the defense of the nation (Milligan, 2003). In 2003, Milligan examined the link between trust in leadership and the officer's commitment to either sustain or separate from military service in the U.S. Air Force. A follow-up study four years later is being conducted to test the reliability and validity of Milligan's conclusions as new variables are introduced into the analysis, which include the U.S. Air Force reducing their numbers and deployment opportunities because of pressures upon recruitment and retention brought on by general concerns and skepticism about the ongoing war on terrorism.

A critical factor to be introduced into this study is the increasing rate of voluntary military force reductions in the U.S. Air Force. Recently, attrition, retention and recruitment have become increasingly difficult, all at the same time (Randall, 2006). Therefore, confidence and trust in the military command are essential variables in determining the goals a member of the military will take – whether to remain or leave. Randall (2006) concluded that civilian and military studies share a common base when it comes to identifying leadership traits and styles effective toward building employee retention within the organization.

Commitment in the U.S. Air Force as an officer is different than an enlisted member. As an officer there is usually a four-year commitment after being commissioned. There are some exceptions to this commitment time depending upon the training received at the U.S. Air Force.

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After the four years, an officer is no longer required to re-enlist with the military. The officer is free to leave the military at any time if no other commitment was added. However, it is hoped that officers' will act conscientiously to continue their active service.

Meanwhile, an enlisted member signs up for a specific number of years and must reenlist when the time has expired. This allows officers' to be more conscientiously in leaving the Air Force sooner than an enlisted member.

Background of the Study

Military officers' often have taken the role of a traditional leadership style, much as it was defined by Weber (1947). The legitimacy of leadership is built on precedence so that leaders act upon and are perceived to have control and power because their predecessors had those essential elements. It is the position, not the leader per se, that calls for loyalty by the subordinated individual. Scholars have studied leadership for many years – often building upon Weber's work in which he defined three basic leadership styles (traditional, charismatic and bureaucratic) – and have produced a wide range of theoretical work in leadership that often reflects the ever-shifting emphasis of organizational operations and communications in dynamically changing industries. Rather than view leadership as merely a product of personality traits, styles, and characteristics, researchers increasingly viewed leadership as a process-oriented function along an ever-expanding continuum. For example, Reinke (1998) described the process in which "leader characteristics and situational demands interact to determine the extent to which a given leader will provide successfully in a group" (p. 99).

As leaders are capable of emerging from many different scenarios in which uniquely defining characteristics of leadership are demonstrated, the perception begins to take shape of the leader as a trustworthy individual independent of the nature of his or her position. The organic

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cycle of character traits became the basis of how Kouzes and Posner (2000) viewed leadership. Mathews (2006) demonstrated how the traditional process of leadership is conceptualized in to the context of motivating and influencing the followers to accomplish goals critical to the organization. Rather than position traditional leadership in one neat set of defining attributes as Weber did, Mathews showed how the practice of traditional leadership varied among organizations spanning a diverse range of industry and practice. Building even further upon Weber's distinction of transactional (bureaucratic) and transformational (charismatic) leadership styles, one can see the need to assess the extent and place of trust in the foundation of organizational change and transformational leadership (Fairholm, 1994).

Northouse (2004) defined transformational leadership to be the process whereby an individual engages with others and creates a connection that raises the level of motivation and morality in both the leader and the follower when certain conditions arise. Transformational leadership is a broad phenomenon, with specific events being used to influence followers at a one-on-one level and being facilitated to influence whole organizations and even entire cultures in leadership (Northouse). Symmetrical or two-way communication in the organizational hierarchy becomes an important attribute of transformational leadership where individuals are encouraged to share their thoughts, expertise, and experiences on events central to the organization's involvement and identity. The willingness to cultivate an open communications culture must be embraced by the leader in order to establish legitimacy and credibility. As the leader sets out the large-scale vision, employees or followers within the organization are encouraged to offer their input and to help shape that vision originally voiced by the leader.

Burns (1978) defined four key aspects of transformational leadership: charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation, and consideration for the individual. Bass (1985) further

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refined the work of Burns by exploring the foundations of the followers' needs. Bass saw this as essential to an inclusive, encompassing relationship necessary to get followers to be fully vested in the challenge of making the large-scale organizational vision a reality.

Greenleaf (1977) meanwhile articulated servant leadership in which individuals would not necessarily be required to hold office or a particular leadership position. Rather, by encouraging the cultivation of trust and the ethical uses of power, the servant leader views the responsibility of service to the organization as first and then leadership as a means of expanding the organization's capacity to fulfill its core mission and its obligations to its stakeholders. The test of leadership, according to Greenleaf, therefore is to see if followers became "healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, more likely themselves to become servants" (p. 35)

Milligan (2003) critiqued the military's inability to fully assimilate new or modified leadership practices in order to address real-world situations where the composition of the forces was changing dramatically and the increased difficulty to sustain the military's retention rates. Rather than move toward a proactive stance, the military is more inclined to respond reactively, focusing more on the mission rather than what needs to be revised so that followers do not lose their commitment to the mission and to the larger organizational vision – transactional leadership as initially defined by Weber (1947) and updated by Bass (1999). Bass defined this leadership style where the focus is on the continuous contingent reinforcement of followers and therefore refers to the exchange relationship between leader and follower that is designed to meet their own self-interest. The top-down approach, often involving asymmetrical communication, discounts the value of feedback from the recipient of the leader's communication. The "wait and see" approach is perhaps the most simplistic manifestation of transactional leadership where the risk intensifies because situational dynamics change so rapidly that any action by the leader

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might come too late. Continuous monitoring of followers' performance also is necessitated in this leadership style. Milligan summarized the inherent contradictions of transactional leadership: "[L]eadership is something that happens as a result of leader and follower collaborative action. Leadership is not a starring role. True leadership describes unified action by leaders and followers working together to jointly achieve mutual goals. It is collaborative" (p.28). Kouzes and Posner (2002) concluded, "At the heart of collaboration is trust" (p. 58).

The top-down hierarchical framework of traditional leadership has been at the historical core of the military. However, personality traits -- often a mix of confidence, competence, and a sense of nurturing – are seen in contemporary leaders but they should not be viewed as evidence of the individual's "softening" stance on leadership (Jayne, 2005). The nurturing, cultivating environment is becoming increasingly prominent in the organizational dynamics. Leaders are starting to empower others but, in return, they also demand accountability for performance, forcing employees to live up to the trust placed in them (Jayne). Therefore, pressure is also placed upon the subordinates to demonstrate that the empowerment and trust given is justifiable.

<center>Statement of the Problem</center>

Several research studies have shown that trust in leadership is among the most important reasons why individuals tend to leave the military. As U.S. Air Force officials prepare several programs to transform the military to address future threats, goals and visions, trust in transformational and servant leadership will address the successful implementation of these programs. Transformational and servant leadership are needed to promote these changes in a positive manner to help facilitate programs, training, skills, and motivational practices.

The problem in this research involves the lack of trust junior officers' have with their leadership which is directly connected to their decision or intent of leaving the Air Force after

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their commitment. Cultivating a culture where the commitment between officers' and the top-tier leadership in the U.S. Air Force is strengthened will not be easy unless a thorough planning process is undertaken. First, a case history of leadership styles and approaches within the U.S. Air Force is needed. Then, connections must be drawn between the most relevant aspects of transformational and servant leadership practices and the needs demanded by reinforcing a program of retention and recruitment in the U.S. Air Force. Thereafter, various measures will be designed to observe how the leadership and officers' throughout the hierarchy envision the current environment of trust and its impact upon decisions of individual officers' to leave the U.S. Air Force after their required commitment of service has been accomplished.

Purpose of the Study

This study is using a quantitative research method instead of a qualitative or mixed method. In this study a nonexperimental correlational descriptive design is by using a survey methodology (Babbie, 1998). The research was classified as a non experimental because it failed to control for variables and descriptive because it explored possible correlates among two or more phenomenon as they currently exist (Milligan, 2003). The research design will consist of three instruments (surveys). These three surveys will measure management's behavior climate assessment, commitment scales, and intent to leave survey. The management's behavior climate survey will focus on the relationship between trust and commitment. In this measurement the variables consist on trust. The commitment scale will illustrate the relationship between commitment and intent to leave the Air Force. In this measurement the variables consist on the organizational commitment. The final measurement tool is the intent to leave survey. This survey is used to portray the relationship between trust and the intent for junior officers' leave the Air Force after their commitment. The variables in this measurement are the intent to leave.

The purpose of the study is to measure the comparative strengths and weaknesses as well as the significance of leadership's ability to gain trust from its subordinates in order to reduce the numbers of officers' leaving after their commitment. As trust seems to be an issue in the military, the existence and the commitment to trust needs to be explored more comprehensively within the leadership hierarchy of the U.S. Air Force. This study builds upon Milligan's earlier work on the relationship of trust in U.S. Air Force captains to officers' organizational commitment and intentions to leave service. Eliciting the reasons and explanations for what influences the intent of officers' to leave the military after their commitment would give top-tier leadership a starting base for understanding the problems with retention and to begin developing relevant, effective ways of reducing the impact of internal and external variables so that retention rates improve. Once these factors have been identified, then a leadership protocol can be developed incorporating the most applicable elements of various leadership styles so that leaders can adapt their flexibility to the needs and demands of their specific troop units. Moreover, the leadership protocol could become an eventual proving ground for cultivating a continuous stream of leaders.

The target group in this survey will be captains throughout the Air Force. Using an online survey service, the study will have a larger number of participants to have access to the surveys in the military.

<center>Rationale</center>

Among identified leadership styles, servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1977) is a relatively new approach that is beginning to attract the attention of senior military officers'. Already some of the servant leadership philosophy has been manifested within different ranks and units of military service. As part of its leadership development program, the U.S. Air Force has

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encouraged communication networks that help to build trust among all members – regardless of rank, gender, race, enlistment status, officer position, or identification as civilian contractors. Kouzes and Posner (2002) concluded that leadership cannot exist in a vacuum without trust and individuals often then pursue their work without any clear understanding of the roles and work being simultaneously pursued by their colleagues and superiors.

Earlier, the popular conception of a "heroic" leader still held force – one who "steered an organization with a firm grip and solved problems single-handedly while still managing to keep the troops inspired" (Cairo, Dotlich, & Rhinesmith, 2005, p.28). The traditional leadership style as defined by Weber was the preferred method. Yet, in light of increasingly complex and interdependent society, Robert Greenleaf's (1977) vision of servant leadership seemed to take on heightened relevance -- defined as the theory of leadership where valuing individuals, developing people, building community, practicing authenticity, and providing leadership that focuses on the positive of those who are being led and whose whom the organization serves (Hamilton & Nord, 2005). Much as in transformational leadership, symmetrical or two-way communication is essential to the effective practice of servant leadership.

Northouse (2004) defined servant leadership with "a strong altruistic ethical overtone which emphasizes leaders being attentive to the concerns of their followers; they should take care of them and nurture them and in return they will take care of the leaders." Here, the leader is held as being fully responsible for the follower's outcome in the organization. In fact, the way an individual emerges to be a leader is by becoming a servant first (Northouse). In the servant leadership style, the authority shifts to those who are being led so that the dynamics of power and control so important to traditional leadership styles become secondary to the need to strengthen relationships of trust within the organizational hierarchy. (Perry & Mankin, 2007). Value and

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trust in leadership as it is presented in the Air Force resemble those articulated by Greenleaf (1977) and Northouse (2004), which emphasize the mutually complementary effects of community and individual for support and leadership strength.

Similarly, transformational leadership motivates followers to transcend their self-interests for a collective purpose, vision, and/or mission (Feinberg, Ostroff, & Burk 2005). Here the focus on the followers becomes the pretext for trust and admiration for the leadership. In military training for officers', the concept of being a good follower before being a good leader is emphasized (Promotion Fitness, 2003). Plainly, without followers, there are no leaders or leadership (Howell & Shamir, 2005).

Finding a universally acceptable and operational definition of trust is difficult because it is shaped as much by cultural and social perceptions as it is by organizational realities. However, there are a few worth considering given the context of the current research problem at hand. Trust (Bhattacharya, Devinn, & Pillutla, 1998), could be defined as "an expectancy of positive (or non-positive) outcomes that one can receive based on the expected action of another party in an interaction characterized by uncertainty" (p. 468). Trust, then, is seen to be related to events that have yet to occur. This is seen in Luhmann's (1988) definition of trust, which supports the idea of individuals acutely conscious of the various alternatives present when a course of action needs to be decided. Sabel (1993) defined trust as "the mutual confidence that no party in the relationship will exploit the vulnerability of the others" (p. 1154). With this vulnerability, managers and leaders may have a hard time developing trust from his or her followers.

Managers today may have a hard time trusting their employees as evidenced by an increasing need for continuous supervision and quality control activities (Andersen, 2005). In creating more time and effort for the supervisors, employees are then treated as lackeys

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incapable of independent decision-making. However, in a symmetrical environment in which notions of trust are actively cultivated, decisions from leadership levels are more likely to be accepted by subordinates (Andersen, 2005). As an equation then, the sum of positive actions equals a stronger sense of trust between leader and follower. The corollary is that the sum of negative actions equals distrust between the two. Covey (1991) explained that "trust, or the lack of it, is at the root of success or failure in relationships and in the bottom-line results of business, industry, education, and government" (p. 44). In any organization – including one such as the U.S. Air Force already with a firmly entrenched leadership culture – the challenge of developing trust on a symmetrical basis is decidedly difficult.

Naturally, situational circumstances are potentially important if not significant from a research perspective. Fiedler's (1967) contingency model was employed to study group dynamics that included followers' loyalty, support, and cooperation with the leader as analytical factors for developing a situational determinant of the effectiveness of people-oriented versus task-oriented leaders (Howell & Shamir, 2005) The study most closely resembled the traditional enlistee-officer relationship in the military and Fiedler's contingency model became the basis for identifying multiple behaviors leaders will call upon during situations of differing circumstances. These behaviors include the structure of tasks as well as the roles taken by followers through the execution of those tasks and decision-making processes (Howell & Shamir, 2005). Northouse (2004) concluded that the context of a leader's response in different situations is among the most important indicators of leadership effectiveness. Certainly, the contingency model then becomes useful in understanding the reasons and causes of a decline in officer retention especially as different leaders can be assessed and compared on the basis of how they respond to contingent conditions. The contingency model also becomes a good tool for identifying the roles taken by

followers in particular circumstances as evidence of the development of trust between the hierarchical levels of the organization.

<div align="center">Research Questions</div>

The main focus of this study is to determine the increase number of junior officers' in the Air Force staying or leaving after their commitment due to trust, to include recent operation tempo and the force shaping board. The following research is a follow-on study conducted four years after Milligan's (2003) research and the research questions where kept as close as possible in order to retain the validity and reliability of the study.

1. What is the relationship between trust and organizational commitment in Air Force captains and their intent to leave the Air Force as junior officers'?

H_1. There is a relationship between trust and the affect of its commitment in junior officers' staying in the Air Force.

H_{1o}. There is no relationship between trust and the affect of its commitment in junior officers' staying in the Air Force.

H_{1a}. Trust is directly related to commitment.

2. What is the relationship between organizational commitment and intent to leave the Air Force?

H_2. There is a relationship between organizational commitment and intent for junior officers' leaving the Air Force.

H_{2o}. There is no relationship between organizational commitment and intent for junior officers' leaving the Air Force.

H_{2a}. Organizational commitment is directly related to the intent for junior officers' leaving the Air Force.

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3. What is the relationship between trust and intent to leave the Air Force?

H$_3$. There is a relationship between trust and intent for junior officer leaving the Air Force.

H$_{3o}$. There is no relationship between trust and intent for junior officer leaving the Air Force.

H$_{3a}$. Trust is directly related to the intent for junior officers' leaving the Air Force.

Nature of the Study and Theoretical/Conceptual Framework

Quantitative research is a method where an attempt of precise measurements of something as seen in the study of retention of military officers' and members (Cooper & Schindler, 2006). This method is used to help quantify a research by numbers. This is possible due to using computerized methods and analysis. The researcher may use this method to describe or predict a research question. Qualitative research approach uses the nonprobability sampling design as the quantitative is focused on probability. The researcher's involvements in a quantitative research compared to a qualitative research are differenced within these two methods. As the quantitative uses a high volume of indirect methods with contact with participants, qualitative uses a high level of participation with the participants in the research (Cooper & Schindler, 2006).

Qualitative research is a method used by a scholar which has the ability to choose for its research. The research question will guide the researcher to have a better understanding of which form of sampling is going to be used (Robson, 2002). A qualitative research method allows the researcher to choose the sampling size of the research and might include just two or three focus groups or even a few dozen individual depth interviews (Cooper & Schindler, 2006). In this research methodology there is a sampling approach known as nonprobability. Nonprobability is

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where there is a little attempt in generating a representative sample (Cooper & Schindler, 2006). In the past 5-10 years many scholars have taken the liberty to apply this research method to their study.

Discriminant analysis was another research method used to help identify determinants of retention decisions in the military. Rocco, Pugh, and Gunderson (1997) decided to utilize this approach with variables from five domains to include demography, social background, service history, satisfaction, and performance. This method allows the researcher to classify people or objects into two or more groups (Cooper & Schindler, 2006). In Rocco, Pugh, and Gunderson (1997) use of five domains the methods would work well with the research. A quantitative analysis is derived as the nominally scaled criterion or dependent variable with one or more independent variables that are interval- or ration scaled are joined in this study (Cooper & Schindler, 2006).

Scholars have demonstrated an interest in a methodology known as dynamic programming. In Gotz and McCall's (1998) research the dynamic programming methodology was the used to construct the model on how the sequential analysis of decisions U.S. Air Force officers' determine in staying or leaving the military. Gotz and McCall (1998) decided to use two different versions of the dynamic programming. The first one was the use of a sequential decision model and the second one generalized "the risk-neutral case to encompass risk-aversion in the study" (p. 335).

Robson (2002) defines a hypothesis as the predicted answer to a research question which is proposed by any researcher. A hypothesis is commonly seen the scientific world when testing and developing new theories in a specific field. Quantitative research methodology is the most common to hypothesis testing, with detailed definition of null and alternative hypothesis

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(Robson, 2002). The use of a quantitative method in order to test the hypothesis was a common approach. The hypothesis is developed to guide the direction of study, identifies facts that are and not relevant, suggests which form of research design, and provides a framework for organizing the conclusions noticed in many studies of retention rates of military officers' in the military (Cooper & Schindler, 2006).

