

**EFFECT OF INTEGRATIVE LEADERSHIP STYLE ON  
ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT IN TECHNICAL INSTITUTIONS IN  
KENYA**

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**Effect of integrative leadership style on organizational commitment in technical institutions in Kenya**

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**A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy  
in Human Resource Management in the Jomo Kenyatta University of  
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## DECLARATION

This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university.

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## **DEDICATION**

This thesis is dedicated to my wife and children, Prince and Pearl, for their love and patience throughout the study.

To my late parents for taking me to school and giving me the best they could afford.

To my friends and colleagues for their encouragement and support.

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## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS/ACRONYMNS**

<b>AC</b>	Affective commitment
<b>BOG</b>	Board of governors
<b>CC</b>	Continuance commitment
<b>EP</b>	Employee participation
<b>FRLT</b>	Full range leadership theory
<b>HOD</b>	Head of department
<b>ICT</b>	Information communication and technology
<b>LPC</b>	Least preferred co-worker
<b>MLQ</b>	Multifactor leadership questionnaire
<b>NACOSTI</b>	National Council for Science Technology and Innovation
<b>NC</b>	Normative commitment
<b>NCEOP</b>	National Committee for Educational Objectives and Policies
<b>OC</b>	Organizational commitment
<b>OCQ</b>	Organizational commitment questionnaire
<b>PHEI</b>	Private higher education institutions
<b>PTA</b>	Parent teachers association

<b>SPSS</b>	Statistical package for social sciences
<b>TVET</b>	Technical and vocational education and training
<b>TTI</b>	Technical training institution

## DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

**Affective commitment** deals with the attachment of an employee with his organization and the organizational goals (O'Reily & Chatman, 1986).

**Continuance Commitment** deals with the commitment to pursue working in an organization because of the inter-employee relations and other non-transferable investments like retirement benefits (Reichers, 1985).

**Employee participation** refers to the participative process that uses the input of employees to increase their commitment to the organization's success (Robbins & Judge, 2009).

**Idealized influence** is characterized by vision and a sense of mission, instilling pride in and among the group and gaining respect and trust (Humphreys & Einstein, 2003).

**Individualized consideration** is concerned with developing followers by coaching and mentoring (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1990).

**Inspirational motivation** is concerned with a leader setting higher standards, thus becoming a sign of reference (Bass, 1985).

**Integrative leadership** refers to a leadership style that comprises transformational factors, transactional factors and laissez-faire factors (Bass & Avolio, 1997).

**Intellectual stimulation** provides followers with challenging new ideas and encourages them to break away from the old ways of thinking (Bass, 1985).

**Laissez-faire leadership** refers to a hands-off approach, where a leader abdicates his or her responsibilities in decision making, giving feedback or helping followers to fulfill their needs (Northouse, 2004).

**Normative commitment** refers to a sort of an obligation on the part of an employee, due to which he is willing to stay (or continue working) in an organization (Alam & Ramay, 2011).

**Organizational commitment** is an attitude reflecting employees' loyalty to their organization and is an ongoing process through which organizational participants express their concern for the organization and its continued success and well-being (Luthans, 2007).

**Technical training institutions** refer to public technical training institutes, institutes of technology and national polytechnics.

**Transformational leadership** refers to leadership where leaders inspire their subordinates to adopt the organizational vision as their own, while attempting to heighten their values, concerns and developmental needs (Lussier & Achua, 2011).

**Transactional leadership** refers to leadership where the leader pursues a cost-benefit, economic exchange to meet subordinates current material and psychic needs in return for contracted services rendered by the subordinate (Bass, 1990).

## **ABSTRACT**

Employees are an important asset to any organization. To utilize this asset maximally, the commitment of employees to the organization is crucial. Leadership and employee participation are thought to influence the organizational commitment of employees. The general objective of the study was to establish the effect of integrative leadership style on organizational commitment as moderated by employee participation in technical institutions in Kenya. The study population was all the 3114 lecturers in the 47 technical institutions in Kenya. Both stratified sampling and simple random sampling techniques were adopted to get the sample institutions and twenty two gender-based members from each institution to be included in the study. A pilot test was conducted to detect weaknesses in design and instrumentation. A sample of 343 respondents was used. Of the 343 respondents, 278 completed the questionnaires giving a response rate of 81.05%. Cronbach's alpha was used to test for internal reliability of each variable used in the study. Data analysis was done by use of descriptive statistics and correlation analysis. In addition, multiple regression was applied in order to analyze the effect of integrative leadership style on organizational commitment as moderated by employee participation. The study findings revealed that integrative leadership style comprising transformational leadership, transactional leadership and laissez-faire leadership had a significant effect on organizational commitment and its dimensions. Further, the findings showed that transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles each had a significant effect on organizational commitment. However, laissez-faire leadership had a significant effect on organizational commitment independently but not jointly. Employee participation was found to have a moderating effect on the relationship between integrative leadership style and organizational commitment. Employee participation was also found to moderate the relationship between integrative leadership style and both affective and normative commitment. However, there was no moderating effect on the relationship between integrative leadership style and continuance commitment. It was concluded that transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles each



had a significant effect on organizational commitment. It was also concluded that integrative leadership style has a significant effect on organizational commitment and its three dimensions namely: affective, continuance and normative commitment. Another conclusion was that employee participation has a moderating effect on the relationship between integrative leadership style and organizational, affective and normative commitment. However, employee participation does not have a moderating effect on the relationship between integrative leadership style and continuance commitment. It is recommended that leaders should embrace integrative leadership style as it significantly affects organizational commitment. In order to increase organizational commitment, leaders should employ both transformational and transactional leadership styles. There is need to have more employee participation schemes employed in the technical institutions as employee participation moderates the relationship between integrative leadership style and organizational commitment. Research should be conducted on the effect of the components of transformational and transactional leadership styles on organizational commitment. Future research to be conducted to establish why the effects of integrative leadership style and employee participation are highest on affective commitment and lowest on continuance commitment.



## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION**

#### **1.1 Background of the study**

Education is a central factor in social, cultural, political and economic development of a nation. This is because investment in human capital and development of human resources are seen as legitimate options for economic and social policy in both industrialized and developed countries (Jones, 1992). Since independence, the Kenyan government has continuously reviewed the education system and training so as to ensure that it serves the aspirations of the country's youth as well as cater for wider interests of national development.

In the sessional paper No.2 of 1996 on industrial transformation by the year 2020, the government views industrialization as a means to accelerate the country's economic development. The paper points out that technical training institutions (TTIs) have a big role to play in training technicians, craftsmen and artisans who are the actual workmen for the industrialization process. The development of technical and vocational education and training in Kenya (TVET) can be traced to four major education reviews. These are: The Kenya Education Commission of 1964/65; The National Committee for Educational Objectives and Policies (NCEOP) of 1996; The Presidential Working Party on a Second University in Kenya of 1981 and the Presidential Working Party on Education and Manpower training for the next decade and beyond of 1988 (Ringeera, 2012).

There is still a lot of expectation from TTIs which are seen as the hope and the fulcrum of the industrial take-off, which the nation plans to achieve by the year 2020 (Republic of Kenya, 1999). TTIs need to be given necessary attention if industrial transformation by the year 2020 is to be realized. Technical and vocational education and training has emerged as one of the most effective human resource development strategies that African countries need to embrace in order to train and modernize

their technical workforce for rapid industrialization and national development (COMEDAS 11, 2007). Kenya is aspiring to industrialize by the year 2030. In Kenya's Vision 2030, Science, Technology and Innovation have been proposed as key drivers to achieving its desired goals. This process largely depends on the quality of technical training offered to the trainees in various institutions mandated to provide training.

Technical training institutions have their share of challenges. Gichara (2013) observed that technical training institutions just like any other organizations that are large in nature and size are faced with managerial challenges associated with management of large organizations. These include the management and utilization of human and capital resources both financial and non-financial, co-ordination of various departmental activities, meeting stakeholders demands and ensuring set quality standards are met. This has resulted in the institutions experimenting on a variety of modern management methods. The success of these institutions is dependent upon the organizational commitment of the employees.

Organizational commitment has gained popularity because it is related to important outcomes like job performance and employee turnover. According to Jaramillo, Mulki and Marshall (2005) and Vijayashree and Jagdishchandra (2011), organizational commitment directly affects employees' performance and is therefore treated as an issue of great importance. Organizational commitment is important to researchers and organizations because of the desire to retain a strong workforce. Researchers and practitioners are keenly interested in understanding the factors that influence an individual's decision to stay or leave an organization (Bhatti, 2011). Shaw, Delery and Abdulla (2003) identified three dimensions of organizational commitment namely: affective, continuance and normative commitment.

Relevant studies have documented that leadership is related to organizational commitment (Ramchandran & Krishnan, 2009; Shirbagi, 2007). Leaders play an essential role in ensuring that the workforce and resources are integrated in order to achieve organizational goals. Every organization rises and falls on its leadership.

Leaders are in the business of change and have the authority and power to make things happen through others (Blanchard, 2008). According to Ngambi (2011), leadership is a process of influencing others' commitment towards realizing their full potential in achieving a value-added, shared vision with passion and integrity.

Many leadership theories have been proposed in the last fifty years which are claimed to have influenced effectiveness of organizations where they have been employed through employee performance. They include trait, behavioral and situational or contingency theories. Each of these theories had limitations. Consequently, two new theories under neo-charismatic theories were introduced. These were the traditional view of transactional leadership, involving an exchange process between leader and subordinate and a view of transformational leadership that allows for the development and transformation of people (Bass & Avolio, 1990).

Bass and Avolio (1997) developed the Full Range Leadership Theory (FRLT) which evolved from Bass's transactional/transformational theory. FRLT views leadership style as a multidimensional construct comprising of transformational leadership factors, transactional leadership factors and laissez-faire leadership or absence of leadership. FRLT is considered the most contemporary model that has the potential to explain leadership and its multidimensional nature and to empirically measure behaviors that can be used to predict leadership outcomes (Antonakis, Avolio & Sivasubramaniam, 2003). As a result of this, this study adopted this theory/model.

Four dimensions underlie the transformational leadership construct (Bass & Avolio, 1997). These are: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation. Transactional leadership construct has three dimensions namely: contingent rewards or reinforcement, active management-by-exception and passive management-by-exception. Laissez-faire represents the absence of leadership where a leader abdicates his or her responsibilities in decision making, giving feedback or helping followers to fulfill their needs (Northouse, 2004).

Employee participation has been cited as an important antecedent of organizational commitment (Moynihan & Pandey, 2007; Kirmizi & Deniz, 2009; Raymond & Mjoli, 2013). Organizations are realizing that their employees are the most important asset and organization's future depends on more involvement of employees in generating new ideas. The involvement of employees can help in many ways to the organizations looking for creativity, changes in behaviors at work and in workplace decision making (Bhatti, 2011). Participation of employees in the decision-making process and involving them in organizational plans and goals setting has a positive impact on the employees' commitment towards the organization (Kirmizi & Deniz, 2012). Marchington, Goodman, Wilkinson and Ackers, (1992) proposed a four-fold classification of employee participation schemes. These are: downward communications, upward problem-solving techniques, financial involvement of employees and representative participation. Leadership has also been reported to affect employee participation (Yousef, 2000; Buciuniene & Skudiene, 2008). Leadership style, employee participation and organizational commitment are seen to be interrelated.

## **1.2 Statement of the problem**

According to Koome (2014), there has been high academic staff turnover in technical institutions in Kenya. A study by Kenya National Union of Teachers (2015) indicated that more than 200,000 of teachers in public schools wish to leave teaching because of professional needs such as promotion and personal needs which include salaries and allowances. Uwezo East Africa (2014) reported that about 12% of teachers are not going to school which is about 35,000 teachers on any given day. This is an increase from Uwezo East Africa (2013) report that indicated that 11% of teachers are absent in Kenya which may be an indication of lack of commitment on the part of the teacher. Employee turnover has been associated with low organizational commitment (Igbaria & Greenhaus, 1992; Tret, Corn & Slocum, 1995; Bucieniene & Skudiene, 2008). Leadership style has been found to inversely and significantly influence turnover (Ng'ethe, Namusonge & Iravo, 2012). Relevant

studies have documented significant correlations between leadership styles and organizational commitment (Ahmadi, Ahmadi & Zohrabi, 2012; Gao & Bai, 2011; Kara, 2012; Rehman, Shareef, Mahmood & Ishaque, 2012). Employee participation has also been cited as an important antecedent of organizational commitment (Khan, Farooq, Aisha, Muhammad & Hijazi, 2011).