In comparison to the different methods used by the scholars are used to guide the researcher in answering their specific research question. They also set the foundation of the research methodology and techniques to be used in executing the research. These methods are able to guide the researcher in answering the question or questions. In contrast the different methods used have their special approach in gathering data. The research question can be persuaded to choose a mixed methodology with multiple methods. In the nature of these qualitative studies, techniques varied in the usage of interviews or surveys in which the data was then analyzed by the different methods.

This study is using a quantitative research method instead of a qualitative or mixed method. In this study a nonexperimental correlational descriptive design is by using a survey methodology (Babbie, 1998). The research was classified as a non experimental because it failed to control for variables and descriptive because it explored possible correlates among two or more phenomenon as they currently exist (Milligan, 2003).

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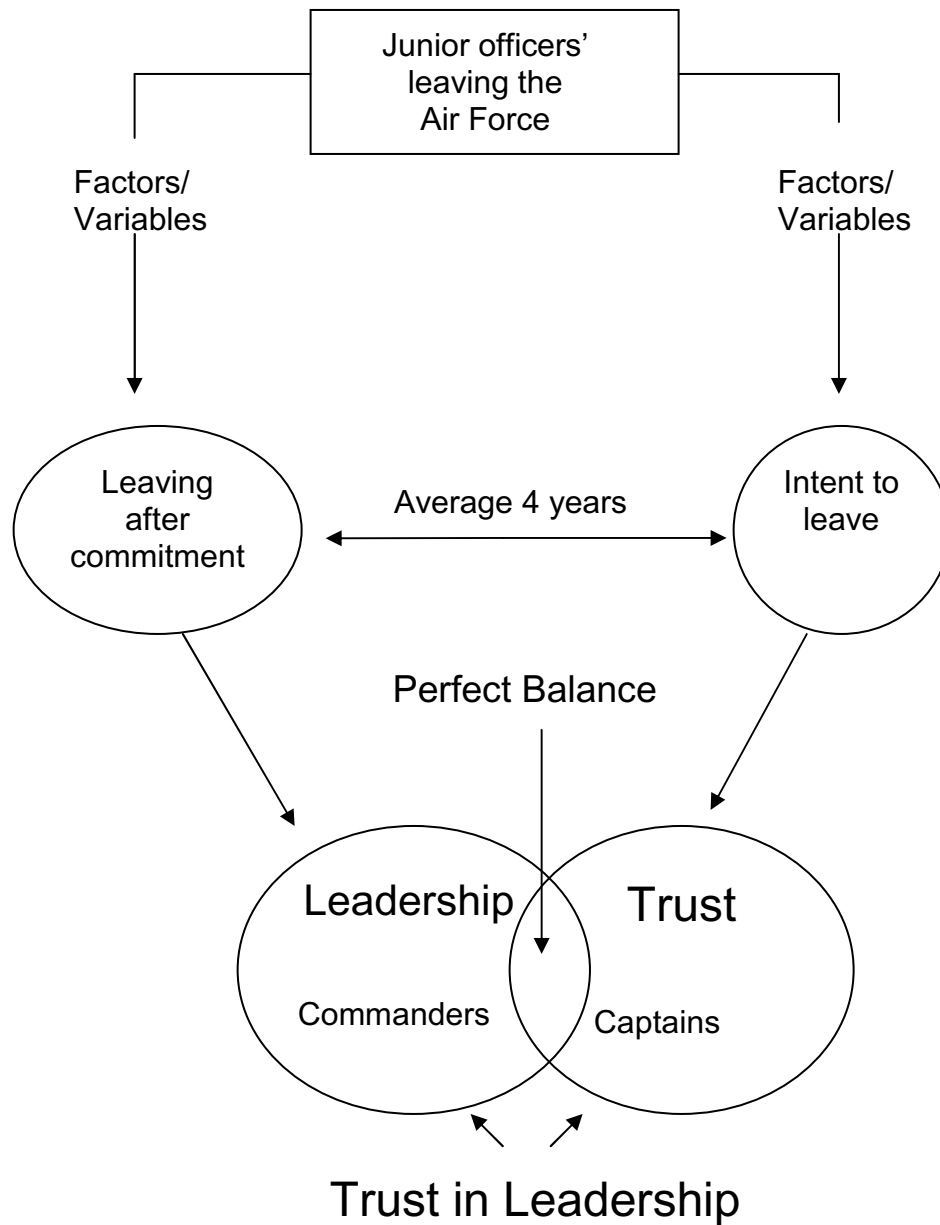
Figure 1: Conceptual Framework of trust in leadership between Air Force Officers' intent to leave the military service.

Significance of the Study

The strength of a military is not based on absolute numbers of enlistees and officers' but on the measurable magnitude of commitment as evidenced in the retention-attrition rates of enlistees and officers'. The departure of enlistees and officers', instead of indicating vulnerabilities within the organization, should instead be the first step of an instructive exercise to revise and sharpen the leadership training protocol and culture critical to reinforcing the retention rates of the military. One area will be to create a typology of the reasons for why officers' decide to end their active commitment to the U.S. Air Force. From there, planning could then begin to acknowledge and reconcile those reasons in developing sustainable, effective long-term strategies that help encourage officers' to extend their commitments and take part in new leadership opportunities.

According to Perry and Mankin (2007), a key tenet of servant leadership is affective commitment (systemic trust), defined as the "strength of people's desires to continue working for an organization because they agree with its underlying goals and values" (p. 168). Understanding the connection between trust and leadership, leaders will work diligently to acknowledge what followers are looking for in their place within the organization. Specifically, the needs throughout the organization hierarchy need to be defined in detail as a pretext to establishing a sense of trust throughout the organization. With leaders and followers sufficiently informed as to each other's needs and expectations, leaders can strategize more effectively about how to gain trust throughout the organization. Instead of inculcating a sense of blind loyalty, leaders will establish legitimacy and credibility through this mutual exchange of information and communication.

Ultimately, the U.S. Air Force can then move from a reactive posture to a proactive one

that focuses not on the steadily growing rate of attrition but instead on one of nurturing the meaning and value of the commitment officers' sustain toward the organization. In turn, this renewed sense of confidence will begin to help stem the growing rate of attrition and reinforce the value of retention especially during the ongoing war.

Milligan (2003) employed three levels in the research that will be replicated for this study. The first focuses on different levels of trust among junior officers' (captains). The second examines the overall importance of leadership and its impact upon commitment and retention in every field of the U.S. Air Force. The third incorporates the findings of the first two levels to make some goal-oriented recommendations about the types of leadership that will serve most effectively the purpose of reinforcing commitments, which, in turn, rebuild the service's retention rate. The recommendations will be framed around the need to examine critically the organizational culture and the conditions which nurture an environment of trust throughout all levels of the organization and, most specifically, to the retention of junior officers'.

Definition of Terms

Commander - A person who commands; leader over a specific unit and its associated members (Mish, 1996).

Commission - An official certificate issued by the government conferring rank as an officer in the U.S. armed forces (Mish, 1996).

Leadership – A process whereby an individual influences others to achieve a common goal (Northouse, 2004).

Military Service – This represents active full-time participation in one of the five United States armed forces branches: Air Force, Army, Coast Guard, Marines and Navy.

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Officer - A commissioned military member in a position of authority in the armed forces (Mish, 1996).

Organizational Commitment – A psychological state that: (a) characterizes the employee's relationship with the organization, and (b) has implication for the decision to continue or discontinue membership in the organization (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993).

Organizational Trust – The confidence that employees give to management and the degree to which they believe what management tells them (Sashkin, 1996).

Professional Military Education (PME) – This comprises specific military courses that incorporate military history, organization, serving missions and capabilities, and command authority.

Rank – This represents an official grade or position designating authority (Mish, 1996).

Servant Leadership – An understanding and practice of leadership that places the good of those led over the self-interest of the leader (Laub, 1999).

Assumptions

While various forms of traditional leadership are present throughout the military services, this study will focus exclusively on the U.S. Air Force. The U.S. Army has similar studies through the Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences. This institute studies issues of military leadership and retention by viewing the U.S. Army's way of business that is compared to some factors within this study. The assumptions of these two forces are similar in nature, restrictions, and expectations of military members. This research will demonstrate a similarity of military organization, similar interpersonal issues, leadership issues, and organizational issues to which the corporate world could relate.

In this study, the following is assumed: (1) Participants had answered all survey questions

truthfully. (2) Personal ethics, not undue pressure influenced decisions, undertaken by junior officers'. (3) All junior captains are able to leave the military due to their commitment being completed. (4) The sample included a representative segment of junior officers' who met the study criteria.

In looking at the assumption, the researcher would like all participants to answer all survey questions truthfully. The research is protecting all participants' identity and providing a letter to explain the study in order to influence a positive atmosphere without any retribution. The research is developed to help senior leadership obtain a stronger understanding on the importance of trust in leadership. Another assumption in this study predicts the ability of junior officer's commitment time in the Air Force. Depending on the commissioning source of the individual and career field, commitment time may vary. All members in the study need to meet all of the inclusion criteria listed in the sample section in Chapter three.

<center>Limitations and Delimitations</center>

The U.S. Air Force is a unique war fighting system, shaped by a century-old quest to gain high grounds in the profession of arms. The mission of the Air Force is to fly, fight and win in three war fighting domains: air, space and cyberspace. Because of mandatory concerns regarding confidentiality and anonymity in the interest of national security, ideally randomized samples might not be feasible. There, sampling may take the form of using convenience-sampling techniques for an intact group and secondary data may not necessarily confirm demographic definitions of a randomized sample. Therefore, only junior officers' (captain level) who fall under the inclusion criteria are going to be surveyed. All surveys will be administered anonymously with confidentiality requirements as per Air Force Instruction (AFI) 36-2601 and the Air Force Personnel Center. While some junior officers' surveyed may have had some

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previous enlisted experience to include more than four years, the results are not generalizable to the overall military population because comparable studies in the other armed forces branches may and will likely yield different data and different conclusions. All data collected will be random with an online survey available to all military personnel who fall under the inclusion criteria stated in Chapter three. The study will be bias to the inclusion criteria due to the need of limitations to the research. If this limitation was not set the research would be too broad and will not be able to cover all ranks, services, and time lines within the military branches. The incremental value of looking at this narrowly defined segment of the U.S. Air Forces population sample serves as a useful piece in building a longitudinal profile of the factors having an impact upon retention strategies at different military ranks.

The Air Force is made up of 71,691 officers' which over 21,000 are captains (U.S. Air Force, 2006). An online survey is available for the study in order to increase the number of participants to represent an appropriate sample size to the study. The researcher will cover all cost for the study materials and online survey. Time and money are limited since the researcher is covering all the cost of the study. Online surveys charge by the number of surveys, number of participants, and time on the web.

Summary

Throughout the recent years, the U.S. Armed Forces has become increasingly difficult in retaining service members and recruiting (Randall, 2006). Trust in leadership has been examined by Milligan in 2003, where this research is doing a follow-on study to validate any change within the last four years. Within the last four years, the numbers of military members in the Air Force are decreasing with the Palace Chase program developed in 2006 and the war on terrorism is still active (Air Force, 2006). A quantitative method was used four years ago and will be replicated in

this study. In gathering data, all three surveys will be available to military members online to increase the sample size of the study. This study is developed to help senior leadership develop trust and minimize the number of junior officers' leaving after their commitment. Chapter two will identify the literature review on trust, organizational commitment, and leadership in the Air Force. It will further explain historical events and studies to provide a background to the study. Chapter two will also support the research design and framework of the study.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

Scholars from many disciplines have studied the perspective and insightful views on trust to help gain a better understanding of organizational trust (Schoorman, Mayer, & Davis, 2007). Trust has been attempted to be defined by many scholars. As trust is further studied, trust would lead to risk taking in a relationship between senior leadership and junior officers'. Trust and commitment has not been research as organizational commitment. Literature in this combination is minimal. Milligan (2003) explains how current research on trust in leadership and trust in employees and the impact on organizational commitment. The effectiveness in the organizational performance and job satisfaction suggest future studies into trust and commitment. This study explores the role of trust in leadership in the U.S. Air Force and its officer's commitment and intention to leave the military.

Trust

One working definition of trust as defined by Schoorman, Mayer, and Davis (1995) is "the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party" (p. 358).

A good deal of focus has been given to the fundamental concept of trust within organizational culture and behavior as it relates to the larger process of organizational leadership and issues of motivation and commitment. While these issues often have broadly similar ramifications across a variety of organizational settings, the present challenge is to develop reliable and valid operational definitions of these fundamental concepts particularly as they relate

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to the goal of enhancing commitment and retention within the military's organizational environment (Air Force, 2006)

McAllister (1995) defined trust as the extent to which a person is confident in his or her willingness to act upon the basis of the words, actions, and decisions of others to achieve a position of credibility and legitimacy within a group. McAllister (1995) also pointed out the importance of the level of confidence within and will to act in developing trust amongst groups of people. This is seen hand-by-hand with the servant leadership style in the Air Force. Cairo (2005) described how "a natural leader's trust in individuals builds slowly, only after loyalty, performance, and commitment have been demonstrated in tough situations" (p. 28).

In current perspectives, the extent to which risk characterizes the relationship between senior leadership and junior officers' is embedded within the operational definition of trust. Schoorman, Mayer, and Davis (2007) defined trust as the "willingness to take risk," where the amount of risk required is determined contingently on a case-by-case basis. Senior leadership's investment in its junior officers' either can build trust or expose vulnerabilities that impinge upon the organization's effective capacity for strengthening commitment and retention (p.350). If there tends to be any violation to trust, emotional standards tend to be the primary reason for the trustor to lose trust in leadership (Schoorman, Mayer, & Davis, 2007).

Perry and Mankin (2007) argued the potential for creating trust lies within the organization's capability to not only positively influence the quality of organizational life but also to strengthen the efficiency and effectiveness of employee performance. The articulation and clear communication of the organization's strategic goals from the leadership to all levels of the organizational hierarchy is essential. Milligan (2003) concluded that higher levels of trust are contingent upon the factors of performance results, leadership integrity, and concern for others.

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In looking at results, obligations and commitment are being met. Integrity is defined as honesty in an individual and consistency in one's actions. Concern for others also fortifies one's ability to contribute improved teamwork, technological developments, and a sensitized understanding and acceptance of diversity within the workplace. Trust ties its conceptual basis into organizational performance, leader effectiveness, job satisfaction, and the relationship of these correlate to organizational commitment, according to Milligan (2003).

The gap in a calculus-based trust is based on systems, definitions, rewards, and punishments to follow a stable maintenance or violation of trust (Ralston, 2006). This type of trust demonstrated in the study represents junior officer's relations with senior officers'. As Ralston (2006) continued its research, a single violation of calculus-based trust may lead to its termination and total rejection of future encounters with the failure party.

Organizational Trust

In a related study, Dirks and Ferrin (2001) examined organizational situations in which trust will have varying levels of effects and impact. The researchers concluded that a comprehensive analysis of trust goes beyond one expecting what the other will do in the future. Rather, assessing trust is important in understanding the rich complexities of the organizational relationship between the supervisor and employee. Looking at underlying motivations and interpretations for behaviors as well as their impact upon how individuals respond might help managers and employees understand "how and why employees respond to managerial actions in organizations that have experienced recent organizational changes which have broken trust" (Dirks & Ferrin, 2001, p. 459). Managers would do well not to wait until a crisis or negative turn in business as they "may be more successful in implementing change efforts on a proactive rather than reactive basis, doing so in 'good times' rather than bad, when trust levels are high

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rather than low" (Dirks & Ferrin, 2001, p. 461).

Nyhan (1999) employed three samples of employees from a county government, a city government, and a community services organization to investigate whether supervisory trust is linked to affective commitment on the part of employees. The research also examined "bottom up" organizational management strategies that encourage two-way communication feedback, personal empowerment of employees in their tasks, and employee role-taking in organizational decision-making. Nyhan's (1999) findings extend and reinforce the conclusions of Cook and Wall (1980) that an increasingly diverse workforce's commitment is less determined by the sharing of interpersonal characteristics or traits than it is on the structural relationships the organization has established in the working hierarchy.

In a follow up study, Nyhan (2000), aware of increased demands upon public sector organizations to improve their effectiveness and efficiency and to work interactively with the private sector, concluded that an organizational model based on the mutual fostering of trust between management and employees would be critical in these challenging organizational situations. Nyhan (2000), however, was cautious. "The enhancement of trust in public organizations is not necessarily an easy task. Inviting participation and providing feedback to employees is a difficult transition for many supervisors" (Nyhan, 2000, p. 101). For example, the empowerment of employees is not always an easily accepted practice by supervisors and employees alike because the employee is now expected to assume at least some small share of the risk involved in working independently and participating in organizational decision making.

Whitener (2001), working from social exchange theory which suggests that employee commitment is derived from how workers perceive their managers support them, found that credit union employees were stronger in their trust and commitment when managers were

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supportive of them. However, in exploring the impact of human resources practice – such as training and reward incentives – Whitener (2001) acknowledged that the limitations of the study was limited to one type of organization which necessarily did not incorporate the widest possible variety of management practices that would be explored in obtaining realistic and valid measures of how they shape an employee's sense of organizational commitment.

Trust correlates with organizational commitment and "need satisfaction as a positive work experience could be thought of as an antecedent of organizational commitment" (Cook & Wall, 1980, p. 47). While Cook and Wall found that job satisfaction in all instances was "substantially correlated" with trust in almost instances, the strongest correlations were found with regard to trust and "faith in management" as well as "confidence in management" (Cook & Wall, 1980, p. 48). The researchers used two samples totaling more than 600 blue-collar workers from manufacturing firms in the United Kingdom.

An employee empowerment strategy can positively affect job satisfaction and organizational commitment as Laschinger, Finegan and Shamian (2001) found in a study of 412 staff nurses. Noting that repeated downsizing in organizations demanded that managers rely less on control and more on coordinating the workloads of employees, researchers concluded that, through empowerment, "managers must seek ways to regain the trust of employees by assuring structures are in place to allow accomplishment of meaningful goals" (Laschinger, Finegan, & Shamian, 2001, p. 16). Among the most statistically significant results was the link between trust and management and the way in which nurses perceived their access to information critical to carrying out their jobs. This becomes critical if employees are expected to assume more risk responsibility for their actions. "Since trust is defined as the willingness to take risks and to be vulnerable to the action of others based on the assumption that the other will act in a manner

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beneficial to the trustor, support from managers that leads to successful decision making or damage control for mistakes benefits the trustor and fosters trust in management" (Laschinger, Finegan, & Shamian, 2001, p.18).