Technical institutions in Kenya will be critical in the realization of Vision 2030 which is Kenya's development blueprint covering period 2008-2030. The performance of these institutions will either hasten or slow down the realization of Vision 2030 in that they are envisaged to play a crucial role in creating a human resource base that will help meet the requirements of a rapidly industrializing economy. Regrettably a number of middle level colleges have been converted to universities thus creating a shortage of trained human resource at this level (Republic of Kenya, 1999). Technical education has been given "casual" treatment since independence to date (Oroni, 2012). Research in these institutions has mainly concentrated on students' issues like choice of courses, gender disparity, physical facilities, teaching/learning facilities and students discipline among others. The management of these institutions charged with a great responsibility of transforming the country has not been given due attention.

Although a relationship seems to exist between leadership style, employee participation and organizational commitment, not much has been done on the three variables in a single study. Studies on the three variables are scanty in the Kenyan context. The understanding of these three variables in technical training institutions would give a pointer to what should be done in these institutions to help in the realization of Vision 2030. This study focused on the effect of integrative leadership style on organizational commitment as moderated by employee participation in technical institutions in Kenya.

### **1.3 Objectives**

The objectives of the study were:

#### **1.3.1 General objective**

To establish the effect of integrative leadership style on organizational commitment as moderated by employee participation in technical institutions in Kenya.

#### **1.3.2 Specific objectives**

1. To determine the effect of transformational leadership style on organizational commitment in technical institutions in Kenya.
2. To find out the effect of transactional leadership style on organizational commitment in technical institutions in Kenya.
3. To determine the effect of laissez-faire leadership style on organizational commitment in technical institutions in Kenya.
4. To establish the moderating effect of employee participation on the relationship between integrative leadership style and organizational commitment in technical institutions in Kenya.

### **1.4 Hypotheses**

The following hypotheses were tested in the study:

H<sub>01</sub>: There is no significant effect of transformational leadership style on organizational commitment in technical institutions in Kenya.

H<sub>01a</sub>: There is no significant effect of transformational leadership style on affective commitment in technical institutions in Kenya.

H<sub>01b</sub>: There is no significant effect of transformational leadership style on continuance commitment in technical institutions in Kenya.



H<sub>01c</sub>: There is no significant effect of transformational leadership style on normative commitment in technical institutions in Kenya.

H<sub>02</sub>: There is no significant effect of transactional leadership style on organizational commitment in technical institutions in Kenya.

H<sub>02a</sub>: There is no significant effect of transactional leadership style on affective commitment in technical institutions in Kenya.

H<sub>02b</sub>: There is no significant effect of transactional leadership style on continuance commitment in technical institutions in Kenya.

H<sub>02c</sub>: There is no significant effect of transactional leadership style on normative commitment in technical institutions in Kenya.

H<sub>03</sub>: There is no significant effect of laissez-faire leadership style on organizational commitment in technical institutions in Kenya.

H<sub>03a</sub>: There is no significant effect of laissez-faire leadership style on affective commitment in technical institutions in Kenya.

H<sub>03b</sub>: There is no significant effect of laissez-faire leadership style on continuance commitment in technical institutions in Kenya.

H<sub>03c</sub>: There is no significant effect of laissez-faire leadership style on normative commitment in technical institutions in Kenya.

H<sub>04</sub>: There is no moderating effect of employee participation on the relationship between integrative leadership style and organizational commitment in technical institutions in Kenya.

H<sub>04a</sub>: There is no moderating effect of employee participation on the relationship between integrative leadership style and affective commitment in technical institutions in Kenya.

H<sub>04b</sub>: There is no moderating effect of employee participation on the relationship between integrative leadership style and continuance commitment in technical institutions in Kenya.

H<sub>04c</sub>: There is no moderating effect of employee participation on the relationship between integrative leadership style and normative commitment in technical institutions in Kenya.

### **1.5 Justification of the study**

Management literature is awash with evidence suggesting that organizational commitment is associated with variables of great importance for organizational efficiency and success. As such, it would be important for managers to know what variables are antecedents of organizational commitment in order to create conditions necessary for the development of such antecedents. Leadership style and employee participation are thought to be important antecedents of organizational commitment. The study contributes to literature on organizational commitment, integrative leadership and employee participation that could be of use to scholars and other interested parties.

This study might give Kenyan managers perspectives on how integrative leadership style affects organizational commitment of employees and how employee participation moderates this relationship. Specifically, the study may show how transformational leadership, transactional leadership and laissez-faire leadership affect organizational commitment and its dimensions. The information and knowledge obtained from this study might enable managers to have a better understanding of the leadership styles to embrace and employee participation schemes to employ in order to increase employees' commitment. This may help managers to better manage their employees to improve individual and organizational performance. This study provides a basis for further investigation in this promising research area.

## **1.6 Scope of the study**

This study was concerned with investigating the effect of integrative leadership style on organizational commitment as moderated by employee participation in technical institutions in Kenya. The study was carried out among the teaching staff of the 47 technical institutions in Kenya.

## **1.7 Limitations of the study**

Data was collected from lecturers and HODs. Lecturers rated their HODs while the HODs rated the principals. The perceptions of the principals were not considered. For better findings, data should be collected from the principals. The study used a homogeneous sample of lecturers teaching in technical institutions in Kenya. Hence the findings of this study have limited applications for other sectors and therefore difficult to generalize. This was a cross sectional study. Future research needs to carry out a longitudinal study. The questionnaire items were adopted from Bass and Avolio (1995), Meyer and Allen (1997) and Barringer and Bluedorn (1999). These were mainly used in western countries. The items may not exactly reflect the Kenyan setting.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter contains theoretical and empirical analytical literature on integrative leadership style, employee participation and organizational commitment. Part one identifies and explains the theoretical framework, models and conceptual framework on which the study was be hinged. The second part is dedicated to related literature on leadership style, employee participation and organizational commitment. The last part is devoted to critique and research gaps.

#### **2.2 Theoretical framework**

Since the middle of the twentieth century, various leadership theories have been developed by many scholars with different standpoints. These theories can be classified into five major perspectives as follows:

##### **2.2.1 Leadership trait theories**

Leadership trait theories attempt to explain distinctive characteristics accounting for leadership effectiveness. Early leadership studies were based on the assumption that leaders are born, not made. The trait approach focuses almost entirely on the physical and personality characteristics (Gerber, Nel & Van 1996). The list of traits was to be used as a prerequisite for promoting candidates to leadership positions (Lussier & Achua, 2011). The basic assumption that guided the trait leadership studies was that leaders possessed certain traits that other people did not possess. These traits included emotional intelligence; having an extrovert personality (charisma); masculinity and conservatism and being better adjusted than non-leaders (Senior, 1997). Numerous studies identified emotional intelligence as a critical element for the success of a leader and as a vital source for any group (Senior, 1997). By

identifying specific traits or characteristics of leaders, one could distinguish a leader from a follower (Hughes, 2005).

The trait theory was found to produce confusing results because a combination of traits proved effective in some groups of leaders while they were ineffective in others. Therefore leadership requires more than just study of people but also study of situations (Hughes, 2005). Mullins (2008) observed that there is a bound to be subjective judgment in determining who is regarded as a “good” or a “successful” leader. Also the list of possible traits would be very long and there is not always agreement on the most important traits. Even if it were possible to identify an agreed list of more specific qualities, this would provide little explanation of the nature of leadership. It would do little to help in the development and training of leaders (Mullins, 2008). The shortcoming of the trait theory is that it does not make judgment as to whether these traits are inherent to individuals or whether they can be developed through training and education. Comparing leaders in different situations suggests that the traits of leaders depend on the situation hence necessitating the introduction of the contingency theory.

### **2.2.2 Behavioral leadership theories**

Behavioral leadership theories resulted from research that began at Ohio State University in the late 1940s. Behavioral approach focused on assessing how leaders’ behavior contributes to the success or failure of leadership (Draft, 1999). These theories attempt to explain distinctive styles used by effective leaders, or to define the nature of their work. Behavioral research focuses on finding ways to classify behavior that will facilitate understanding of leadership. Many studies examined the relationship between leadership behavior and measures of leadership effectiveness but there was no agreement on one best leadership style for all management situations (Lussier & Achua, 2011). The main behavioral models include the Theory of Lewin, Lippitt and White (1939), McGregor’s Theory (1960), the Managerial Grid Model of Blake and Mouton (1964) and the Ohio State University and University of Michigan Models (Bass, 1990).

Studies conducted at the Ohio State University and the University of Michigan identified two leadership styles and two types of leader behaviors (two-factor theory). The identified two leadership styles were consideration and initiating structure (Robbins & Coulter, 2007). Initiating structure, also called task-oriented behavior, involves planning, organizing and coordinating the work of subordinates. This was concerned with the extent to which a leader defined and structured his or her role and the roles of group members in the search for goal attainment. Consideration on the other hand was concerned with the extent to which a leader had job relationships characterized by mutual trust and respect for group members' ideas and feelings. A leader high in consideration helped group members with personal problems, was friendly and approachable and treated all group members as equals. Research found that a leader who was high in both initiating structure and consideration (a high-high leader) achieved high group task performance and high satisfaction more frequently than one who rated low on either dimension or both.

The Michigan leadership studies were concerned with the principles and methods of leadership that led to productivity and job satisfaction. The studies resulted in two general leadership behaviors or orientations; an employee orientation and a production orientation (Robbins & Coulter, 2007). Leaders who had an employee orientation showed genuine concern for interpersonal relations; they took personal interest in the needs of followers and accepted individual differences. The leaders with a production orientation focused on the task or technical aspects of the job and regarded group members as a means to that end. The Michigan researchers in their conclusions strongly advocated for leaders who were employee oriented as they were associated with high group productivity and high job satisfaction (Robbins & Coulter, 2007). Empirical research has not demonstrated consistent relationships between task-oriented or person-oriented leader behaviors and leader effectiveness.

The weakness of behavioral theories is their omission of situational factors on the level of leader effectiveness. One concern is whether one particular method of leading is appropriate for all situations, regardless of the development stage of the

organization, the business environment in which it operates, or the type of people employed by the organization (Senior, 1997). As such, the perception of leadership progressed past the view that there is one best way to lead. As a result, theorists began to focus on how a leader ought to behave in order to be effective (Senior, 1997). Leader behavior research did not consider situational influences that might moderate the relationship between leader behaviors and leader effectiveness. It was clear that predicting leadership success involved something more complex than isolating a few leadership traits or preferred behaviors. Due to this, leadership theory in the 1960s began to focus on leadership contingencies.

### **2.2.3 Situational/Contingency leadership theories**

The situational/contingency approach to leadership examined how leadership changes from situation to situation. The contingency leadership theories attempt to explain that the appropriate leadership style is based on the leader, followers and situation (Lussier & Achua, 2011). According to this model, effective leaders diagnose the situation, identify the leadership style that will be most effective and then determine whether they can implement the required style (Mullins, 1999; Swanepoel, Erasmus, Van Wyk & Schen, 2000).

According to the theory, leaders adopt a suitable leadership style depending on the readiness of followers. The theory suggests that the favorability of the situation determines the effectiveness of task and person-oriented leader behavior. The approach is called “contingency” because it suggests that a leader’s effectiveness depends on how well the leader’s style fits the context. The performance of leaders cannot be properly understood outside of the situations in which they lead. Prominent among these theories are Fiedler’s Contingency Theory of leadership, the Path-Goal Theory of leader effectiveness which embodies transactional leadership, Hersey and Blanchard’s situational leadership Theory, the Cognitive Resource Theory, and the Decision-Process Theory (Bass, 1998).