Organizational trust extends its research into trust between employees and management and its ability to have an over all positive effect on organizational performance and productivity (Ralston, 2006). Studies stress the importance of trust when implementing organizational trust, commitment and the ability to adapt the environment and change (Ralston, 2006). As researches continue to research the presence of trust, it allows management to save time in their explanations of actions or even the reason for specific action. With the increasing amount of time saved, it allows timely and precise task completion within the organization (Ralston, 2006). Trust in leadership is needed to help increase the time save in management decisions. Trust in top management increases commitment to the organization and decreases employees' intent to leaving the company or as it relates to this study and junior officers' intent to leave the Air Force (Albrecht & Travaglione, 2003). Ralston (2006) further explains the ability of workers who trust their bosses are less likely to place blame on their bosses due to a disagreement between two or more parties (Korsgaard, Brodt, & Whitener, 2002; Ralston, 2006).

Further scholars like Farrell (2004) examine relationships between powers and trust in their bosses, and trust in the organization. This trust affects organizational structures and processes where organizational commitment affects trusting parties in an organization. The trusted parties are empowered to affect evaluations of the overall relationship and how the power is distributed and influences the cooperating behaviors that are based on the premise of trust and trustworthiness (Ralston, 2006). Trust is distributed amongst its workers and remains stable and persists on the level it started out with, which is, the high levels of trust in the beginning remain

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high (Zolin & Hinds, 2004).

<center>Organizational Commitment</center>

Classic motivational theoretical concepts – such as Maslow's hierarchy of needs –
have, in some part, driven the understanding or how organizational commitment is manifested.
Mutual concern for others, especially expressed upon the part of an organization's leaders can
build awareness of the individual employee's capacity for realizing one's psychological need for
self-actualization (Styskal, 1980). A positive organizational commitment then can be defined as
referring "to an individual member's loyalty to the organization and positive evaluation and
acceptance of the goals and values of the organization" (Styskal, 1980, p. 931).

The psychological dynamics have been the focus in this area. Becker (1960) developed a
"side-bet" theory explaining the significance of commitment within an organization as it occurs
in a three-step process – "the first [being] considered to be prior actions of the person staking
some originally extraneous interest on the individual's consistent behavior; the second process is
when recognition by the individual of the involvement of this extraneous interest in the
individual's present activity; and the third process is the resultant consistent line of activity" (p.
40). In essence, Becker's theory suggested how an individual makes an investment (side-bet) that
would be lost or deemed worthless if subsequently the individual left after his or her
commitment expired (Milligan, 2003). In the military, this is known as operating risk
management (ORM). The concept applies differently among officers' and enlisted member due
to their variables in career dynamics, such as required commitments of service time.

In defining organizational commitment, the individual's involvement to the organization
sets the foundation of the relationship between the employer and employee. Later in this paper,
organizational commitment is measured to support the individual's involvement in an

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organization and provide a better understanding of its importance. Woods (2007) explains in his study how the point of identifying the involvement "will be treated as foundational principles of further discussion of organizational commitment" (p. 58).

The Air Force is moving through a reduction of numbers of active duty members. In Woods (2007) study there is a correlation of low organizational commitment and turnover with withdrawal from work task. This was indicated by illustrating the relationship of the employee and employer strength or as in the study weakness. This relationship of turnover is defined by Hanisch and Hulin (2003) as "the complete withdrawal of an individual from a work setting" (p. 781). The Air Force is observing the same problem as junior officer's intent to leave after their commitment is portraying through Milligan's (2003) study and this current study. Some of the behaviors noted in other studies like Woods (2007) and Hanisch and Hulin (2003) are related to the corporate industry and could relate to the military service. The behavior observed were noted in substandard work, failing to attend scheduled meetings, and avoiding work in general (Woods, 2007). As another current study by Thatcher, Stepina, and Boyle (2003) states, "critics contend that low satisfaction with the organization and poor job design drives" certain behaviors with organizational commitment lowers, turnover intentions increase, and in turn drives individuals to leave their current employment (p. 232). Thatcher, Stepina, and Boyle (2003) further commented on how "organizational commitment remained a strong predictor of turnover intentions" (p. 232).

Woods (2007) further examines the relationship of reducing the cost of the organization in association with turnover. Cost requirements due to turnover may provide the organization with some opportunities. In Lee and Bruvold (2003) study, some opportunities include the cost requirement for reselection and retraining, leading the organizations decrease level of morale of the remaining employees. Meyer and Allen (as cited in Bridges & Harrison, 2003) found that

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organizational characteristics, personal characteristics and job characteristics should be considered as antecedents to organizational commitment (Woods, 2007). A study derived from Donavan, Brown, and Mowen (2004) emphasizes how customer orientation is an antecedent to job satisfaction and also to organizational commitment. Leadership characteristics help defines how customer orientation is able to be achieved within the organization.

Leadership Characteristics

Campbell (1990) defined the construct of self-concept clarity as the extent to which the components of "the individual's self-concept are clearly and confidently defined, internally consistent, and temporally stable" (p. 542). With the developing theory of the self-concept, researchers look toward the nature versus nurture debate. The individual, therefore, views superior leadership as a learned trait instead of as a result of a set of innate abilities. The journey in becoming a leader begins with the family at a young age ("Nature or Nurture," 2002). Fulfilling a role as the catalyst for the mixture that determines the final shape of the leadership style an individual will take (McIntosh & Rima, 2005). While there are those who strongly support each opposing view, leaders can be developed or nurtured, but must possess certain inherent traits as a starting point ("Nature or Nurture,"2002).

An understanding of leadership has been conceptualized into different components by Northouse (2004) and could be identified as "the phenomenon of leadership: (a) leadership is a process; (b) leadership involves influence; (c) leadership occurs within a group context, and (d) leadership involves goal attainment" (p. 82). This perspective suggests that certain individuals have unique innate or inborn characteristics relevant for effective leadership as outlined by Northouse (2004) who viewed the phenomenon along these lines rather than as a developmental process. Other traits in leadership may be seen in physical factors, personality features, and

ability characteristics. These factors could include height, extroversion, and speech fluency as described by Northouse. Kouzes and Posner (2002) have conducted studies on what people look for and admire in their leaders by identifying characteristics, including four that consistently were named by more than 50 % of respondents in a series of studies: honesty (88 %), competency (66 %), inspirational (65 %), and forward-looking (71 %).

Sankar (2003) discussed how the "moral literacy of a leader and the essentials of an ethical culture are connected to his/her character and not to his/her charismatic personality" (p. 46). This challenges the stereotype of leaders as outspoken individuals by suggesting that leaders can be introspective and quiet, perhaps arising from the previous rank of being a follower in the organization. In transformative events, leaders can emerge from the ranks. Followers' self-concepts and the formation of charismatic relationships establish an important link between the leader and follower to get a greater understanding of some traits in leadership. Kouzes and Posner's (2002) conclusion suggested that a fixed, extensive set of characteristics leads to a small select core of exceptional leaders.

There are two approaches in looking at the concepts of leadership styles and characteristic traits. Leadership is manifested through the leader's personality and associated characteristic traits. It is a primarily introspective approach where innate abilities may have been shaped by the influence of close family ties and some secondary sets of subordinate factors that arise in various events. Scholars have viewed leadership as arising from the leader's behavior which is likely to be governed as much by external influences and environmental factors as it is by one's innate personality traits (McIntosh & Rima, 2005).

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A few major leadership traits include "intelligence, self-confidence, determination and integrity" (Northouse, 2004, p. 19) and "competent, inspiring, forward-looking, and honest" (Kouzes & Posner, 2002, p.27).

A useful comparison with regard to trait elements can be drawn for these competing views. The two views are synergistic with regard to how leadership is observed. Intelligence – as represented in one's verbal communication skills and problem-solving skills – is a key factor for leadership excellence (Northouse, 2004). Kouzes and Posner (2002) defined competence as the most desirable character trait.

Northouse (2004) cited self-confidence as a major leadership characteristic trait where the leader is assured in inspiring others to serve effectively. Kouzes and Posner (2002) concluded that inspiration was effectively instilled in followers when leaders were "enthusiastic, energetic, and positive" (p. 91). The similarities are apparent at yet another level. Northouse (2004) concluded that essential traits included determination, initiative, persistence, dominance, and drive. The capacity to foresee potential obstacles and to act proactively is what Kouzes and Posner (2002) described as the capacity for developing strategic planning and forecasting skills.

Leadership in the Air Force

In the personal dimensions of interactive organizational relationships, servant leadership plays an important role. If the people are taking care of the mission, the mission will become second nature. "In this form of leadership the leader is moving the follower beyond immediate self-interests and helps elevate the follower's level of maturity and ideals as well as concerns for achievement, self-actualization, and the well-being of others, the organization, and society" (Bass, 1999, p. 25).

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Personality measures also were at the core of a study involving military science cadets who were first rated by their instructors and then by their peers and supervisors at the end of a six-week leadership training camp. Confidence suggested a leader's strong performance, the researchers concluded, adding that "efficacy and optimism contribute not only to a leader's image of competency but also to actual performance capability in the role" (Chemers, Watson, & May, 2000, p. 272). The researchers also found that ratings were consistent when leaders were assessed on their actions in demanding and challenging circumstances. In other words, the road to leadership confidence involves developing one's confidence obtained, in part, "through the selection for leadership of individuals with high levels of dispositional confidence and optimism, gained through graduated success experiences that help to build such self-perceptions" (Chemers, Watson, & May, 2000, p.274). A comfort zone between the leader and follower needs to be established.

Reinke (1998) discussed the comfort of leadership in the leader's ten commandments through years of studying leadership in the military. These commandments help define the military leadership through the eyes of a squadron commander and successful leadership based on longitudinal empirical research (Reinke, 1998). These rules or "commandments" also established an important baseline upon which ongoing surveys and research investigations would be able to ascertain the potential reliability and validity of these rules as apply to a relationship-based approach to leadership. The commandments, in particular, echoed the core mission values of the U.S. Air Force.

Reinke's (1998, p. 99) ten commandments are as follows:

1. Do unto others as you would have them do unto you

2. Thou shalt be consistent

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3. Thou shalt get out of thy office regularly

4. Thou shalt avoid snap decisions

5. Thou shalt make time for thy people

6. Thou shalt take the time to listen

7. Thou shalt always be in control of thyself

8. Thou shalt communicate clearly with thy subordinates

9. Thou shalt take responsibility for thy actions

10. Thou shalt LEAD thy people

The commandment approach does suggest a process orientation toward leading an organization through the management of organizational culture. "The leader's behavior fosters greater agreement or dispersion among followers and with this it may enhance the understanding of the process involved in leadership" (Feinberg, Ostroff, & Burke, 2005). Howell and Shamir (2005) examined the role of followers in situations dominated by charismatic leaders. Rejecting what they called the "heroic bias" of the one-way directional emphasis of leadership studies, the researchers gave followers a larger than previously examined role in the manifestation of charismatic leadership. Howell and Shamir (2005) further distinguished between two types of empowerment – personalized "in which followers' submissive behaviors and unquestioning obedience reinforce the self-aggrandizing views of the leader" and socialized "in which followers accept the leader conditionally, reinforce some of his or her behaviors, and challenge him or her intellectually and ideologically" (Howell & Shamir, 2005, p. 103). Howell and Shamir (2005), therefore, believe this distinction removes the naïve belief that charismatic leaders reflect upon the impact of their power and take actions on their own to "correct" abuses or negative outcomers. Rather, followers play a critical role by, for example, unconditionally

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obeying the leader's choice of action and reinforcing the leader's sense of "invincibility."
Followers who think independently and hold views different from those of the leader may
"encourage the socialized leader to govern in an egalitarian way" (Howell & Shamir, 2005, p.
106). Understanding each individual role is a key element in developing a leader's efficacy (or
effectiveness). "Without followers, there are plainly no leaders or leadership" (Howell & Shamir,
2005, p. 106). As officers' are placed into positions with high expectations of integrity among
other core values, the U.S. Air Force follows a role-centered approach that serves not only to
fortify leadership effectiveness but leadership development and emergence.

One's integrity can be viewed as the result of traits of honesty and trustworthiness and
the parallels cross over smoothly from the private sector into the public and military sectors. "It
is clear that if people anywhere are to willingly follow someone-whether it be into battle or into
the boardroom, the front office or the front line- they first want to assure themselves that the
person is worthy of their trust" (Kouzes & Posner, 2003, p. 76). Kouzer and Posner (2003)
demonstrated how honesty was the highest rated characteristic trait desired by people in a leader.

In the United States Air Force, core values are comprehensively detailed for every level –
officers', enlisted and civilian; active, reserve, and retired; senior, junior, and middle
management; uniformed personnel and contractors to follow (Promotion Fitness, 2004). The Air
Force follows three basic core values (Figure 1). Integrity first is the priority core value,
consistent with the military's fundamental honor code (Promotion Fitness, 2004). Service before
self is the second core value, ideally suited to the foundation of servant leadership and self-
managed leadership techniques (Promotion Fitness, 2004). The third core value is excellence, a
sense of which should be inculcated with every step of every task and process, regardless of the

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organization's hierarchical levels. (Promotion Fitness, 2004). The excellence value should be exactly parallel in the military and civilian sectors, with every role and relationship.

Integrity

Service   Excellence
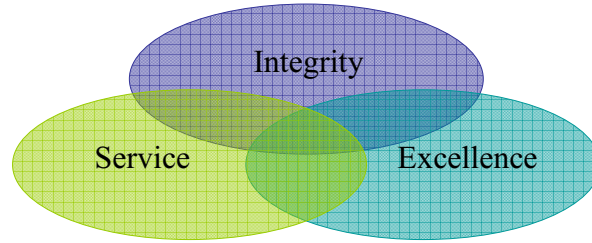
Figure 2. United States Air Force Core Values

Integrity is one's self-mechanism for quality control, a character trait that governs dynamics of personality through due awareness of traits which include courage, honesty, accountability, justice, openness, self-respect, and humility (Promotion Fitness, 2004). Service before self explains how professional duties take precedence over personal duties and diligence to the organization's rules regardless of whether one is on or off duty (Promotion Fitness, 2004). The expectations to follow these values are uniformly applied to all levels. Excellence involves the individual commitment to seek continuous improvement and innovation which sustains and enhances the excellence model for the U.S. Air Force (Promotion Fitness, 2004).

The professional fitness protocol of core values serves three purposes. The first constitutes the price of admission for entering the U.S. Air Force. Former U.S. Secretary of Defense, Widnall, stated how "in essence, they are the three pillars of professionalism that provide the foundation for military leadership at every level" (Professional Fitness, 2004, p. 24). The second represents the static universal baseline for the U.S. Air Force's core values. Each

military branch adopts its discrete protocol of core values and the U.S. Air Force's selection represents the branch's obligation in the profession of arms. The third publicly proclaims an organizational culture based in professional and personal ethics, a key requirement for establishing trust-based leadership.

Leadership Approaches

In a quantitative study conducted by Humphreys (2001), transformational leaders exhibited stronger vision for emerging technologies in leadership, resulting in significantly stronger follower relationships, and ultimately more successful realization of mission-oriented goals. Transformational leadership always has been evident in some form throughout the history of business in the United States. However, as technology has advanced and as business has become globally integrated, the nature of transformational leadership also has evolved. Transformational leadership – in various charismatic or servant forms – can work positively or negatively. Followers can be encouraged to participate individually or collectively based on the mutual perceptions of leaders and followers of how the organizational culture is defined and cultivated (Northouse, 2004). The nature of follower input can vary but the important point to note is that the degree and extent of transformational leadership is governed by the extent, or lack, of control exercised respectively by leaders and by followers. From a positive perspective, though, the open invitation for followers to contribute freely or to encourage the leader to operate accordingly is a fundamental element in the practice of transformational leadership.

A meta-analysis review of research involving 222 correlations and 73 samples showed a convincing argument for the trait-based approach of leadership when based upon the "big five traits" of extraversion, neuroticism, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness (Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002, p. 772). The researchers concluded that

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extraversion, in particular, showed the strongest statistical significance as a contributor to leadership emergence as well as leadership effectiveness. Agreeableness, on the other hand, seemed to be the least relevant while the researchers noted that openness to experience was the "least understood and most controversial" trait (Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002, p. 774).

Focusing on how organizational culture is formed and how emotional intelligence is achieved, George (2000) concluded that relevant research should examine the presence and impact of emotional intelligence in organizations because "leaders must be attuned to their own and their followers' feelings, and express and embrace norms and values in a way that will appeal to and generate strong feelings" (p. 1038). The limitation of George's (2000) conclusion was that it was framed primarily from the leader's perspective without a fully comprehensive consideration of the followers' roles and responses to the manifestations of organizational culture. George (2000) emphasized heavily the use of action and verbal symbols in the cultivation of organizational culture.

Creativity and how it is encouraged and cultivated through leadership was the focus of a study involving nearly 200 employees working in the research and development arm of a large chemical company (Tierney, Farmer, & Graen, 1999). The study was significant because creativity is a valued attribute although one not typically required across a large number of job settings. The nature of the relationship between employee and supervisor – regardless of whether or not they shared traits of innovation or creativity – did not affect the quality, extent, or frequency of creative job performance. As long as it fell with the expectations of the job roles, supervisors supported their employees and did not force them into a particular practice that they disliked or did not prefer. The net impact of the study is to show that the two-way dynamics are

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less a result of fitting either a trait-based or relationship-based approach of leadership than a richer combination of both approaches.

Targeted personality traits and the presence of transformational and laissez faire leadership in organizations were the focus of a study on determining the tactics used by managers in 140 organizations in motivating their workers. On one level, personality factored significantly: "For example, extraverts were more likely to engage in outgoing, expressive tactics such as inspirational appeal and ingratiation, while individuals scoring high in agreeableness resisted confrontational tactics such as legitimization and pressure" (Cable & Judge, 2003, p. 199). When the results were controlled for personality traits, the researchers found that tactics of influence were geared toward the nature of the leadership style – whether it was transformational or visionary or it was laissez faire where the exchange of benefits was a precondition for a successful tactic of influence. The study was limited because it did not explore other types of leadership style. Again, the study seemed to suggest that rather than being a result of a trait-based or relationship-based approach, the realistic alternative was a combination of both in terms of their interactive effects.

In another study, the relationship between personality factors and self managed leadership was less clear, particularly in the realm of emotional stability. Houghton, Bonham, Neck, and Singh (2004) acknowledged that while the findings were relatively surprising, they believed that the sample used for this particular study (a large group of undergraduate university students) would not have been expected to be familiar with self-management techniques. However, the researchers added that those who have personality traits ideally suited for self-management strategies would be "naturally inclined" and motivated to seek out those types of strategies (Houghton, Bonham, Neck, & Singh, 2004). The research's limitation does not suggest

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a potentially significant role of personality traits in organizational strategies that encourage or empower employees to apply self-leadership techniques.

Some of the same traits linked to transformational leadership also appear in servant leadership assessments. Hamilton and Nord (2005) concluded that servant leadership embodied the traits of reflection, integrity, and passion. The leader must present a positive outlook to their followers in order to inspire them to work in the direction (mission) of the organization. This may be seen within all ranks of the military. The developing years of young enlistees in the U.S. Air Force play a formative role in leading individual members to cultivate an image founded in the core values of the service. It is no accident that the core values of the U.S. Air Force and of the servant leadership model overlap so extensively, even when there are limited, local, or regional differences in organizational culture. Integrity becomes the fundamental trait link across all levels of rank and hierarchy and it is the required precursor for passion, the third value of servant leadership. Servant leadership develops certain strength in encouraging followers in learning, growth, and autonomy. Hamilton and Nord (2005) concluded "that the untested theory will play a role in the future leadership of the learning organization" in relation to the Air Force.

Transformational leadership theory has been actively investigated since some early work such as Burns (1978) who defined four key elements as charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation, and consideration for the individual. Bass (1985) further refined this approach by exploring aspects of the followers needs. Charismatic leadership was researched in more depth by Rosenau (2004) and included leadership characteristics such as dominance, influence, self-confidence, and strong moral values. This study also supports Northouse's consideration of major leadership traits and characteristics. Rosenau (2004) discussed leadership charisma as it

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allows for certain missteps early in a leader's tenure but cautions that such missteps may be extremely costly later in the leader's tenure.

A related follow-up meta-analysis study using 384 correlations from 26 studies showed that extraversion was a critical trait component of transformational leadership (Bono & Judge, 2004). However, the researchers added that most of the empirical data regarding traits and their links to leadership were weak, suggesting that behaviors in both transformational and transactional leaders are not dependent particularly upon inherent or intrinsic traits. They also noted that the big five trait factor model might not be as useful and that narrower categorical descriptions of personality traits might be more productive in explaining leadership behaviors.

Trust in Leadership

The choice of leadership style also has an impact upon the employee's perception of fairness and trust, particularly in settings characterized by transformational leadership. Group solidarity and the open sharing of the organization's collective vision are important hallmarks for transformational leadership which the researchers concluded would "influence trust in the leader over the long-term and followers' tendency to engage in self-sacrificial behavior" (Pillai, Schriesheim, & Williams, 1999, p. 919). The researchers were careful to note the distinction from transactional leadership where fairness is expressed not in "procedural justice," but in "distributive justice" (Pillai, Schriesheim, & Williams, 1999, p. 921). There, the researchers concluded, transactional leadership has "no impact on trust." The researchers acknowledged the limitations of their study – which focused heavily on younger employees in entry-level jobs or with limited years of experience – because as employees rise through the ranks and as they accumulate years of experience, factors other than fair and equitable treatment and consideration

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become much more prominent in driving one's personal satisfaction and their commitment to the organization.

As organizational climates and cultures evolve – propelled primarily by an increasingly diverse workforce and organizational membership – some leaders have been compelled to adapt leadership styles that don't particularly respond well to diverse organizational environments. This uncomfortable setting as a new approach of leadership is considered to be "unnatural" leadership (Cairo, Dotlich, & Rhinesmith, 2005). Many of these leaders placed themselves in a deceiving comfort zone. If it worked before, it will work again.

In examining the research and results of nearly four decades of organizational leadership and the link to trust, the researchers sought to clarify the distinctions of the two dominant perspectives of this issue with the matter of leadership being either based on relationships or on traits. Noting that a more realistic perspective may fall between the two predominating ones, the researchers concluded that trust in leadership was most strongly influenced by work attitudes and then by behaviors that would be "self sacrificing," and finally by job performance (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Focusing on performance, a trust-based organizational leadership model would then be more attentive to "people's evaluations and attitudes regarding the workplace" (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002, p. 618).

Leaders today surround themselves with individuals who usually believe in the same manner. This also includes the comfort of understanding each other traits, responses, manner of thinking and executing, and specific views. In a group like this, the individuals place themselves in that comfort zone but breaking the comfort zone is productive. A natural leader's trust in individuals builds slowly, only after loyalty, performance, and commitment have been demonstrated in tough situations (Cairo, Dotlich, & Rhinesmith, 2005). In the rush to control the

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larger organizational culture, only a few who engage in natural leadership question where the approach came from or where it is leading, even in the face of failure or demonstrations of inadequacy (Cairo, Dotlich, & Rhinesmith, 2005).

Summary

This section has reviewed the relevant literature on the variables in this study, organizational commitment and trust as it relates to the intent of leaving the Air Force. This section further explained the history of leadership characteristics and style within the Air Force. It also presents a history of definitions of trust to current methodologies of trust as a psychological state. This literature review discussed the relevant literature of factors in commitment and the effects of commitment, which presents the foundation of this study into the commitment of junior officers' in the U.S. Air Force. The commitment literature also presents a strong relationship between junior officers' and senior officers' leadership style as well as the related issue of trust. Milligan (2003) studied demonstrated the relationship of commitment and the intent of junior officers' leaving the Air Force due to trust in leadership. This study has continued the research to add on the further conditions to the study as the Air Force is reducing their numbers. Junior officers' in the Air Force will have an online opportunity to take the surveys in order to reach a larger, diversify sample size. The study will follow a quantitative methodology and outline the research design with a theoretical framework.

CHAPTER 3. METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This study explores the role of trust in leadership in the U.S. Air Force and its officer's commitment and intention to leave the military. In this chapter the research method and design are discussed. It also contains the plan that was used to collect data for the study. This chapter will also discuss the instruments and methodology of this study to insure the data is collected in consistent to Milligan's (2003) previous study.

Research Method and Design Appropriateness

The purpose of the study is to first measure the perceptions of trust subordinate officers' have for their leadership and to measure the factors, degree, and extent to which those perceptions of trust influence the intentions of officers' to either stay or leave once their normal commitment period has expired. The study replicates the Milligan (2003) protocol by comparing the results of the current examination against the earlier results as a baseline. Together the two sets of data and results begin to form the basis of a longitudinal data tracking system in which military leaders can target internal and external factors that potentially have the greatest impact upon the perceived levels of organizational trust which, in turn, influence the individual's officer's intention to either stay or leave after their normal commitment period has expired. The four-year intervals represented by these two studies, in particular, coincide with the current conflict in Iraq which began in March, 2003.

This study incorporates a nonexperimental correlational descriptive design applying survey methodology as Milligan (2003) research four years ago. The nonexperimental design did not allow for the control of variable criteria and its descriptive nature applied to exploring potential correlates among existing observational phenomena. Surveys are the primary

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instrument in this study to provide a quantitative method of data gathering and allow the researcher to generalize about a population's attitude, behavior, or characteristics (Babbie, 1998).

The study will use a quantitative research method, where attempts of precise measurements on the research question and hypotheses are used (Cooper & Schindler, 2006). A qualitative study includes two or three focus groups or even a few dozen individual depth interviews (Cooper & Schindler, 2006). In this style there is a sampling approach known as nonprobability. This is where little attempt is made to generate a representative sample (Cooper & Schindler, 2006). A disadvantage of this research approach is the validity of the data collected and final results. As the quantitative uses a high volume of indirect methods with contact with participants, qualitative uses a high level of participation with the participants in the research (Cooper & Schindler, 2006). With Milligan's previous research approach, this method still remains to be the most affective.

The mixed-method design is another form of research method for a study in trust. This design does not fit the current study since a qualitative method would be required. The qualitative method is used to support theoretical driven research questions and hypotheses (Iurato, 2007). The research design goal for this study was to construct a similar study with predictor variables consisting of trust in leadership, organizational trust, and the intent of junior officers' leaving the Air Force. This fixed method allows the researcher to remain a greater physical and emotional distance from the study (Robson, 2002). A fixed research is considered to be the hallmark that a very substantial amount of pre-specification about what you are going to do, and how you are going to do it, should take place before you get in to the main part of the research study (Robson, 2002). Interviews are not optimal in the military. Military members are confined on how they answer interviews and must be approved through their local public affairs

department. The data must be available to the military at any time after the study. Approval of the final paper would be required from the public affairs department before publishing.

With previous validated instruments, the researchers is able to observe shifts, if any, in the relationship between the officer's intention of service and organizational commitment and their perceived levels of organizational trust. Data collected from the surveys through various statistical tests of rigor including a regression analysis that might identify and define the magnitude of the association between and among variables and the potential use of criterion variables as predictors. Cooper and Schindler (2006) showed that regression analysis informs the researcher's capacity for simple and multiplicative predictions among key variables. The research design is further explained in figure three. This illustrates how the research questions correspond to the research questions, hypotheses, variables, and the use of the specific measurement tools. When evaluating a research question the possible characteristics of an unsuccessful research question contains expedience, method and technique, motivation of publication, money or funding, and a lack of theory (Robson, 2002). As the research questions are developed, the hypothesis is developed to guide the direction of study, identifies facts that are and not relevant, suggests which form of research design, and provides a framework for organizing the conclusions (Cooper & Schindler, 2006).

The research design was developed to answer the research questions in conjunction with the hypotheses. The variables stated in the study consist of organizational trust, organizational commitment, and the intent to leave. Milligan (2003) completed the study with the current research design and found no errors with the design. The current design allows the researcher to test all variables with the measurement tools stated in figure three.

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Research Questions	Hypotheses	Variables	Measurement Tools
Relationship between trust and commitment	Trust is related to commitment	Trust	Management behavior climate assessment
Relationship between commitment and intent to leave	Commitment is related to intent to leave	Organizational commitment	Commitment Scales
Relationship between trust and intent to leave	Trust is related to intent to leave	Intent to leave	Intent to leave survey

Figure 3: Research Design

Research Questions

The main focus of this study is to determine the increase number of junior officers' in the Air Force staying or leaving after their commitment due to trust, to include recent operation tempo and the force shaping board. The following research questions parallel the 2003 study by Milligan in order to examine the study protocol's relevancy and internal/external validity.

1. What is the relationship between trust and organizational commitment in Air Force captains and their intent to leave the Air Force as junior officers'?

2. What is the relationship between organizational commitment and intent to leave the Air Force?

3. What is the relationship between trust and intent to leave the Air Force?

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These research questions were chosen to help the researcher narrow down the hypotheses and explain the relationship between the variables stated in the questions above. The study may help have a stronger understanding of the role in leadership in relations to trust, organizational commitment, and the intent to leave the Air Force as junior officers'. These research questions also directly correspond with the hypotheses of this study.

Hypotheses

The primary hypotheses will lead to a direct relationship between junior officers' leaving after their commitment is complete due to trust. The following hypotheses parallel the 2003 study by Milligan in order to examine the study protocol's relevancy and internal/external validity.

H_1. There is a relationship between trust and the affect of its commitment in junior officers' staying in the Air Force.

H_{1o}. There is no relationship between trust and the affect of its commitment in junior officers' staying in the Air Force.

H_{1a}. Trust is directly related to commitment.

H_2. There is a relationship between organizational commitment and intent for junior officers' leaving the Air Force.

H_{2o}. There is no relationship between organizational commitment and intent for junior officers' leaving the Air Force.

H_{2a}. Organizational commitment is directly related to the intent for junior officers' leaving the Air Force.

H_3. There is a relationship between trust and intent for junior officer leaving the Air Force.

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H3o. There is no relationship between trust and intent for junior officer leaving the Air Force.

H3a. Trust is directly related to the intent for junior officers' leaving the Air Force.

These hypotheses allow the researcher to explore any relationship between trusts, the role trust has, organizational commitment, and the intent of junior officers' leaving the Air Force. The researcher believes that there is a direct relationship between all the variables in the research design illustrated in figure three.

Population, Sampling, and Data Collection Procedures

Population and Sampling

The research will focus on junior officers' at the captain rank in the U.S. Air Force. Captain rank is achieved after four years of military service in the U.S. Air Force. The initial required commitment is completed and the individual has the opportunity to leave the military. Depending upon the career field and officer commitment, the individual may owe more time, but also might reenlist voluntarily. Following Milligan's protocol, the sample will be selected from among junior officers' who have vested only four years in the system. In the U.S. Air Force, the universal population for this officer rank group is the largest, representing 30 % of the total officer corps of 71,691 (Air Force Personnel, 2003).

The sample for this study is drawn using nonprobability sampling techniques (convenience and purposive sampling) from among captains in the Air Force. This differs from Milligan's research in 2003 with Squadron Officer School (SOS) students located at Maxwell Air Force Base, Alabama. The current study will include online participation of any Air Force member who falls under the criteria listed below.

To be included in the sample, officers' were required to meet the following criteria:

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1. Participants hold the rank of Captain;

2. Participants are eligible to leave the military service;

3. Participants' commitment is completed;

4. Participants hold active duty status in the United States Air Force or Air Force Reserve.

Setting

This study will be conducted outside the United States Air Force based on a volunteer basis. The research will focus on junior officers' (Air Force Captains). The online survey will be accessible to both active duty Air Force captains and Air Force Reserve members. The location is unlimited with the use of the internet and internet access. Survey participation will not be allowed on government property following Air Force Instruction 36-2601 date 1 February 1996.

Force shaping is broken into two phases. The first phase intended to get the interest out to the airmen and see who is interested in separating. Individuals who wanted to get a discharge from the military with no commitment are able too. Individuals are able to retire early with full benefits from the military. The initial goal of force shaping was to have 16,600 airmen leave the Air Force, 3,900 officers' and 13,700 enlisted (Air Force, 2006). Those numbers are projected to increase to almost 19,000 by Sept. 30, and to 24,000 by Sept. 30, 2007, because of record retention rates (Air Force, 2006). Phase One had some requirements for individuals to have a minimum of 24 months on active duty before they could attempt the process to apply for the Palace Chase program.

The Palace Chase is a program where active duty individuals can finish their commitment in the reserves or guard. The strategic advantage to the Palace Chase program is the possibility of opportunities to any airmen who is interested in serving in the Air National Guard or Air Force

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Reserve. This is a great opportunity for individuals who have other plans and would like to separate early. The Air National Guard and Air Force Reserve require service of one weekend a month and two weeks a year. One main advantage of this program is the ability to relocate to a desirable location due to family or other reasons.

Phase One was completed in the Air Force and the second phase were implemented. The first phase allowed senior leadership to get a better grasp of the airmen's feeling for the plan. It also allowed them to see the number of airmen interested as compared with not interested in leaving the Air Force.

Phase Two dropped the requirement of 24 months to 12 months of active duty time before airmen could apply for the Palace Chase program. Phase Two also allowed a full waiver of the commitment time following a permanent change of station while Phase One waived up to 18 months. This phase reduced the minimum mandatory time in grade to two years instead of three years (Air Force, 2006). One great advantage of this strategy of reducing numbers is the required separation of those individuals in correctional custody, referral reports, unfavorable information files, Article 15 action, control roster restrictions, confinement, alcohol- or drug-related offenses, and financial irresponsibility or mismanagement (Air Force, 2006).

These two phases correspond well with each other as the strategic goal is to decrease the number of airmen in the Air Force. "Phase One will put us on a glide slope to reduce the size of the force without (increasing) manning shortages in the specialties," said Maj. Dawn Keasley, chief of retirement and separation policy, at the Pentagon. "Phase II increases that momentum" (Air Force, 2006). The chief of retirement and separation policy at the Pentagon stated the current consideration of force shaping to the manning health of the airmen's specialty by both

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the year group and the grade (for officers') or skill level (for enlisted). This will be a part of the discussion ensuing from the project research.

The military's retention rate after Vietnam was very low. The military then implemented a new strategy to help retain more members in the military as well as to gain more recruits. The military promised new troops retirement pay after 20 years of service with full medical benefits as a veteran. Currently, with the "incredibly high retention and a slow recovering economy are the primary factors in the increase of personnel overages," said Col. Mike Hayden, chief of the military policy division at the Pentagon (Air Force, 2006). Col Mike Hayden also informs the military that retention rates in the Air Force are at their highest in a decade.

The military has not implemented a draft since 1973. The United States has moved forward to an all-volunteer military (Williams, 2004). Levels kept decreasing in many of the U.S. Armed Forces but mostly noticed in the Army and National Guard. One of the top leading National Guard recruiting officers' stated that 70 % of the deficit in sign-ups is the result of soldiers declining to join the Guard when they leave active duty because they do not want to be sent right back to Iraq (Thompson, 2005). Thompson continued to illustrate the lack of activity, as in peacetime, when many active-duty solders go into the Guard for the extra money and camaraderie but there is a lack of interest. Staffing imbalances have roots in the systemic flaws of military pay and retirement structures (Williams, 2004). "The balance was well known before the all-volunteer force was created and will persist even if the United States returns to a draft," stated by the Chief of Naval Operations Adm. Vern Clark (Williams, 2004, p.).

There is a staffing problem which stems from pay issues and economic comparisons to the civilian sector. This is seen within the airline industry taking the pilots, the health care providing better pay for medical doctors, and management (Williams, 2004). With years of

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experience, officers' are well sought in the civilian sector to manage and lead organizations. Service members with technology skills often are underpaid in comparison with those in the private sector, while the ones who lack those skills might be paid substantially more than their private sector counterparts (Williams, 2004).

Literature demonstrates how the corporate world is changing and has similarities to the U.S. military every day. The organizational commitment leadership ensures that its employees are determined by its leadership characteristics. The military is downsizing and members are concerned of their future in the military. With an increasingly globally interdependent economy, the employment of new technology, and the changes of dynamics in military leadership, the analysis of the link between trust and organizational commitment as it is manifested within the U.S. Air Force becomes central to study the effectiveness of leadership strategies within one of the major branches of the national armed forces.

Survey Instrumentation / Measures

Three survey instruments are proposed to meet the results and objective of this study. The identical instruments used in Milligan's (2003) study would be conducted to validate the study four years later. Although conditions have changed as the military is forcing individuals out of the Air Force, and the operation tempo of the war has increased, there is no evidence of a large enough change to re-do the validity and reliability of the survey instruments. The idea of members leaving as a factor of the war (operation tempo) has not changed from the first study to the current study.