The Fiedler contingency model proposed that effective group performance depended upon the proper match between the leader's style of interacting with his or her followers and the degree to which the situation allowed the leader to control and influence. Fiedler offered two leadership styles, those that are motivated by task and those that are motivated by relationship. Task-motivated leaders are those who are primarily concerned with reaching a goal, whereas relationship-motivated leaders are concerned with developing close interpersonal relationships. In order to measure a leader's style, Fiedler developed the Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC) questionnaire (Robbins & Coulter, 2007). Upon identification of an individual's leadership style, it was necessary to evaluate the situation in order to match the leader with the situation.

Fiedler characterizes situations in terms of three factors, leader-member relations, task structure and position power (Robbins, 1997). Task structure is the degree to which the requirements of a task are clear and spelled out. Leader-member relations refer to the degree of confidence, trust and respect employees have for their leader; rated either good or not. Position power is the amount of authority a leader has over power-based activities like hiring, firing, discipline, promotions and salary increases. According to Fiedler, an individual's leadership style is fixed with only two ways to improve leader effectiveness. This could be by bringing in a new leader whose style fit the situation or change the situation to fit the leader by restructuring tasks or increasing or decreasing the power that the leader had over factors such as salary increases, promotions and disciplinary actions.

The weakness with the model is that it is unrealistic to assume that a person can't change his/her leadership style to fit the situation. Moreover, it has been pointed out that more variables were probably needed to fill in some gaps in the model. The model has as well been questioned due to the practicality of the LPC questionnaire. In spite of its weaknesses, the model showed that effective leadership style needed to reflect situational factors (Robbins & Coulter, 2007).



Hersey and Blanchard's situational leadership theory focuses on follower's readiness. Situational Leadership Theory uses the same two leadership dimensions that Fiedler identified: task and relationship behaviors. Hersey and Blanchard went a step further by considering each as either high or low and then combining them into four specific leadership styles namely: telling, selling, participating and delegating styles (Robbins & Coulter, 2007).

According to the theory, the telling style is suitable for unable and unwilling followers. The leader defines roles and tells people what, how, when and where to do various tasks. The selling style is effective for unable and willing followers where the leader provides both directive and supportive behavior. The participating style is useful for able and unwilling followers whereby the leader and followers share in decision making. The delegating style is adequate for able and willing followers with the leader providing little direction or support.

The situational approach recognizes that for different development levels and different types of situations, different leadership styles are more effective. Leadership styles hence can be defined as the behavior of an organization's leader as influenced by the situation surrounding that leader (Senior, 1997). The situational approach has a conceptual weakness in that it is difficult to derive specific testable propositions from the approach because it does not permit strong inferences about the direction of causality (Yukl, 2002).

Many criticisms have been leveled against the traditional approaches. Bass and Avolio (1990) argued that these approaches have not been rigidly tested in practice. In addition, they are too specific either in defining leadership in terms of traits, behaviors or situation.

#### **2.2.4. Neo-charismatic theories**

As a result of organizations and their environments having changed rapidly over the past years, a new style of leadership, one that is less bureaucratic and more

democratic, was needed in order to ensure the survival of organizations (Johnson, 1995). Consequently, in the mid-to- late 1970s, there was a shift to the integrative, to tie the theories together or neo-charismatic theory. Neo-charismatic theories attempt to combine the trait, behavioral and contingency theories to explain successful, influencing leader-follower relationships. New theories of leadership evolved so as to ensure the survival of organizations and to overcome limitations of the trait, behavioral and contingency theories of the past. Transactional leadership and transformational leadership are the main representatives of neo-charismatic theories (Bass & Avolio, 1990).

### **2.2.5 Full range leadership theory**

Avolio and Bass (1994) developed the Full Range Leadership Theory (FRLT) which is a contemporary model. FRLT is a multidimensional construct comprising of transformational leadership factors, transactional leadership and laissez-faire leadership or absence of leadership (Antonakis *et al.*, 2003). FRLT has been considered more successful in determining effective leadership because it has been widely accepted in literature, is supported by empirical research and is integrative.

### **Transformational leadership theory**

The transformational leadership theory was developed by Burns (1978) and later enhanced by Bass (1985, 1998) and others (Avolio & Bass, 1988; Bass & Avolio, 1994). The major premise of this theory is the leader's ability to motivate the follower to accomplish more than what the follower planned to accomplish (Krishnan, 2005). Burns postulated that transformational leaders inspire followers to accomplish more by concentrating on the follower's values and helping the follower align these values with the values of the organization. According to Burns, transformational leadership is "A relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents."

Bass (1985) refined and expanded Burns' leadership theory. Bass said that a leader is "one who motivates us to do more than we originally expected to do." He said that this motivation could be achieved by raising the awareness level about the importance of outcomes and ways to reach them. Bass also said that leaders encourage followers to go beyond self-interest for the good of the team or the organization. Transformational leadership acts as a bridge between leaders and followers to develop clear understanding of follower's interests, values and motivational level (Bass, 1994).

### **Transactional leadership theory**

Transactional leadership is based on the traditional, bureaucratic authority and legitimacy where followers receive certain valued outcomes when they act according to the leader's wishes. Burns (1978) who first conducted the study of transactional leadership indicated that transactional leaders are those who sought to motivate followers by attracting or appealing to their self-interests. In Bass's (1985) conceptualization, transactional leadership results in followers meeting expectations, upon which their end of the bargain is fulfilled and they are rewarded accordingly.

Bass and Avolio (1990) defined transactional leadership as understanding employee needs, providing for those needs to reward employee contributions and hard work and committing to giving those rewards after employees complete assigned work duties. Both employees and leaders recognize performance and effort, given an agreement with the leadership outlining obligations. The transactional leader gives followers something they want in exchange for something the leader wants (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987).