The first instrument is a survey: the Management Behavior Climate Assessment (MBCA) developed by Sashkin (1996) to measure trust and validated by Levin (1999) and Lafferty (2003). This survey measures trust as an integral part of the organizational climate created by the

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behaviors of senior leadership (Levin, 1999). This survey is a 50-question tool consisting of ten scales of five items. The scales consist of I - IV measured Sashkin's (1996) consistency construct to include the following:

1. Consistency is how one acts toward people;

2. Consistency in what one tells different people;

3. Consistency in actions over time;

4. Consistency in what one says over time.

Scales VI - IX measures Sashkin's (1996) creditability construct on the theory of trust. Scale V measured how the information is disclosed and its relevance, as scale X measured only the trustworthiness of leadership. The scale uses a five-point Likert scale: ranging from always or almost always to rarely or never. This five independent sample allows Sashkin's measure to be both reliable and valid. Levin tested all ten scales to be internally reliable with Cronbach's coefficient alphas ranging from .77 to .91 (Milligan, 2003; Levin, 1999, and Sashkin, 1996). Cronbach's alpha is a coefficient of consistency, this allows it to meet the minimum threshold of a=.70 (Sashkin, 1996).

The second survey instrument will use the affective, normative, and continuance commitment scales to measure organizational commitment developed earlier (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Meyer and Allen (1996) validated all three scales to include the continuance scale. This survey consists of twenty-four questions to address the issues of organizational commitment. Meyer and Allen (1991, 1996) reported Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranging from a=.74 to a=.89 for the affective commitment scale; .69 to .84 for the continuance commitment scale; and .69 to .79 for the normative commitment scale (Milligan, 2003). The coefficients of reliability

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apply consistently between and among the scales presented in the affective commitment scale and the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire being used in the study (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

The third instrument is a three-item measure of intention to leave military service which Milligan altered to fit the research and was again altered to be more specific in nature. Milligan (2003) altered the questions allowing her to focus on the specific nature of the study. The study is being conducted four years later to compare the results and variables. Mobley, Horner, and Hallingsworth (1978) and Camman, Fichman, Jenkins and Klesh (1983) and Jaros (1997) developed and tested a three-item index of employees' intention to leave their job where Milligan modified the three-item index to fit the research. The questions were then altered to be more specific towards the Air Force and the specific study service and commitment. The questions consisted of intentions about resigning, probability of finding acceptable employment or service alternatives, and the intention to search for a new job or career? The Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (MOA) is a three-item survey developed in part by Cammen, Fichman, Jenkins, and Klesh (1982):

1. How likely is it that you will actively look for a new job in the next year?
2. I often think of quitting?
3. I will probably look for a new job in the next year.

The study needed to be altered in order to fit the reflection of the realities of members leaving the military service. The three items proposed by Milligan (2003) with some further clarification and will be measured on a five point Likert scale as the first instrument in the study:

1. How likely is it that you will remain in the Air Force/Air Force Reserve after your commitment is fulfilled?

2. I often think of leaving the Air Force/Air Force Reserve after my commitment is complete.

3. I will probably start looking for new career opportunities outside of the military.

Data Collection

All surveys are going to be available for any military member desiring to participate in the study. The surveys are going to be administered during any time after two weeks of approval from Capella University. Surveys will be available to the participants for two weeks – 14 days after approval. The surveyed will be in accordance to Air Force Instruction 36-2601. Each member will be expected to complete the survey individually. The completed surveys will be recorded online. All members will receive a letter from the researcher explaining the study. There will be no incentives promised or offered in the participation of the study. All participants have a choice to participate or not to participate in this study. There will no repercussions for participants who decide to participate in accordance to Air Force Instruction 36-2601.

No permission is required for members to accomplish a survey at home or in their personal time. The survey's followed the Air Force Instruction (AFI) 36-2601 dated 1 February, 1996 and AU Supplement dated 19 July, 2002. With the approval of the dissertation proposal, members will receive a letter explaining the study, a pass code with the survey's website, and instructions as given by the survey website server. The researcher's local Public Affairs (PA) office was also contacted and received approval for the following study. A copy of the finalized dissertation will be reviewed by the PA office as part of the approval process. Research participation will be voluntary and incentives will not be offered for participation.

Military personnel are not permitted to use government computers to answer the online survey during duty per AFI 36-2601. No names will be used for survey participation and any demographic information collected used for research categorical purposes.

In addition to the surveys, respondents will be asked to provide the following demographic information for research categorical purposes:

1. Years in Service

2. Air Force specialty code (AFSC)

3. Gender

4. Ethnicity

5. Commissioning program

6. Age

7. Education level

8. Any prior service

Data Analysis

Data from surveys and demographic reporting information will be tabulated, coded and entered using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software. All statistical analyses will be pegged at the 95 % confidence level ($p = .05$). The test results are generally displayed in table, graphs, and diagrams which depict data distribution in able to produce a visual display of differences or changes in the variables being studied (Polit & Hungler, 1995). The same surveys used in Milligan's (2003) research were used in order to obtain the same validity of the research. A proposed sample size of ($n = 400$) power is calculated to be .90. The following analyses were determined for use in this study:

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1. Correlational analysis will be used to evaluate the relationship among trust, affective continuance, and normative commitment levels, and intention to leave the Air Force (Milligan, 2003).

2. Analysis of variance will be performed to determine the mean scores on the three instruments as they related to the demographics (Milligan, 2003). Leedy and Ormrod (2001) developed a procedure to determine whether the difference between mean scores of two or more groups on a dependent variable is statistically significant in an analysis of variance throughout a study.

3. Regression analysis on trust, organizational commitment, and intention to leave the Air Force (Milligan, 2003).

4. Demographic information. The proposed collected demographic information will be used to assess the capacity for generalizing the results of the sample to the larger captain population of the U.S. Air Force.

The data collected from Milligan's (2003) research and the current research will be compared to each other to determine any relationship, significant differences, or to prove an increase of junior officers' leaving the Air Force due to trust. The data may also illustrate other possible variables or even outside factors for future studies. This study will demonstrate correlational matrices on the relationship between variables and the significance of the relationships of both sets of data. A one-way analysis of variance between research variables on the demographic information will also be compared by the F ratio and significance value. The F ratio is the ratio of two estimates of the population variance: the between-groups and the within-groups mean squares (Norusis, 2005). The final comparison will be on the regression analysis accomplished to determine predictability between study variables and help for future studies.

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Validity and Reliability

This study considers the validity on whether an instrument measures what it is intended to measure and reliability on how consistent the instrument results are for repeated measurements. As the study is conducted, the lower the variation an instrument produces in repeated measurements the higher its reliability (Hutchison, 2005). The validity and reliability of each survey is further explained in the instrumentation section of this chapter. All three instruments have been validated and are being used again four years later after Milligan's (2003) research.

Ethical Considerations

Confidentiality requirements will be protected at all time and the researcher will be the only one who will have access to the surveys. When the surveys are discarded, a proper method of destruction will be conducted by using a shredder. All surveys will be kept in a locked cabinet in the researcher's home office for five years after the research is complete.

Summary

A quantitative approach is proposed in this chapter as the appropriate method of research. This method was chosen to be the most appropriate in accordance with the beliefs about leadership in the U.S. military and the support needed by a quantitative method instead of a qualitative. The researcher will follow the methodology in the chapter to collect and measure the raw data. In Chapter 4, the data will be analyzed to any patterns and trends related to the research questions/hypotheses. All findings and results of the data will be discussed.

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CHAPTER 4. RESULTS

Introduction

This chapter will present a complete statistical analysis of the research data received and their organization within the study. The first section will explain the results received from all participants and any reasons for disqualifying surveys. This chapter will also include how missing data were handled in the research. Another section in this chapter will (a) further examine the psychometrics of each instrument by looking at their reliability and (b) construct validity test on Management Behavior Climate Assessment (MBCA) and the Organizational Commitment Scales. A complete descriptive statistic for each instrument will be described. Further, this chapter will reexamine the research hypotheses and the data analysis regarding the support or rejection of the hypotheses described in this study. Another section will discuss the results of the one-way analysis of variance between variable by demographic information. To complete this chapter, the results of regression analysis are presented, which determine predictability between study variables in the study.

Data Screening

The research depended on the availability of the Internet. E-mails were sent to captains within the U.S. Air Force and U.S. Air Force Reserve, for participation. This technique was different than the one used in Milligan's research in 2003, because a squadron officer school class had been the sample size in that study. An online survey was conducted in this research. A random sample size of 400 captains was selected from the Air Force global e-mail directory. From this sample size, 372 participants responded to the research survey, resulting in a 93% response rate. The survey was set up for each participant to answer all questions. No survey was disqualified due to this factor. The final sample size used in this research was 93%, totaling 372

surveys. Table 1 presents demographic information for the Air Force O-3/captain population, the

current study group, and total research participation.

Table 1: Respondent Demographic Information

	Air Force N = 22,890*	%	Study Group N = 400	%	Respondents N = 372	%
GENDER						
Male	18,344	80.1	325	81.3	312	83.9
Female	4,546	19.9	75	18.7	60	16.1
RACE/ETHNICITY						
White	N/A		N/A		276	74.2
African American	N/A		N/A		24	6.5
Asian/Pacific Islander	N/A		N/A		18	4.8
Hispanic/Latino	N/A		N/A		12	3.2
Native American	N/A		N/A		18	4.8
Other	N/A		N/A		24	6.5
AGE GROUP						
17-24	16	0.10	N/A		6	1.6
25-34	16,574	72.4	N/A		306	82.3
33-44	5,911	25.8	N/A		60	16.1
45+	389	1.70	N/A		0	0
EDUCATION						
Bachelors (BA/BS)	13,851	59.3	N/A		198	53.2
Masters (MA/MS)	6,094	26.6	N/A		174	46.8
Other (PhD, Unknown)	3,215	14.1	N/A		0	0
SOURCE OF COMMISSION						
Air Force Academy	3,894	17.0	N/A		18	4.8
Officer Training School	6,231	27.2	N/A		90	24.3
ROTC	8,275	36.2	N/A		246	66.1
Other	4,490	19.6	N/A		18	4.8

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Table 1: Respondent Demographic Information, continued

	Air Force N = 22,890*	%	Study Group N = 400	%	Respondents N = 372	%
AIR FORCE SPECIALTY						
Pilot	5,672	24.8	N/A		33	8.9
Navigator	1,446	6.2	N/A		29	7.8
Space/Missile	1,891	8.3	N/A		128	34.4
Acquisition/Finance	2,413	10.5	N/A		3	0.81
Intelligence	959	4.2	N/A		10	2.7
Legal	861	3.8	N/A		4	1.1
Medical	4,137	17.8	N/A		30	8.1
Logistics	1,197	5.2	N/A		57	15.3
Weather	24	0.4	N/A		1	0.19
Support/Other	4,290	18.8	N/A		77	20.7

* Air Force Personnel Center, as of June 2008

The researcher believes an online survey was a positive choice in collecting data from the overall Air Force captain population. Milligan's (2003) purposive sample of the squadron officer school was a helpful tool; in the section for future research an online survey was recommended. This recommendation proved its use in this current study.

Demographics of Respondents

The study consisted of three instruments and a demographic questionnaire at the end of the surveys. This was used to compare the level of participation in the survey with a proper ratio to the sample size. The demographic data provided a wide range of information to decide eligibility of these research criteria. The data demonstrated (45%) of the participants have been in the military for four years, making them eligible to leave at any time, because their initial commitment had been completed. Respondents were asked to provide information on their

highest level of education. This is seen in Figure 4. The questionnaire found that (53.3%) of the respondents had a bachelor's and (46.7%) had a master's degree.
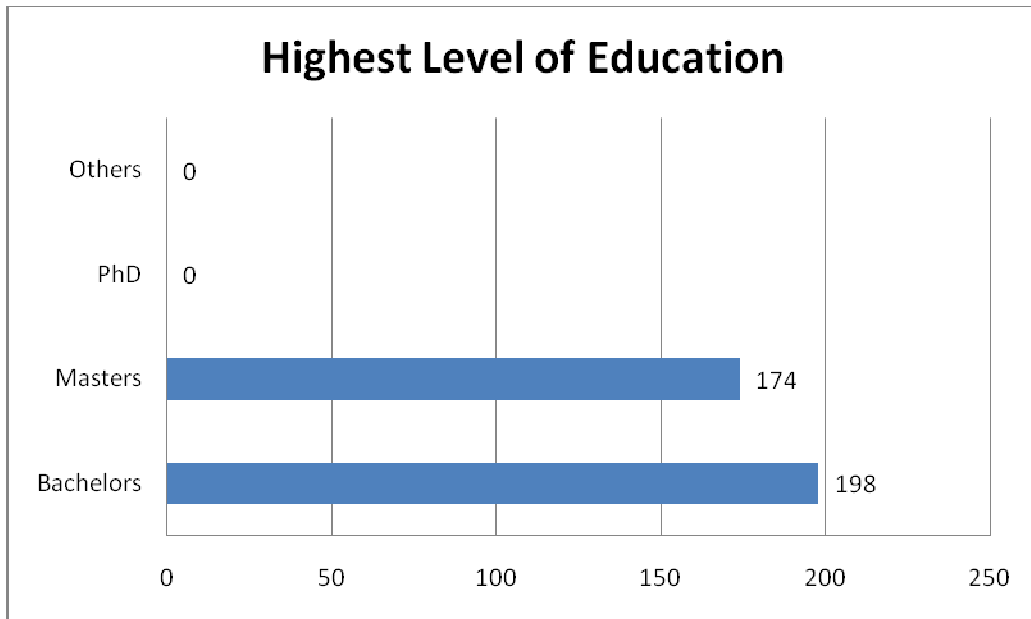
Figure 4: Highest Level of Education

Figure 5 illustrates the breakdown of the gender respondents, of which approxmilty 84% were male and 16% female.
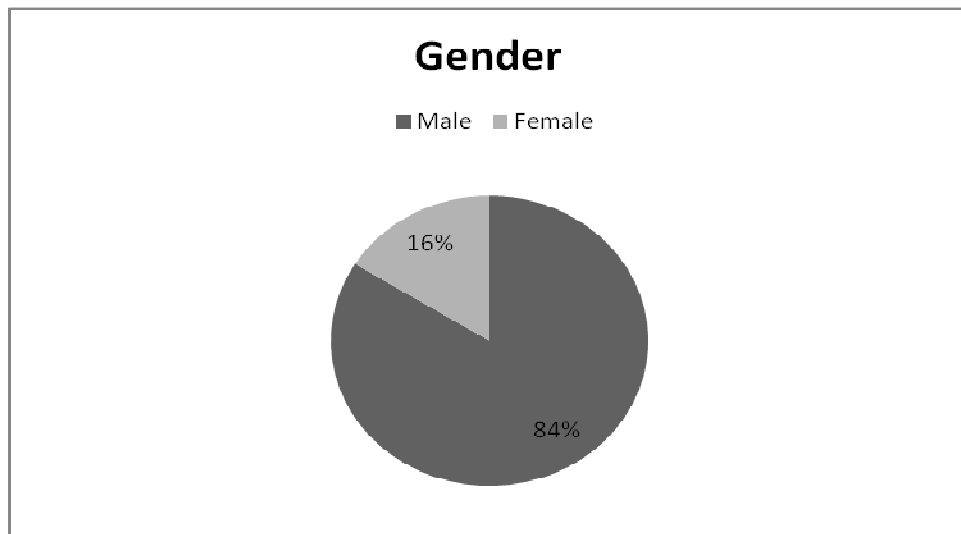
Figure 5: Gender

Pearson's chi-square is used to analyze the respondent's demographics (Table 1) compared to the Air Force population. Tables 2-4 represent a crosstabulation of the respondent information to the demographic survey to include: gender, age, and source of commission. The following analysis was created to distinguish any relationship of importance between the following study and the actual Air Force population.

Table 2: Gender Crosstabulation (My Sample vs. All USAF)

			Group		
			All USAF	My Sample	Total
Gender	Male	Count	18344	312	18656
		% within Group	80.10%	83.90%	80.20%
	Female	Count	4546	60	4606
		% within Group	19.90%	16.10%	19.80%
Total		Count	22890	372	23262
		% within Group	100%	100%	100%

The chi-square value is 3.209 with a *p* value of 0.042 which is less than 0.05 representing a significant difference.

Table 3: Age Crosstabulation (My Sample vs. All USAF)

			Group		
			All USAF	My Sample	Total
Age	17-24	Count	16	6	22
		% within Group	0.10%	1.60%	0.10%
	25-34	Count	16574	306	16880
		% within Group	72.40%	82.30%	72.60%
	35-44	Count	5911	60	5971
		% within Group	25.8%	16.1%	26%
	45+	Count	389	0	389
		% within Group	1.70%	0.00%	1.70%
Total		Count	22890	372	23262
		% within Group	100%	100%	100%

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The chi-square value is 116.771 with a *p* value of <.001 which is less than 0.05

representing a significant difference.

Table 4: Source of Commission Crosstabulation (My Sample vs. All USAF)

| | | | Group | | |
			All USAF	My Sample	Total
Source of Commission	ROTC	Count	8275	246	8521
		% within Group	36.20%	66.10%	36.60%
	Academy	Count	3894	18	3912
		% within Group	17.00%	4.80%	16.80%
	OTS	Count	6231	90	6321
		% within Group	27.2%	24.2%	27%
	Other	Count	4490	18	4508
		% within Group	19.60%	4.80%	19.40%
Total		Count	22890	372	23262
		% within Group	100%	100%	100%

The chi-square value is 164.539 with a *p* value of <.001which is less than 0.05

representing a significant difference.

Psychometrics of Instruments

In the following section the reliability and validity of the Management Behavior Climate

Assessment; the Affective, Continuous, and Normative Commitment Scales; and the Intent To

Leave Survey will be reviewed. When looking at the reliability of the instruments used in this

research, reliability is often measured using Chronbach's Alpha, evaluating the instruments using

a total of number of items in the scale and the average correlation between pairs of them (Nardi,

2003). In looking at Chronbach's Alpha, George and Mallery (2003) valued the following:

$$\alpha = \frac{N \cdot \bar{c}}{\bar{v} + (N-1) \cdot \bar{c}}$$

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N is equal to the number of items, *c-bar* is the average interitem covariance among the

items and *v-bar* equals the average variance.

Table 5: Chronbach's Alpha Standards

Excellent	Good	Acceptable	Questionable	Poor	Unacceptable
α > 0.9	α > 0.8	α > 0.7	α > 0.6	α > 0.5	α < 0.5

All instruments in this study have been previously proven to be valid, with high

reliability measure, as seen in Levin (1999), Lafferty (2003), and Milligan (2003).

The Management Behavior Climate Assessment

The Manage Behavior Climate Assessment (MBCA) is a 50-item survey consisting of 10

scales of five items each. The scales in the instrument measure the following:

1. Consistency I Scale: Consistency in the Actions of Senior Leadership Toward Different People (Items 1, 11, 21, 31, 41).

2. Consistency II Scale: Consistency in the Statements of Senior Leadership to Different People (Items 2, 12, 22, 32, 42).

3. Consistency III Scale: Consistency in the Actions of Senior Leadership at Different Times (Items 3, 13, 23, 33, 43).

4. Consistency IV Scale: Consistency in the Statements of Senior Leadership at Different Times (Items 4, 14, 24, 34, 44).

5. Relevancy V Scale: Relevance of Shared Information (Items 5, 15, 25, 35, 45).

6. Credibility VI Scale: Words of Senior Leadership Accurately Reflect Past Actions (Items 6, 16, 26, 36, 46).

7. Credibility VII Scale: Words of Senior Leadership Accurately Predict Future Actions (Items 7, 17, 27, 37, 47).

8. Credibility VIII Scale: Words of Senior Leadership Accurately Predict Promised Actions (Items 8, 18, 28, 38, 48).

9. Credibility IX Scale: Words of Senior Leadership Accurately Predict Future Outcomes (Items 9, 19, 29, 39, 49).

10. Trustworthiness X Scale: Overall Trustworthiness of Senior Leadership (Items 10, 20, 30, 40, 50).

Because scholars have used these scales in previous studies, all 10 scales have displayed good reliability. This good reliability is followed on in the current study. Table 6 demonstrates the current reliability data for MBCA and a comparison to Levin (1999), Lafferty (2003), and Milligan (2003).

Table 6: Reliability of MBCA

Scales	Levin (1999) Chronbach's Alpha	Lafferty (2003) Chronbach's Alpha	Milligan (2003) Chronbach's Alpha	Current Study Chronbach's Alpha
Consistency I	0.80	0.8782	0.8328	0.8543
Consistency II	0.77	0.8821	0.7787	0.8267
Consistency III	0.84	0.9168	0.8378	0.8790
Consistency IV	0.88	0.9210	0.8465	0.8576
Relevancy V	0.77	0.8820	0.8521	0.8708
Credibility VI	0.81	0.9273	0.8615	0.8347
Credibility VII	0.91	0.9488	0.8861	0.9154
Credibility VIII	0.93	0.9557	0.8927	0.9222
Credibility IX	0.89	0.9217	0.8647	0.9012
Trustworthiness X	0.91	0.9363	0.8638	0.8605
Combined I-IV	0.95	0.9655	0.9433	0.9542
Combined VI-IX	0.97	0.9802	0.9480	0.9587

MBCA was analyzed to determine internal correlations between scales, as seen in Table 7.

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Table 7: Correlation Analysis of MBCA Scales

Scale	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Consistency I	1									
Consistency II	0.745	1								
Consistency III	0.719	0.817	1							
Consistency IV	0.725	0.832	0.896	1						
Relevancy V	0.767	0.680	0.705	0.766	1					
Credibility VI	0.701	0.708	0.754	0.786	0.799	1				
Credibility VII	0.698	0.763	0.867	0.856	0.743	0.81	1			
Credibility VIII	0.697	0.736	0.808	0.843	0.743	0.802	0.892	1		
Credibility IX	0.696	0.737	0.822	0.832	0.740	0.802	0.864	0.813	1	
Trustworthiness X	0.745	0.687	0.777	0.746	0.727	0.801	0.782	0.812	0.741	1

A confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to test the MBCA for construct validity factor, as compared in Milligan (2003). This is an exploratory multivariate technique used to assess the dimensionality of a set of variables (Elliot, 2001; Milligan 2003). This was used to identify a small number of factors that may represent relationships among sets of interrelated variables (George & Mallery, 2001). A factor analysis process was also conducted in this study. This process is used to follow Milligan's (2003) study, which mirrored the process developed by Levin (1999) and which was later furthered by Lafferty (2003). The factor analysis was first used in looking at how the number of factors are determined and emerged by using a principle component extraction method with an unrotated factor solution. These criteria used will identify construct accounting for variance among the items (Lafferty, 2003; Levin, 1999).

A second factor analysis procedure was demonstrated on this study. A Varimax rotation method with a Kaiser Normalization procedure using an eigenvalue of > 1.00 is the second factor analysis. This process allowed a clearer factor structure to be noticeable because the factors associated with each other. Again, six factors developed from the rotated factor analysis,

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as seen with the first analysis. Table 8 presents the results of the factor analysis for the 50-item question survey, MBCA.

Table 8: Factor Analysis of the MBCA

Factor	No. of Items	Scale	Items
		Consistency II Scale	32
		Consistency III Scale	33, 43
		Consistency IV Scale	34, 44
		Credibility VI Scale	16, 26, 36, 46
I	27	Credibility VII Scale	17, 27, 37, 47
		Credibility VIII Scale	8, 18, 28, 38, 48
		Credibility IX Scale	9, 19, 29, 39, 49
		Trustworthiness	20, 30, 40, 50
		Consistency I Scale	21
		Consistency II Scale	22
		Consistency III Scale	23
II	6	Consistency IV Scale	23
		Relevancy V Scale	25
		Trustworthiness	10
III	5	Relevancy V Scale	5, 15, 35, 45
		Credibility VIII Scale	6
		Consistency II Scale	12, 42
IV	4	Consistency III Scale	13
		Consistency IV Scale	14
V	3	Consistency I Scale	11, 31, 41
		Consistency I Scale	1
		Consistency II Scale	2
VI	5	Consistency III Scale	3
		Consistency IV Scale	4
		Credibility VII Scale	7

Organizational Commitment Scales

Three commitment scales have been proven standard, as developed by Meyer and Allen (1991) and Milligan (2003), for organizational commitment. The three scales are identified as

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affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. Affective

commitment scales measure how an individual is attached to the organization. The continuance

commitment scale is measures how an individual is invested in the organization. Finally, the

normative commitment scale measures the level of an individual's loyalty or obligation to the

organization. Previous scholars have proven the validity of these scales and confirming their

reliability in this research. Table 9 represents past scholars' reliability scores with the present

reliability statistics.

Table 9: Reliability of Commitment Scales

Scales	Allen& Meyer (1996) Cronbach's Alpha	Flynn (2000) Cronbach's Alpha	Milligan (2003) Cronbach's Alpha	Current Study Cronbach's Alpha
Affective Commitment	0.85	0.82	0.7798	0.7981
Continuance Commitment	0.79	0.79	0.8986	0.8562
Normative Commitment	0.73	0.67	0.8657	0.8789

In this research Meyer and Allen's (1991) scales were analyzed, finding internal

correlations. The same was found to be true for Milligan's (2003) study. Table 10 shows the

internal correlation analysis of the commitment scales. In Milligan's (2003) study there was no

significance relation between affective commitment and continuance commitment. There was a

strong relationship between affective and normative commitment. There was a small significance

between continuance and normative commitment, but this comparison was not the strongest.

Table 10: Correlation Analysis of Commitment Scales

Scales	1	2	3
Affective Commitment	1.000		
Continuance Commitment	0.067	1.000	
Normative Commitment	0.578	0.250	1.000

Meyer and Allen's 24-item Organizational Commitment Scales went through a confirmatory factor analysis to confirm the three-component theory of organizational commitment, as in Milligan's study (2003). Similarly to the MBCA, the Organizational Commitment Scale factors were rotated using the Varimax rotation procedure with Kaiser Normalization. The first factor (Affective) consisted of items 1, 4, 7, 10, 13, 16, 19, and 22. The second factor (Continuance) consisted of items 2, 3, 5, 6, 8, 11, 12, 17, 20, 21 and 23. The third factor (Normative) consisted of items 3, 6, 9, 12, 15, 18, 21, and 24. As in Milligan's research, there were some items that loaded into multiple factors. Factor 3 (Normative) is the factor with some items floating within the other factors.

Intent to Leave Scale

The Intent to Leave Scale was the last instrument used in this research. The instrument was only a three-item survey to measure the intent of junior officers' to leave the Air Force. Milligan (2003) modified the instrument from three previous instruments develop to measure intent to leave and was then again modified by the researcher to address this research. Because this was a modified instrument, reliability studies are not available. A previous study conducted by Jaros (1997) was similar, with a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.80, and Milligan's (2003) study showed a reliability alpha of .08401. Table 11 represents the current reliability statistics of the Intent to Leave Survey used in this study.

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Table 11: Reliability of Intent to Leave Scale

Intent to Leave Survey	Cronbach's Alpha	Guttman's Split Half
	0.8548	0.7995

Statistics

This research was a follow-on study to compare Milligan's research in 2003. Three of the similar instruments used in Milligan's research are adapted in this research with minor changes. The MBCA is a 50-item measure comprised of 10 scales of five items, as seen in Tables 6 and 8. In this research each item was measured in a five-point Likert scale that measured responses along a continuum of Always/Almost Always/ Never. A score system was adapted to the responses. One to five points was possible for each response, resulting in a score of 5 to 25 possible points for each scale of five items. Table 12 demonstrates the descriptive statistics for the MBCA.

Table 12: Descriptive Statistics for MBCA

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
Consistency I Scale	5	25	18.45	3.64
Consistency II Scale	10	25	17.87	2.78
Consistency III Scale	10	25	19.09	3.12
Consistency IV Scale	5	25	18.56	2.99
Relevancy V Scale	5	25	17.98	2.54
Credibility VI Scale	10	25	19.36	3.12
Credibility VII Scale	10	25	19.77	2.96
Credibility VIII Scale	5	25	18.65	2.75
Credibility IX Scale	10	25	19.12	2.67
Trustworthiness Scale	10	25	20.01	2.87
Overall Consistency (I-IV)	50	100	76.11	10.05
Overall Credibility (VI-IX)	40	100	73.45	10.11
Overall Trust (I-X)	120	250	198.71	28.54

In the Commitment Scale, an eight-item survey was scored on a seven-point Likert scale, with responses ranging from Strongly Agree (seven-point) to Strongly Disagree (one-point). In this instrument each scale had a possible low score of 9 and high score of 56. Table 13 illustrates the descriptive statistics for Commitment Scales.

Table 13: Descriptive Statistics for Commitment Scales

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
Affective Commitment	16	56	41.28	8.21
Continuous Commitment	9	56	34.87	10.89
Normative Commitment	14	56	32.54	7.98

The Intent to Leave Survey is a three-item scale scored on a similar Likert scale as the Commitment Scale. The responses range from Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree for two items of the three-item surveys. The third item response ranges from Very Likely (five-point) to Very Unlikely (one-point). The response of a five-point portrays a high intent to leave the military whereas a one-point represents a low intent in leaving the military. Table 14 presents the descriptive statistic for the Intent to Leave Survey used in the research.

Table 14: Descriptive Statistics for Intent to Leave Survey

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
Intent to Leave	3	15	10.43	4.65

Hypothesis Testing

This research was developed to test and explore the levels of trust junior officers' have in the Air Force. The following study was completed by utilizing Sashkin's Management Behavior

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Climate Assessment scale, an organizational commitment scale by Meyer and Allen (1991), and an intent to leave. This research followed Milligan's (2003) study with three questions, but only three corresponding hypotheses instead of seven. This following section is going to review each question and hypothesis separately.

The first research question is "What is the relationship between trust and organizational commitment in Air Force captains and their intent to leave the Air Force as junior officers'?" For this question the following alternative, null, and contingent alternative hypotheses were developed:

H_1. There is a relationship between trust and the affect of its commitment in junior officers' staying in the Air Force.

H_{1o}. There is no relationship between trust and the affect of its commitment in junior officers' staying in the Air Force.

H_{1a}. Trust is directly related to commitment.

To test these hypotheses, a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was conducted to examine the relationship between commitment scores on all the three different components of organizational commitment. The 10 scales of trust, with an addition of the overall consistency score (scales I-IV), overall credibility score (scales VI-IX), and an overall trust score (scales I-X), were added to the correlation in order to keep a similar method as used in Milligan's research in 2003. Table 15 represents the evaluation of this correlation analysis completed.

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Table 15: Correlation Matrix for Trust and Commitment Scales

Trust Scale	Affective Commitment	Continuance Commitment		Normative Commitment
Consistency I Scale	.308**	-0.148	*	.208**
Significance	*0*	*0.008*		*0*
Consistency II Scale	.300**	-0.121	*	.153**
Significance	*0*	*0.019*		*0.01*
Consistency III Scale	.332**	-0.054		.161**
Significance	*0*	*0.213*		*0*
Consistency IV Scale	.340**	-0.052		.175**
Significance	*0*	*0.199*		*0*
Relevancy V Scale	.360**	-0.082		.217**
Significance	*0*	*0.108*		*0*
Credibility VI Scale	.312**	-0.088		.217**
Significance	*0*	*0.087*		*0*
Credibility VII Scale	.349**	-0.051		.149**
Significance	*0*	*0.266*		*0.01*
Credibility VIII Scale	.380**	-0.057		.208**
Significance	*0*	*0.22*		*0*
Credibility IX Scale	.309**	-0.05		.187**
Significance	*0*	*0.236*		*0*
Trustworthiness X Scale	.367**	0.067		.220**
Significance	*0*	*0.188*		*0*
Overall Consistency Scales	.348**	-0.105	*	.198**
Significance	*0*	*0.039*		*0*
Overall Credibility Scales	.359**	-0.064		.206**
Significance	*0*	*0.181*		*0*
Overall Trust	.378**	-0.088		.211**
Significance	*0*	*0.089*		*0*

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (one tailed)

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (one tailed)

The data in Table 15 illustrate a relation between trust and affective ($r = 0.378$, $p = 0.000$) and normative ($r = 0.211$, $p = 0.000$) commitment. However, there seems to be no relationship between trust and continuance ($r = -0.088$, $p = 0.089$) commitment. The following

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will help describe any relationship between trust and commitment. The null hypothesis (H_{1o})—there is no relationship between trust and the affect of its commitment in junior officers' staying in the Air Force)—can be rejected. Trust has no significant relationship between continuance commitment ($p = 0.089$). The alternative hypothesis H_1 stated "there is a relationship between trust and the affect of its commitment in junior officers' staying in the Air Force"; were supported by trust and affective and normative commitment.

The second research question in this study is "What is the relationship between organizational commitment and intent to leave the Air Force?" For this question the following alternative, null, and contingent alternative hypotheses were developed:

H_2. There is a relationship between organizational commitment and intent for junior officers' leaving the Air Force.

H_{2o}. There is no relationship between organizational commitment and intent for junior officers' leaving the Air Force.

H_{2a}. Organizational commitment is directly related to the intent for junior officers' leaving the Air Force.

To test these hypotheses, a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was conducted to examine the relationship between affective, continuance, and normative commitment and intent to leave the Air Force. Table 16 represents the evaluation of this correlation analysis completed.

Table 16: Correlation Matrix between Affective, Continuance, Normative
Commitment and Intent to Leave

Commitment Scales	Intent to Leave Scale
Affective Commitment	-0.621
Significance	*0.000*
Continuance Commitment	-0.061
Significance	*0.301*
Normative Commitment	-0.486
Significance	*0.000*

The data in Table 16 illustrate a relation between affective ($r = -0.621$, $p = .000$) and
normative ($r = -0.486$, $p = .000$) commitment and the intent to leave. However, there seems to be
no relationship between continuance ($r = -0.061$, $p = 0.301$) commitment and the intent to leave.
The following will help describe any relationship between commitment and the intent of junior
officers' to leave the Air Force. The null hypothesis (H_{2o}) — there is no relationship between
organizational commitment and intent for junior officers' leaving the Air Force) — can be
rejected. The intent to leave has no significant relationship between continuance commitment ($p
= 0.301$). The alternative hypothesis H_2 stated "there is a relationship between organizational
commitment and intent for junior officers' leaving the Air Force"; were supported by affective
and normative commitment on the intent to leave.

Finally, the third research question in this study is "What is the relationship between trust
and intent to leave the Air Force?" For this question the following alternative, null, and
contingent alternative hypotheses were developed:

H_3. There is a relationship between trust and intent for junior officer leaving the Air
Force.

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H₃o. There is no relationship between trust and intent for junior officer leaving the Air Force.

H_{3o}. There is no relationship between trust and intent for junior officer leaving the Air Force.

H_{3a}. Trust is directly related to the intent for junior officers' leaving the Air Force.

To test these hypotheses, a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient analysis was conducted. The 10 MBCA scales of trust, with an addition of the overall consistency score (scales I-IV), overall credibility score (scales VI-IX), and an overall trust score (scales I-X), were added to the correlation to this analysis. Table 17 represents the evaluation of this correlation analysis results.

Table 17: Correlation Analysis for Organizational Trust and Intent to Leave

Trust Scales	Intent to Leave Correlation	
Consistency I Scale	-0.3	
significance		*0*
Consistency II Scale	-0.264	
significance		*0*
Consistency III Scale	-0.258	
significance		*0*
Consistency IV Scale	-0.308	
significance		*0*
Relevancy V Scale	-0.249	
significance		*0*
Credibility VI Scale	-0.276	
significance		*0*
Credibility VII Scale	-0.283	
significance		*0*
Credibility VIII Scale	-0.308	
significance		*0*
Credibility IX Scale	-0.254	
significance		*0*

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Table 17: Correlation Analysis for Organizational Trust and Intent to Leave,
continued

Trust Scales	Intent to Leave Correlation	
Trustworthiness X Scale	-0.261	
significance		*0*
Overall Consistency Scales	-0.311	
significance		*0*
Overall Credibility Scales	-0.303	
significance		*0*
Overall Trust	-0.321	
Significance		*0*

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (one tailed)

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (one tailed)

The data in table 17 illustrate a relation between trust and intent to leave military service, with an overall trust (r = -0.322, p = 0.000) does exist in this study. Similar findings were noted in Milligan's study in 2003. The following will help describe any relationship between trust and commitment: The null hypothesis H_{3o} there is no relationship between trust and intent for junior officer leaving the Air Force — can be rejected. The alternative hypothesis H_3 there is a relationship between trust and intent for junior officer leaving the Air Force was supported by Table 17.

Analysis of Variance by Demographics

A one-way analysis was conducted on each variable to develop a stronger understanding of the relationships between organizational trust, organizational commitment, the intent to leave, and demographic statistics. The variables consisted of age group, gender, ethnicity, Air Force specialty, educational level, source of commission, years of service, and prior enlisted service.