The relationship is based on a series of exchanges or implicit bargains between leader and follower, clarifying role expectations, assignments and task-oriented goals. The transactional leader helps followers gain the skills and experience to efficiently and effectively do what is required of them in a particular task and in their defined follower role. Transactional leaders help followers accomplish tasks by

modeling attitudes and behaviors appropriate to the efficient and effective implementation of the task at hand. Transactional leaders thus focus their energies on task completion and compliance and rely on organizational rewards and punishments to influence employee performance (Tracey & Hinkin, 1998; Trott & Windsor, 1999).

### **Laissez-faire leadership theory**

Under laissez-faire leadership, the leader is inactive, rather than reactive or proactive. In a sense, this extremely passive type of leadership indicates the absence of leadership (Hartog, Muijen & Koopman, 1997). Laissez-faire style is marked by a general failure to take responsibility for managing. Laissez-faire leaders avoid involvement into making decisions, abdicate responsibility and avoid using their authority. Bass (1990) pointed out that there might be two types of laissez-faire leaders: those who show no leadership by avoiding it and those who do not lead because leadership is not necessary. Those who avoid leadership actually may be shirking responsibilities by burying themselves in paperwork, avoiding subordinates, setting no goals and letting things drift.

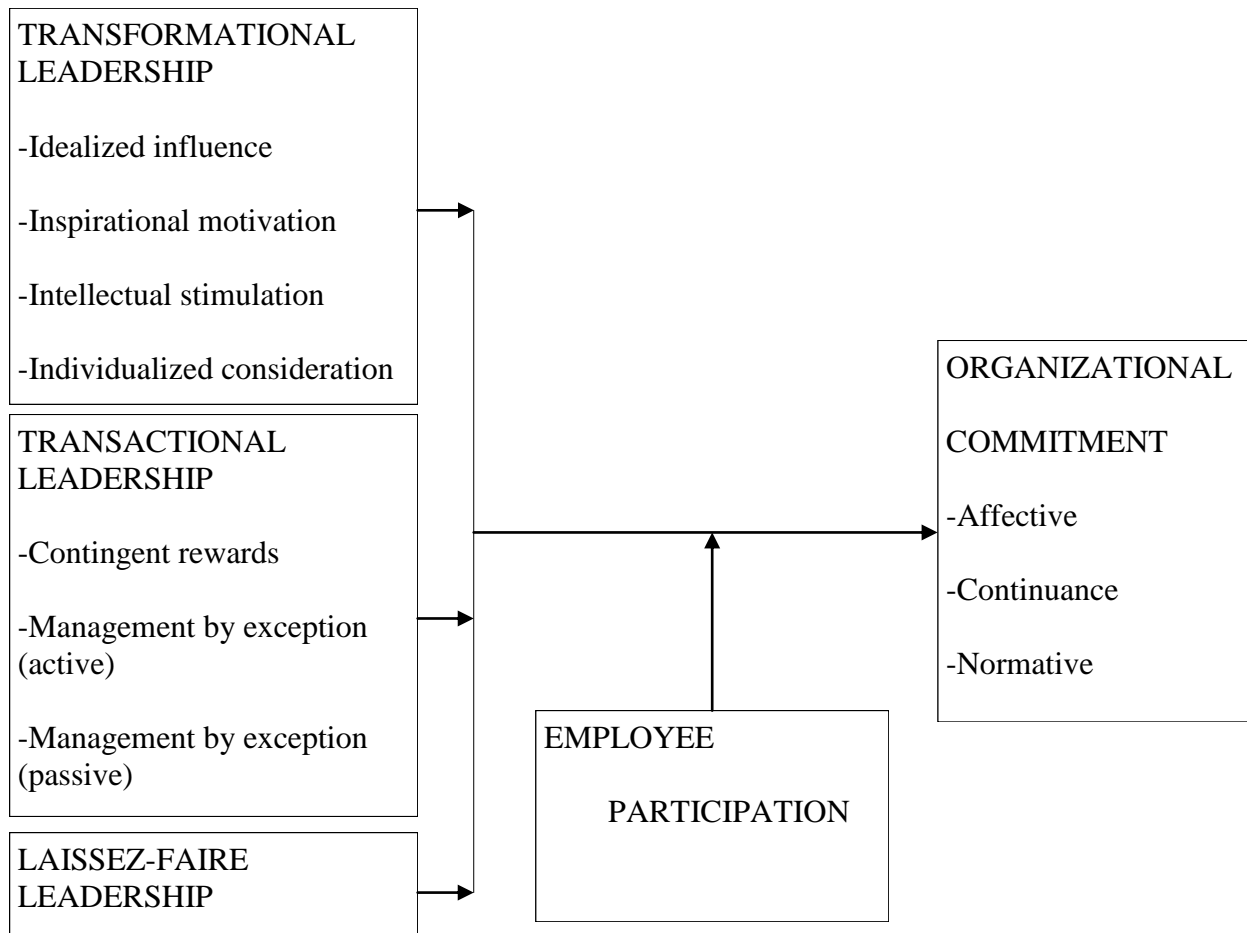
### **2.3 Conceptual framework**

Many leadership theories have been developed over time. They include trait, behavioral and contingency theories. These theories were found to have shortcomings hence the introduction of neo-charismatic theories. Bass and Avolio (1997) developed the Full Range Leadership Theory from the neo-charismatic theories. The Full Range Leadership Theory which comprises transformational, transactional and laissez-faire factors was adopted for this study. The independent variable was integrative leadership style. Integrative leadership style is made of three factors namely: transformational leadership, transactional leadership and laissez-faire leadership. Transformational leadership style has the following four components: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration. The components of transactional leadership are

contingent rewards, active management by exception and passive management by exception. The moderator variable was employee participation while the dependent variable was organizational commitment. The dimensions of organizational commitment are affective, continuance and normative commitment. The variables of the study are conceptualized in Figure 2.1.

# INTEGRATIVE LEADERSHIP

## STYLE



**Independent variable**

**Moderator variable**

**Dependent variable**

**Figure 2.1: Conceptual framework**

## **2.4 Review of variables**

The three variables under study namely: integrative leadership style, employee participation and organizational commitment are discussed below.