These are the same variables used in Milligan's (2003) study and demonstrated a strong comparison. Tables 18 - 27 present the conclusions of the following one-way analyses:

One variable used was the age group, which ranged from 24 to >40 years. Tables 18 and 19 demonstrate all data calculated for this variance. The grouping was kept consistent with the Air Force Personnel Center in order to make statistics analysis consistent. Five groups were developed to include ages from 17 to 24, 25 to 34, 35 to 44, and >45 years. There were six respondents for the first group and no respondents for the >45 group. To minimize any possibilities of Type I and Type II errors, only sample sizes with a large amount of a sample size will be analyzed. The variation of sample size will increase the possibility of errors. The ANOVA is used to show differences between groups but does explain how they are different in the study.

The statistical descriptive demonstrates two age groups of captains with two different views. Captains in the age group 25-34 years found a similar result to Milligan's (2003) study: They rate senior leaders as less consistent, less credible, and less trustworthy as captains in the age group 35-44 years. As seen in the results, the age group 25-34 years had fewer years in the Air Force than the age group of 35-44 years. The analysis found a larger number of the younger age group (25-34 years) with an increase of concern for leaving the Air Force than the older captains.

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Table 18: ANOVA in Trust by Age Group

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Consistency I Scale						
	Between Groups	80.952	3	80.952	9.658	0.000
	Within Groups	4151.011	368	17.206		
	Total	4231.963	371			
Consistency II Scale						
	Between Groups	73.981	3	73.981	12.879	0.001
	Within Groups	2987.113	368	13.256		
	Total	3061.094	371			
Consistency III Scale						
	Between Groups	71.553	3	71.553	13.112	0.000
	Within Groups	2899.878	368	13.221		
	Total	2971.431	371			
Consistency IV Scale						
	Between Groups	103.991	3	103.991	18.338	0.000
	Within Groups	3054.001	368	13.345		
	Total	3157.992	371			
Relevancy V Scale						
	Between Groups	68.880	3	68.880	10.723	0.020
	Within Groups	3256.489	368	15.860		
	Total	3325.369	371			
Credibility VI Scale						
	Between Groups	72.156	3	72.156	10.998	0.015
	Within Groups	3349.358	368	16.111		
	Total	3421.514	371			
Credibility VII Scale						
	Between Groups	76.780	3	76.780	13.001	0.002
	Within Groups	3023.889	368	13.215		
	Total	3100.669	371			
Credibility VIII Scale						
	Between Groups	108.589	3	108.589	16.411	0.000
	Within Groups	3387.698	368	14.895		
	Total	3496.287	371			

Table 18: ANOVA in Trust by Age Group, continued

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Credibility IX Scale						
	Between Groups	79.899	3	79.899	12.001	0.006
	Within Groups	3356.893	368	14.999		
	Total	3436.792	371			
Trustworthiness X Scale						
	Between Groups	62.358	3	62.358	10.271	0.028
	Within Groups	3398.221	368	15.123		
	Total	3460.579	371			
Overall Consistency Scale						
	Between Groups	1257.163	3	1257.163	13.458	0.001
	Within Groups	28950.486	368	105.000		
	Total	30207.649	371			
Overall Credibility						
	Between Groups	2148.870	3	2148.870	12.998	0.002
	Within Groups	30005.889	368	112.586		
	Total	32154.759	371			
Overall Trust						
	Between Groups	8102.587	3	8102.587	13.201	0.000
	Within Groups	186527.021	368	756.384		
	Total	194629.608	371			

Table 19: ANOVA in Intent to Leave Scale by Age Group

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Intent to Leave						
	Between Groups	321.065	6	90.515	8.991	0.000
	Within Groups	2911.002	365			
	Total	3232.067	371			

A one-way analysis of variance was conducted to investigate the relationship between the gender and variables within the study. Tables 20 and 21 demonstrate all data calculated for this

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variance. The analysis of the statistical descriptive between the genders and different variables demonstrated interesting results. In the MBCA, there seemed to be some differences between the genders. The category of the Consistency IV Scale (Consistency in the Statement of Senior Leaders at Different Times) demonstrated an F factor of 4.726 ($p= 0.151$). There was also a significant difference in the Trustworthiness X Scale, with an F factor of 6.587 ($p = 0.061$).

Table 20: ANOVA in Trust by Gender

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Consistency I Scale						
	Between Groups	12.587	1	12.587	1.001	0.401
	Within Groups	3258.001	370	11.999		
	Total	3270.588	371			
Consistency II Scale						
	Between Groups	21.058	1	21.058	2.996	0.099
	Within Groups	2087.631	370	8.005		
	Total	2108.689	371			
Consistency III Scale						
	Between Groups	12.874	1	12.874	1.860	0.298
	Within Groups	2001.581	370	8.621		
	Total	2014.455	371			
Consistency IV Scale						
	Between Groups	19.012	1	19.012	4.726	0.151
	Within Groups	2105.041	370	8.887		
	Total	2124.053	371			
Relevancy V Scale						
	Between Groups	8.001	1	8.001	0.833	0.498
	Within Groups	2787.254	370	11.321		
	Total	2795.255	371			

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Table 20: ANOVA in Trust by Gender, continued

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Credibility VI Scale						
	Between Groups	7.895	1	7.895	0.847	0.491
	Within Groups	2897.150	370	11.074		
	Total	2905.045	371			
Credibility VII Scale						
	Between Groups	12.581	1	12.581	2.741	0.290
	Within Groups	2201.001	370	9.025		
	Total	2213.582	371			
Credibility VIII Scale						
	Between Groups	24.114	1	24.114	3.955	0.095
	Within Groups	2400.885	370	9.365		
	Total	2424.999	371			
Credibility IX Scale						
	Between Groups	11.880	1	11.880	2.014	0.302
	Within Groups	2198.999	370	9.958		
	Total	2210.879	371			
Trustworthiness X Scale						
	Between Groups	38.011	1	38.011	6.587	0.061
	Within Groups	2631.000	370	10.654		
	Total	2669.011	371			
Overall Consistency Scale						
	Between Groups	229.374	1	229.374	3.901	0.171
	Within Groups	30589.037	370	106.020		
	Total	30818.411	371			
Overall Credibility						
	Between Groups	187.980	1	187.980	2.574	0.208
	Within Groups	33587.014	370	112.999		
	Total	33774.994	371			
Overall Trust						
	Between Groups	1375.827	1	1375.827	3.985	0.186
	Within Groups	177021.003	370	635.012		
	Total	178396.830	371			

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Table 21: ANOVA in Intent to Leave Scale by Gender

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Intent to Leave						
	Between Groups	28.698	1	28.698	3.245	0.099
	Within Groups	3102.85	370	11.299		
	Total	3131.55	371			

A one-way analysis of variance was conducted to investigate the relationship between the source of commission and variables within the study. Tables 22 and 23 demonstrate all data calculated for this variance. In the analysis statistical descriptive there was no real significance seen in the MBCA scales. This was also seen in Milligan's (2003) study. There was a significant difference between two sources of commissioning: Air Force Academy and ROTC. OTS did not demonstrate a large significance as a source of commissioning when compared to the other categories. In the Intent to Leave the Air Force, Air Force Academy members demonstrated the largest intention to leave the Air Force. Second was ROTC and third OTS, and finally the remainder of the respondents. A similar finding was noted in Milligan's (2003) research, with a slight differential of numbers. Milligan's study demonstrated ($M = 8.7$) for the Air Force Academy as the current research illustrated a larger number ($M = 9.2$). The ROTC in Milligan's research ($M = 8.0$) was lower than the currents study ($M = 8.5$).

Table 22: ANOVA in Trust by Source of Commission

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Consistency I Scale						
	Between Groups	15.980	3	6.001	0.663	0.899
	Within Groups	3188.012	368	12.967		
	Total	3203.992	371			
Consistency II Scale						
	Between Groups	38.121	3	13.544	2.091	0.151
	Within Groups	2001.895	368	7.321		
	Total	2040.016	371			
Consistency III Scale						
	Between Groups	24.527	3	8.989	1.561	0.333
	Within Groups	1901.222	368	7.876		
	Total	1925.749	371			
Consistency IV Scale						
	Between Groups	31.221	3	12.430	1.901	0.464
	Within Groups	2102.943	368	8.000		
	Total	2134.164	371			
Relevancy V Scale						
	Between Groups	5.231	3	1.999	0.213	1.102
	Within Groups	2687.981	368	10.956		
	Total	2693.212	371			
Credibility VI Scale						
	Between Groups	17.758	3	7.001	0.750	0.870
	Within Groups	2832.221	368	10.254		
	Total	2849.979	371			
Credibility VII Scale						
	Between Groups	17.887	3	6.786	1.001	0.611
	Within Groups	2016.890	368	8.012		
	Total	2034.777	371			

Table 22: ANOVA in Trust by Source of Commission, continued

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Credibility VIII Scale						
	Between Groups	15.290	3	4.980	0.780	0.811
	Within Groups	2231.412	368	8.234		
	Total	2246.702	371			
Credibility IX Scale						
	Between Groups	45.687	3	15.729	3.101	0.158
	Within Groups	2721.878	368	8.085		
	Total	2767.565	371			
Trustworthiness X Scale						
	Between Groups	16.111	3	6.821	0.798	0.689
	Within Groups	2554.650	368	9.001		
	Total	2570.761	371			
Overall Consistency Scale						
	Between Groups	571.233	3	117.956	1.347	0.401
	Within Groups	29019.982	368	103.990		
	Total	29591.215	371			
Overall Credibility						
	Between Groups	279.964	3	88.091	0.899	0.587
	Within Groups	31870.111	368	113.878		
	Total	32150.075	371			
Overall Trust						
	Between Groups	1324.087	3	399.122	0.735	0.690
	Within Groups	186732.091	368	725.980		
	Total	188056.178	371			

Table 23: ANOVA in Intent to Leave Scale by Source of Commission

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Intent to Leave						
	Between Groups	237.540	3	78.945	8.611	0.000
	Within Groups	2816.288	368	10.231		
	Total	3053.828	371			

A one-way analysis of variance was conducted to investigate the relationship between the respondents' educational level and variables within the study. Tables 24 and 25 demonstrate all data calculated for this variance. In this study no respondents reported having any professional or higher degree than a master's or bachelors. These were the only two degrees analyzed in the study. In the current study there were no significant differences noted, because all the F values were low.

Table 24: ANOVA in Trust by Educational Level

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Consistency I Scale						
	Between Groups	0.160	1	0.160	0.009	0.891
	Within Groups	3133.121	370	12.377		
	Total	3133.281	371			
Consistency II Scale						
	Between Groups	0.211	1	0.211	0.012	0.799
	Within Groups	1889.102	370	7.990		
	Total	1889.313	371			
Consistency III Scale						
	Between Groups	2.891	1	3.891	0.500	0.561
	Within Groups	1921.822	370	7.446		
	Total	1924.713	371			
Consistency IV Scale						
	Between Groups	0.810	1	0.810	0.102	0.811
	Within Groups	2109.854	370	8.009		
	Total	2110.664	371			
Relevancy V Scale						
	Between Groups	2.871	1	2.871	0.311	0.601
	Within Groups	2512.898	370	11.025		
	Total	2515.769	371			
Credibility VI Scale						
	Between Groups	6.981	1	6.981	0.552	0.512
	Within Groups	2781.901	370	10.174		
	Total	2788.882	371			

Table 24: ANOVA in Trust by Educational Level, continued

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Credibility VII Scale						
	Between Groups	2.890	1	2.890	0.412	0.501
	Within Groups	1898.012	370	7.566		
	Total	1900.902	371			
Credibility VIII Scale						
	Between Groups	0.189	1	0.189	0.020	0.899
	Within Groups	2019.987	370	8.015		
	Total	2020.176	371			
Credibility IX Scale						
	Between Groups	0.811	1	0.811	1.090	0.845
	Within Groups	2087.683	370	9.014		
	Total	2088.494	371			
Trustworthiness X Scale						
	Between Groups	1.999	1	1.999	0.310	0.712
	Within Groups	2482.871	370	9.676		
	Total	2484.870	371			
Overall Consistency Scale						
	Between Groups	3.993	1	3.993	0.098	0.999
	Within Groups	30019.031	370	108.032		
	Total	30023.024	371			
Overall Credibility						
	Between Groups	29.001	1	29.001	0.316	0.600
	Within Groups	31092.983	370	113.873		
	Total	31121.984	371			
Overall Trust						
	Between Groups	15.121	1	15.121	0.008	0.921
	Within Groups	180292.048	370	697.323		
	Total	180307.169	371			

Table 25: ANOVA in Intent to Leave Scale by Educational Level

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Intent to Leave						
	Between Groups	5.891	1	5.891	0.339	0.341
	Within Groups	2912.014	370	11.766		
	Total	2917.905	371			

Finally, a one-way analysis of variance was conducted to investigate the relationship between the respondents' prior enlisted status and variables within the study. Tables 26 and 27 demonstrate all data calculated for this variance. The result in this ANOVA analysis was one of the strongest statistical descriptions in the study. The study illustrated multiple significant differences in the MBCA scales. The first one was noted on Consistency II (Consistency in the States of Senior Leadership to Different People) with $F = 5.544$ ($p = 0.011$) and Consistency IV (Consistency in the Statements of Senior Leaders at Different Times) with $F = 6.989$ ($p = 0.000$). With these results, the study also demonstrated a strong difference between the two groups in the Intent to Leave scales, $F = 26.091$ ($p = 0.000$).

Table 26: ANOVA in Trust by Prior Enlisted Status

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Consistency I Scale						
	Between Groups	8.446	16	8.446	0.201	.0.356
	Within Groups	4598.361	355	12.011		
	Total	4606.807	371			
Consistency II Scale						
	Between Groups	36.783	16	36.783	5.544	0.011
	Within Groups	1912.012	355	7.911		
	Total	1948.795	371			

Table 26: ANOVA in Trust by Prior Enlisted Status, continued

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Consistency III Scale						
	Between Groups	20.914	16	20.914	3.656	0.091
	Within Groups	1909.129	355	7.312		
	Total	1930.043	371			
Consistency IV Scale						
	Between Groups	44.788	16	44.788	6.989	0.000
	Within Groups	2091.988	355	7.789		
	Total	2136.776	371			
Relevancy V Scale						
	Between Groups	5.999	16	5.999	0.799	0.444
	Within Groups	2566.433	355	10.091		
	Total	2572.432	371			
Credibility VI Scale						
	Between Groups	0.000	16	0.000	0.000	0.989
	Within Groups	2801.001	355	10.132		
	Total	2801.001	371			
Credibility VII Scale						
	Between Groups	28.012	16	28.012	4.011	0.048
	Within Groups	1903.877	355	8.231		
	Total	1931.889	371			
Credibility VIII Scale						
	Between Groups	26.923	16	26.923	3.907	0.061
	Within Groups	2099.321	355	8.091		
	Total	2126.244	371			
Credibility IX Scale						
	Between Groups	7.192	16	7.192	0.699	0.369
	Within Groups	2276.932	355	8.012		
	Total	2284.124	371			
Trustworthiness X Scale						
	Between Groups	1.988	16	1.001	0.211	0.018
	Within Groups	2378.099	355	10.095		
	Total	2380.087	371			

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Table 26: ANOVA in Trust by Prior Enlisted Status, continued

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Overall Consistency Scale						
	Between Groups	402.433	16	399.873	3.871	0.798
	Within Groups	28971.112	355	232.441		
	Total	29373.545	371			
Overall Credibility						
	Between Groups	199.991	16	198.012	1.999	0.123
	Within Groups	31092.014	355	129.423		
	Total	31292.005	371			
Overall Trust						
	Between Groups	1311.222	16	1891.142	2.766	0.098
	Within Groups	171982.091	355	723.110		
	Total	173293.313	371			

Table 27: ANOVA in Intent to Leave Scale by Prior Enlisted Status

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Intent to Leave						
	Between Groups	251.872	5	251.872	26.091	0.000
	Within Groups	2891.112	367	11.091		
	Total	3142.984	372			

Summary

In this chapter is a full explanation of the sample size, the complete detail of the data screening process, and how the data within the surveys were categorized. The instruments used in the study were further explored by examining the psychometrics of each instrument. A completed statistical analysis of the data was described. A comparison to Milligan's (2003) was also noted in this chapter to demonstrate any differences as other variables entered the research. Chapter 5 will discuss the research findings and conclusions. The research questions will be

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answered in the study to include a comparison to Milligan's (2003) study. The chapter will

conclude with recommendations for future studies based on this research data.

CHAPTER 5. DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter discusses the research hypotheses and the data analysis regarding any support or rejection of the hypotheses mentioned in chapter 3. This research was accomplished as a follow-up study to Milligan's (2003). It studied the role of trust in leadership and the effect it had on the organizational commitment and intent of junior officers' in leaving the Air Force. This chapter defines the findings and conclusions of the data represented in chapter 4. Results of each variable and research question are seen in the light of the present research data. Finally, this chapter provides recommendations for future studies.

Finding and Conclusions

This section further breaks down the findings and conclusions stated in chapter 4, with respect to demographics, trust, commitment, and intent to leave as provided by this study and the respondents. This research was considered a follow-up study to Milligan's (2003) exploratory study on the level of organizational trust in military populations and the level of trust in Air Force leadership amongst junior officers'. The main focus of this study is to determine the increased number of junior officers' in the Air Force staying or leaving after their commitment, due to trust, to include recent operation tempo and the force-shaping board. This study answered various questions. The first question is "What is the relationship between trust and organizational commitment in Air Force captains and their intent to leave the Air Force as junior officers'?" This is followed by a discussion of organizational commitment and intent of junior officers' leaving the Air Force. The last discussion explores the relationship between trust and intent of junior officers' leaving the Air Force.

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Demographics

About 93% of the proposed sample surveyed responded, which allowed the researcher to conduct a quantitative analysis. Approximately 16% of respondents were female and 84% were male, for a total of 372 respondents. Nearly 47% of the respondents had a master's degree and 53% had a bachelor's degree. No respondent who responded had a degree higher than a master's. About 66% of the respondents were commissioned through the Reserved Officer Training Course (ROTC) at their respective colleges, whereas only 5% were from the Air Force Academy. Nearly 24% of the respondents commissioned through Officer Training School, whereas the remaining 5% classified themselves under the category of "other." In this study 69% of respondents were not prior enlisted and 31% were prior enlisted.

Trust

As the war continues and the numbers of military officers' are forced to decrease, the literature and study illustrate the need for an increase of trust in leadership to sustain junior officers'. The literature focused on different abilities of trust and the innovating thinking of leaders is connected. Kouzes and Posner (2002) begin to push the concept of trust and how it is associated as the heart of leadership. Northouse (2004) defined transformational leadership to be the process whereby an individual engages with others and creates a connection that raises the level of motivation and morality in both the leader and the follower when certain conditions arise. A transformation of trust and leadership is defined in Milligan's study in 2003. Four years later the same need is concluded in this study. Klien (2007) uses Barnard's contributions to the successful or effective leader explained in his 1938 book, *The Functions of the Leader*. Barnard (1938) explained the survival of an organization depends heavily upon many forces, including the cooperation amongst the individuals within the organization (Klien, 2007).

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This study continues to raise the question "What is the level of trust in senior leadership as reported by junior officers' in the U.S. Air Force?" While table 7 outlines the Chronbach's alpha and table 8 demonstrates the MBCA overall trust as a good standing, the current study concurs with Milligan's studies results of trust being an issue.

The scoring method was kept consistent using the five point Likert scale with the following responses used: Always/Almost Always, Usually, Occasionally, Seldom, and Never. The Likert scale commonly uses a neutral category as well but in the current study the neutral category was no used. A score of 3.0 on the MBCA scale follows the category of occasionally. A favorable rating in this study viewed a score of 3.0 or above or a particular item or anything above a 15.0 for a five-item scale.

The researcher ran multiple correlation analysis to determine whether a relationship existed between trust of junior officers' and senior leadership. On the MBCA item 20, junior officers' believed nearly 47% of senior leadership usually tells the truth. A total of nearly 6% stated "always/almost" that senior leaders tell the truth, less than in Milligan's study (2003) by 25%. Similarly, 32 % of junior officer felt that senior leadership seldom plays favorites. In the military leadership has always played an important role. A solider may be required to give up his or her life for his or her country, cause, or purpose of fighting as depicted by the leader. Senior leadership is made up of individual(s) who will give the order to "take the hill." For this research, the value rating was adapted from Milligan's study. The value rating stated if anything "below 60% is considered poor, 60-69% is below average or marginal; 70-79% is average; 80-89 % is above average or good, and 90-100% is well above average or excellent" (Milligan, 2003, p. 139). In comparison to the respondents, any respondent with any given item of 4.5 or higher is excellent; a score of 4.0-4.9 per item is above average or good; a score of 3.5 to 3.99 per item is

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below average or marginal; and any score of 2.9 or less is considered poor. This value rating

allows the researcher to demonstrate the trust level of trust junior officers' place in senior

leadership, as shown in Table 28.

Table 28: Trust Rating by Percentage of Respondents

	Overall Consistency Scales I-IV	Overall Credibility Scales VI-IX	Overall Trust Scales I-X
Excellent	3.60%	4.10%	8.40%
Good	13.20%	18.90%	13.70%
Average	48.50%	35.80%	45.40%
Marginal	20.30%	26.80%	25.40%
Poor	14.40%	14.40%	7.10%
Totals	100%	100%	100%
Average Mean	3.7	3.9	3.5

As the literature has demonstrated in chapter 2, leadership and trust are related to

multiple aspects and cannot be narrowed down to specific attributes. Some of the qualities

included communication, problem solving, and performance as leaders. Because this research

does not solve the problem of determining the relationship of trust in an organization, additional

research into these topics is clearly needed.

Commitment

The effective leader must share the vision of the Air Force with junior officers' and help

them understand the importance of the vision in order to gain their commitment to achieving the

vision (Klien, 2007). The military is looking towards building this stronger commitment as senior

leaders push their transformational thought of leadership to junior officers'. The military needs

these soldiers to be committed at all times, especially in a time of war. According to Meyer and

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Allen (1991) organizational commitment is measured in three components: affective, continuance, and normative. Affective commitment is the measurement of an individual's attachment to or involvement to the organization. Continuance commitment is considered the measurement of an individual's awareness of costs associated with departing the organization, and the alternatives. Normative commitment measures the sense of obligation and sense of duty. Commitment is a large factor in leadership in the military. As leaders and followers are discussed in chapter 2, commitment to each other was portrayed as an important attribute needed. A similar rating scale was used in the MBCA and by the researcher to portray the importance of commitment in the Air Force. The rating values are as follows: 90%-100% is very high; 80%-89.9% is high; 70%-79.9% is moderate; 60%-69.9% is low; and 59.9% and below is very low. Table 29 illustrates the commitment ratings by percentage of respondents.

Table 29: Commitment Ratings by Percentage of Respondents

	Affective Commitment	Continuance Commitment	Normative Commitment
Very Strong	3.70%	2.90%	1.70%
Strong	24.60%	5.40%	6.40%
Moderate	22.30%	15.90%	10.60%
Low	27.80%	21.10%	30.30%
Very Low	21.60%	54.70%	51.00%
Totals	100%	100%	100%
Average Mean	4.8	3.7	4.5

Meyer and Allen (1991) proposed through many studies the importance of organizational commitment. Their views followed a multifaceted construct involving multiple values of organizational and willingness to put an effort for the organization, leader, and continued

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membership between the leader and junior officers'. In the three measured organizational commitment, affective commitment demonstrated a measurement of an individual attachment to the organization. The affective commitment received the highest ratings also seen in Milligan's study (2003). The rate of 50.6% was 2.9% lower than Milligan's study result in looking at a commitment level of moderate to very high. In the lower level of commitment it rated 49.4% which was 2.7% higher than Milligan's study (2003, p. 141).

Continuance commitment was the second level tested in organizational commitment. Continuance commitment rating was the second lowest out of all the commitments measured. The study illustrated 75.8% which was 4.2% greater than Milligan's study in 2003 between the levels of low or very low. This level demonstrates that even though the military is increasing benefits and military pay there is still a rising issue. Either this may be a contribution of the increase chances of junior officers' or military personnel losing their jobs as the Air Force decreases its number or the increase of deployment due to the war overseas. As the current economy and job market is falling, officers' just may feel the costs associated with leaving the organization. Retirement plans are still in affect within the military and members may be looking towards the future as the economy fluctuates. The study in continuance commitment did not specifically study this area nor reflect the current economy status; there may be multiple reasons for these results.

Another reason why the continuance commitment rating was so low could relate to different techniques in how the Air Force is recruiting their officers'. Junior officers' are now forced to receive a Masters degree as it plays a role in their chances of promoting to Major. Educational benefits have been made available to help assist in this process. With this tuition

assistance the member adds another two year commitment. This will allow the military to create better opportunities if the junior officer leaves the Air Force to join the civilian market.

The final commitment studied in this research was normative commitment. This specific category is not a popular area studied within the military. Many scholars have chosen to not add this category to their study due to the similarities with affective commitment. In Milligan's study, normative commitment was measured as well in this current study. Gade (2003) suggested that more scholars and researchers should attempt to add this level of commitment in their study, especially when measured within the military. Normative commitment measures a sense of obligation and sense of duty the individual has within the organization. Milligan suggested that this was an area "generally developed through socialization efforts" (2003, p. 144). The military is probably the best example of a well diverse, cultural, and socialization organization. This study demonstrated an 81.3% result between low or very low levels. This was an actual 0.05% decrease from Milligan's study in 2003. This was illustrating junior offices four years later still had a low level of service obligation to the organization.

Intent to Leave

Because many career fields were affected by the force shaping, junior officers' fight for their jobs and compete with their peers to stay employed. Leadership and trust are the two factors in which the officers' rely on to stay employed. In this study the researcher asked three questions on the intent to leave the Air Force. The responses showed that 45% of the respondents would most likely stay in the Air Force. However, the research showed 42% of the respondents thought about leaving the military after their commitment. The research question in the study, "What is the relationship between trust and intent to leave the Air Force?" is defined throughout the entire

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study. The results of this research demonstrate a relationship between trust in leadership and the intent of junior officers' leaving the Air Force. The research demonstrated only that trust is one of the potential reasons impacting the decision junior officers' chose in leaving the Air Force.

Trust and Commitment

The research question "What is the relationship between trust and organizational commitment in Air Force captains and their intent to leave the Air Force as junior officers'?" In order to exam this question the following hypotheses was proposed:

H_1. There is a relationship between trust and the affect of its commitment in junior officers' staying in the Air Force.

H_{1o}. There is no relationship between trust and the affect of its commitment in junior officers' staying in the Air Force.

H_{1a}. Trust is directly related to commitment.

The current study demonstrated a relationship between trust and affective and normative commitment; however no relationship was determined by trust and continuance commitment. In the current study a relationship between trust and commitment in general was one of the hypotheses tested in the study. The following hypotheses: H_1. There is a relationship between trust and the affect of its commitment in junior officers' staying in the Air Force and H_{1a}. Trust is directly related to commitment were accepted when tested in looking for a relationship between trust and commitment. The following hypotheses were rejected in determining if there was a relationship between trust and commitment: H_{1o}. There is no relationship between trust and the affect of its commitment in junior officers' staying in the Air Force. The same results were concluded in Milligan's study in testing relationship between trust and commitment. Although, Milligan's studied independently all three categories of commitment, this study looked at the

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overall commitment.

Commitment and Intent to Leave

The second research question in this study is "What is the relationship between organizational commitment and intent to leave the Air Force?" In order to examine this question the following hypotheses were proposed:

H_2. There is a relationship between organizational commitment and intent for junior officers' leaving the Air Force.

H_{2o}. There is no relationship between organizational commitment and intent for junior officers' leaving the Air Force.

H_{2a}. Organizational commitment is directly related to the intent for junior officers' leaving the Air Force.

The current study demonstrated a relationship between commitment and intent to leave the military. In the current study a relationship between commitment and intent to leave in general was one of the hypotheses tested in the study. The following hypotheses: H_2. There is a relationship between organizational commitment and intent for junior officers' leaving the Air Force and H_{2a}. Organizational commitment is directly related to the intent for junior officers' leaving the Air Force was accepted when tested in looking for a relationship between commitment and intent to leave. The following hypotheses were rejected in determining if there was a relationship between trust and commitment: H_{2o}. There is no relationship between organizational commitment and intent for junior officers' leaving the Air Force. Results from the current testing between the relationship of commitment and intent to leave were found to be similar to Milligan's study in 2003. Meyer and Allen (1991, 1996, and 1997) concluded in multiple studies that the turnover intent is consistently related to commitment. Correlation

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coefficients ranged from -0.29 to -0.61 throughout different studies conducted by Meyer and Allen. As demonstrated in this study there were little correlation between continuance commitment and intent to leave as well in Meyer and Allen's studies with a range of 0.00 and -0.42.

In Milligan's (2003) study there was a relationship between affective attachment and intent to leave. As there was an increase in affective, there was a direct decrease in the intent to leave. The current study demonstrated similar results. Some junior officers' clearly stated an emotional attachment to the Air Force. These individuals are most likely not leaving the military as if someone who had a less attachment to the Air Force. Affective commitment is considered to be capable of an enhance organization and job characteristics. The literature suggests a relationship between the supervisor and subordinate is needed to provide a positive and influential connection to the organization. Commitment was represented by a perceived fairness and equity of the suggested relationship in the literature. Milligan stated "commitment can be managed and promoted through leadership and human resource practices resulting in greater commitment and less turnover" (2003, p. 150).

Normative commitment and the intent to leave demonstrated a significant relationship in this study. This commitment is considered to be developed through socialization efforts. The literature demonstrates this in military training and history. This is commonly seen in basic training for enlisted members and field training for officers' depending on their commissioning source. Approximately 81% of junior officers' in the Air Force reported low or very low levels in the category of normative commitment as seen in table 31. This was about the same with Milligan's study. Basic and field training has changed through the years. Field training for the officers' may not be transforming their training program to the meet the current threat of

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officers' leaving the Air Force.

There was no significant relationship between continuance commitments. This is a common trend seen in Milligan's study as well. Continuance commitment is how an individual invests itself to the organization. Even though there was over 75% of the respondents reported in the low or very low there was no relationship to an increase or decrease levels of junior officer's intent to leave the Air Force. This was about 4% higher than Milligan's results.

Trust and Intent to Leave

Finally, the third research question in this study is "What is the relationship between trust and intent to leave the Air Force?" For this question the following alternative, null, and contingent alternative hypotheses were developed to test this relationship between trust and intent to leave:

H_3. There is a relationship between trust and intent for junior officer leaving the Air Force.

H_{3o}. There is no relationship between trust and intent for junior officer leaving the Air Force.

H_{3a}. Trust is directly related to the intent for junior officers' leaving the Air Force.

In the current study a relationship between trust and intent to leave in general was one of the hypotheses tested in the study. The following hypotheses: H_3. There is a relationship between trust and intent for junior officer leaving the Air Force and H_{3a}. Trust is directly related to the intent for junior officers' leaving the Air Force was accepted when tested in looking for a relationship between trust and intent to leave. The following hypotheses were rejected in determining if there was a relationship between trust and commitment: H_{3o}. There is no

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relationship between trust and intent for junior officer leaving the Air Force for junior officers'
leaving the Air Force.

The results illustrated a significant level of relationship between trust and intent to leave
the military. A regression analysis demonstrated an 18.6% of the variance in intent to leave can
be explained by trust in leadership through this study. This was a 6% increase from Milligan's
study in 2003. Although there is a definite relationship between trust and intent to leave, some
thought of the current results rise from this data. One idea is trust as a variable in the problem of
junior officers' leaving the Air Force after their commitment. Another idea is the decrease of job
security as the Air Force is decreasing their numbers of active duty members. As the war
continues overseas, the Air Force is deploying members more than ever. Operation tempo has
increased and while members are being forced out, their duties still need to be filled. The
decision of junior officers' leaving the Air Force may be more complicated than just one
variable. Other variables could include the economy, civilian jobs, assignment, location, pay, and
overall job satisfaction. The current study demonstrates that trust is one of the potential issues
impacting junior officers' leaving the Air Force. The results of the study do not demonstrate any
other potential issues with senior leadership that may influence junior officers' to leave the Air
Force after their commitment is completed.

Sample Comparison

In the current study, data collection was different than in Milligan's (2003). In Milligan's
study the sample was junior officer attending Squadron Officer School (SOS), which is a
competitive selection for some career fields. Not all junior officers' are able to attend SOS in
residency. In the current study, the sample was active duty members, randomly selected. Their

status to SOS was unknown, allowing an effective random sample testing. Because the data were collected and analyzed, many similarities were found between Milligan's study and the current study.

Tables 7-9 represent the respondent's sample versus the captain population in the Air Force by measuring different areas within the demographic survey. This analysis was performed in order to see if the respondent's sample size is an appropriate representation of the entire captain population in the Air Force. The first demographic area to be measured was gender (table 7). The chi-square value was 3.209 and the p value was 0.042. Since the value is below 0.05, the data demonstrates a significant difference between the Air Force and respondent sample within genders. The same findings were concluded for the following demographical areas: age and source of commission. Tables 8 and 9 illustrated a p value of <.001 also demonstrating a significant difference. These findings conclude that the sample sized used in the study does not represent the entire captain population in the Air Force but only the respondents in this study.

<center>Summary</center>

Literature and previous studies have demonstrated trust as a main attribute to transformational leadership. The Department of Defense has looked into this trend of transformational leadership as style for the military in order to step-up for future challenges, technological advances, and an increase of operations throughout the world. As the military stretches it forces throughout the world, trust seems to be a developing factor in culture and relationships between leaders and their subordinates. As previous scholars have suggested, trust as a key to "successful organizational outcomes including cooperative behavior, reduced conflict, improved communications, effective crisis response and improved performance" (Milligan, 2003, p. 155) in the military. In the military, the mission could consist of life or death,

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and trust needs to be second nature. This research was designed as a follow-on study to Milligan's study. Because of an increase of junior officers' are being forced out, operation tempo increases, and the war is continuing. The following points form the conclusion of the study:

1. Trust is a growing factor in leadership and junior officers' leaving the Air Force. According to the research on H_1, there is a relationship between trust and commitment. This study suggests that with an increase of trust there will be an increase in commitment.

2. According to the research on H_2, there is a strong relationship between commitment and intent of junior officers' leaving the Air Force. As mentioned in Milligan's study (2003), this signifies that junior officers' with a stronger sense of duty and an obligation to the Air Force are less likely to leave the Air Force after their commitment.

3. Trust was the primary variable in this study. The study found that with an increase of trust in leadership there will be a decrease of junior officers' leaving the Air Force. As the Air Force reduces numbers, the possibilities of reducing the turnover in the Air Force due to trust may improve.

Recommendation for Future Study

The results of this research suggest three areas for additional studies. The first area regards the narrow the sector of the Air Force used in this study. Because the relationship and role of trust in leadership, commitment, and intent to leave the military in junior officers' holds statistical significance, do the same relationships apply to the enlisted forces? Airman, noncommissioned officers', and senior noncommissioned officers' are the groups that make up the enlisted force. Is there a level of trust in leadership that demonstrates a relationship in the role of trust in leadership? Is there a relationship between the role of trust in leadership, commitment,

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and the intent to leave the Air Force? Is trust gained more in the enlisted force than in the officer force? Is the same senior leadership affecting the intent of the enlisted force leaving the military? The current study placed a limit on the scope of military personnel used in the study and was not able to research the role of trust in leadership within the enlisted force. Further research between the relationships of junior offices in this study compared to those in the enlisted force may prove beneficial.

The second area of further research is that further validation of this research should be undertaken within a different branch of the military services. The Air Force was the only military branch chosen in this research. The Army, Marine Corps, Navy, and Coast Guard have similar rank structures, and further studies may explore the role of trust in leadership within different branches. Cultural differences between each military branch may demonstrate a relationship or difference in the role of trust in leadership, commitment, and the intent of leaving the military service. Because leadership is different in various military branches, is there a similarity of trust issues in leadership present? The current study supplies enough evidence to portray this in the Air Force. Can we assume the possibilities are similar in different branches? Further research is needed to compare the different branches with respect to the same issues as current operation tempos increase.

The final area will have to concur with Milligan's (2003) research on the importance of studying organizational commitment and its consequences for the organization. The military is a valuable resource, and understanding how it develops trust is crucial to the work attitudes of military members. The finding of this research is that there is enough statistical evidence to state that an exploration of the relations of organizational commitment in the military is needed. Is the military going to need more officers' in the future, as the operation tempo is increased? Is the

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military preparing to take actions as the numbers leaving the military increase? How is leadership addressing the issue of organizational commitment within the unit? Is an education in multiple styles of leadership beneficial to the Air Force officer ranks? Further study in military environments within a single or multiple branches may be needed to help organizational and trust issues in the military.

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