### **2.4.1 Integrative leadership style**

There is no universal definition of leadership because it is complex and studied in different ways that could require different definitions (Lussier & Achua, 2011). Leadership is the influencing process of leaders and followers to achieve organizational objectives through change (Lussier & Achua, 2011). Leadership is the process of inspiring individuals to give their best to achieve a desired result. According to Barna (2009), leadership is about getting people to move in the right direction, gaining commitment and motivating them to achieve their goals.

It has been widely been accepted that effective organizations require effective leadership and that organizational performance will suffer in direct proportion to the neglect of this (Fiedler & House, 1988). It is somewhat a difficult task to handle people who are physically, psychologically, culturally and ethnically different from each other. Management of employees is largely dependent on the quality of leadership organizations have (Albion & Gagliardi, 2007). Integrative leadership style encompasses transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership.

### **Transformational leadership**

Transformational leadership, an approach of enhanced interpersonal relationship between supervisor and subordinate, is a way to create higher level of job satisfaction and organizational commitment of employees. Transformational leaders help employees to become more creative, innovative and bring such new ideas which allow the organization to grow competitively and adapt itself to the changing external environment (Bushra *et al.*, 2011). Transformational leadership style focuses on the development of followers and their needs. Managers exercising transformational leadership style focus on the development of value system of

employees, their motivational level and moralities with the development of their skills (Ismail & Yusuf, 2009).

Schepers, Wetzels and Ruyter (2005) claimed that transformational leaders allowed employees to think creatively, analyzed the problem from numerous angles and explored new and better solutions of the problem by using technology. Transformational leaders motivate subordinates to accomplish more by focusing on their values and provide guidelines for aligning their values with the values of the organization (Givens, 2008). Transformational leadership serves to change the status quo by articulating to the followers the problems in the current system and a compelling vision of what a new organization could be. Modern leaders perfectly adopt an attitude that support employees, provide them a vision, cultivate hope, encourage them to think innovatively, individualized consideration and broaden the communication. All these factors are the main features of transformational leadership style leading to boost up organizational strengths and increasing level of job satisfaction and organizational commitment in the workforce (Bushra *et al.*, 2011).

Bass and his colleagues conceptualized transformational leadership into four components: idealized influence; inspirational motivation; intellectual stimulation; and individualized consideration (Gao & Bai, 2011). Idealized influence or attributes, is characterized by vision and a sense of mission, instilling pride in and among the group and gaining respect and trust (Humphreys & Einstein, 2003). Inspirational motivation occurs when leaders motivate and inspire those around them by providing challenges and meaning to their work. They provide visions of what is possible and how to attain these goals. More specifically, these leaders get followers involved in envisioning the future and then they promote positive expectations about what needs to be done and demonstrate commitment to the shared vision (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Inspirational motivation is usually concerned with a leader setting higher standards, thus becoming a sign of reference. According to Bass (1985), followers look up to their inspirational leader as one providing emotional appeal to increase awareness and understanding of mutually desirable goals.



Intellectual stimulation provides followers with challenging new ideas and encourages them to break away from the old ways of thinking. The leader is characterized as one promoting intelligence, rationality, logical thinking and careful problem solving. Individualized consideration means understanding and sharing others' concern and developmental needs and treating each individual follower uniquely. It is concerned with developing followers by coaching and mentoring (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1990). Leaders act as coaches and advisors to not only identify and satisfy each individual follower's current needs, but also to attempt to expand and elevate the needs in order to assist followers become fully actualized (Bass & Riggio, 2006). The leader pays close attention to the inter-individual differences among the followers and acts as a mentor to the follower. He teaches and helps others develop their strengths and listens attentively to others' concerns (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Bass (1990) described transformational leadership as leader behaviors that stimulate and inspire followers to achieve extraordinary outcomes by raising the level of motivation and morality in both themselves and their followers. According to Burns (1978), transformational leadership involves the process of influencing major changes in organizational attitudes in order to achieve the organization's objectives and strategies. Transformational leaders are effective in promoting organizational commitment by aligning goals and values of the follower, the group, the leader and the organization (Bass, 1990; Barling, Weber & Kelloway, 1996; Howell & Avolio, 1993). The strong and positive effects of transformational leadership on followers' attributes and commitment will then motivate followers to reach their fullest potential and exceed expected performance (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Transformational (extraordinary) leaders raise followers' consciousness levels about the importance and value of designated outcomes and ways of achieving them. Such leaders motivate followers to transcend their own immediate self-interest for the sake of the mission and vision of the organization. This encourages followers to develop and perform beyond expectations (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985). Under transformational

leadership style, the follower feels trust, admiration, loyalty and respect towards the leader and is motivated to do more than what was originally expected to-do (Bass, 1985). The transformational leader motivates by making followers more aware of the importance of task outcomes, inducing them to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the organization or team and activating their higher-order needs. The leader encourages followers to think critically and seek new ways to approach their jobs, resulting in intellectual stimulation (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Due to this, there is an increase in their level of performance, satisfaction and commitment to the goals of their organization (Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Bommer, 1996).

Transformational leaders influence followers' organizational commitment by encouraging followers to think critically by using novel approaches, involving followers in decision-making processes, inspiring loyalty, while recognizing and appreciating the different needs of each follower to develop his or her personal potential. Therefore, it is important that the employees themselves feel as if they belong to the organization, which in turn, produces more organizational commitment (Avolio, Zhu, Koh & Bhatia, 2004).

Transformational leadership style makes employees more confident and creative. The use of creativity and innovation helps achieve organizational goals (Locke & Latham, 1990). Both transformational leadership style and employee engagement practices develop sense of ownership in employees. They feel responsible for their actions; develop confidence in their abilities, sense of self-identity and sense of belongingness to their work and organization.

Transformational leadership has been reported to be superior to transactional leadership and has been suggested to play a greater role in followers' performance than transactional leadership (Northouse, 2010). Studies that have looked at managers at different settings have found that transformational leaders were evaluated as more effective, higher performers, more promotable than their counterparts and more interpersonally sensitive. According to Robbins and Coulter

(2007), transformational leadership is strongly correlated with lower turnover rates and higher levels of productivity, employee satisfaction, creativity and goal attainment and follower well-being. Transformational leadership has a great deal of influence regarding innovativeness at both the individual and organizational levels as it allows the followers to exercise greater freedom and gives them more responsibility (Gumusluoglu & Ilsev, 2007).

Transformational leadership behaviors show the strongest positive effects on followers' attitudes and their commitment to the leader and the organization (Bass & Riggo, 2006). Each component of this leadership paradigm builds follower commitment differently. Leaders use idealized influence to increase commitment by encouraging followers to develop a sense of identification with and an adherence to the goals, interests and values of the leader. Inspirational motivation is used by leaders to build emotional commitment to a mission or goal by moving followers to consider the moral values involved in their duties as members of the organization or profession. Leaders increase commitment through intellectual stimulation by encouraging and empowering followers to be innovative. Individualized consideration increases commitment at all levels when leaders provide their followers with a sense of increased competence to carry out directives and meeting their followers' personal and career needs (Bass & Riggo, 2006).

### **Transactional leadership**

Bass and Avolio (1990) defined transactional leadership as understanding employee needs, providing for those needs to reward employee contributions and hard work and committing to giving those rewards after employees complete assigned work duties. Transactional leadership which is also known as associate leadership requires establishment of relations between the leader and those employees who work under the leader's supervision (Ahmadi *et al.*, 2012). Transactional leadership provides benefit at the achievement of goals while penalties at not achieving the targets. Transactional leadership is a mutual exchange-process based on the performance of promissory obligations, typified by goal-setting, supervisory control and output

control. This is a leadership style in which the leader finds “reward and punishment” the best source of motivation for the followers (Hafeez, Rizvi, Hasnain, & Mariam, 2012). Although transactional leaders utilize transformational strategies at appropriate moments, they mostly motivate subordinates by means of predicting the future and depicting the vision.

Transactional leadership has a predictable impact on innovation behaviors and performance. The transactional leader often assigns tasks to subordinates by the law of “the correct way leads to success”, placing an emphasis on performing tasks as they have been performed in the past and using methods that are routine and predictable; thereby reducing the potential for creative performance (Wei, Yuan & Di, 2010).

Hellriegel and Slocum (2006) explain that transactional leadership is based on three primary components; contingent rewards, active management by exception and passive management by exception. Contingent rewards refer to the leader clarifying the tasks that must need to be achieved and use rewards to satisfy to achieve results (Rehman *et al.*, 2012). Active management by exception is whereby the leader ensures that followers meet predetermined standards. This style of leadership implies closely monitoring for deviances, mistakes and errors and then taking corrective action as quickly as possible when they occur. In passive management by exception, transactional leader interface in the matter of employee when subordinate give unaccepted performance. Subordinates receive contingent punishment in response to obvious discrepancies from the standard performance. It is a style of leadership whereby the leader intervenes only after the appearance of behaviors or mistakes against the requirements. A leader may also take no action at all and would be labeled passive– avoidant or laissez-faire. Such passive leaders avoid specifying agreements, clarifying expectations and providing goals and standards to be achieved by followers (Bass, Jung, Avolio & Berson, 2003). Both forms of management-by-exception result in the leader’s attempt to achieve the expected level of performance by preventing or correcting individual mistakes (Wei *et al.*, 2010). In the

management by exception or exception-based management (active and passive) the active leader particularly is trying to identify and prevent diversion from the prime objectives of the organization. This occurs while passive leader waits and sees what may happen (Ahmadi *et al.*, 2012).

### **Laissez-faire leadership**

Laissez-faire leadership is a passive kind of leadership style. It is a hands-off approach to leadership (Northouse, 2004). The laissez-faire leader is one who believes in freedom of choice for the employees, leaving them alone so they can do as they want. There is no relationship exchange between the leader and the followers. It represents a non-transactional kind of leadership style in which necessary decisions are not made, actions are delayed, leadership responsibilities ignored and authority unused.

Laissez-faire leaders are leaders who avoid accepting responsibility, are absent when needed, fail to follow up requests for assistance and resist expressing views on important issues (Bass & Avolio, 1995). Laissez-faire leadership is characterized by leaders who avoid decision-making, the provision of rewards and the provision of positive or negative feedback to their subordinates, with the leader clearly abdicating responsibility to others (Bass & Avolio, 1997). A leader displaying this form of non-leadership is perceived as not caring at all about others' issues.

The cause of laissez-faire leadership is two-fold. First, there is a strong belief that the employees know their jobs best so leave them alone to do their jobs. Second, the leader may not want to exert power and control for fear of not being re-elected if he may be in a political, election-based position. In this case, such a leader provides basic but minimal information and resources and there is virtually no participation, involvement or communication within the workforce. Laissez-faire leadership is considered the most passive component and the least effective form of leader behavior (Khan, Ramzan, Ahmed & Nawaz, 2011).

In laissez-faire leadership style, no attempt is made by the leader to motivate others or to recognize and satisfy individual needs. Laissez-faire leaders tend to be physically and emotionally removed from subordinates and tend to treat them as individuals as opposed to team members. Although they may not be close by, laissez-faire leaders maintain communication through a strong open door policy, conferences, reports and productivity records. Such a leader provides basic but minimal information and resources. There is virtually no participation, involvement or communication within the workforce. Understanding of job requirements, policies and procedures are generally exchanged from employee to employee. Because of this, many processes are out of control. No direction is given and the laissez-faire leader functions in a crisis or reaction mode. If there are goals and objectives, employee agreement or commitment is just assumed. Even if goals and objectives are shared, rarely is there a defined plan to accomplish them (Goodnight, 2004).

Laissez-faire approach is suitable under the right circumstances. This approach works where there are highly skilled and independent subordinates who show initiative and persistence in their work. Management controls must be established to monitor subordinate performance other than frequency of contact. The disadvantage of this leadership style is that subordinates may become insecure without continual reassurance and contact with their leader (Plunkett, 1992).

#### **2.4.2 Organizational commitment**

The concept of organizational commitment has attracted considerable interest in an attempt to understand and clarify the intensity and stability of an employee's dedication to the organization (Lumley, 2010). It is very important for organizations because of the desire to retain talented employees. Organizational commitment is essential for retaining and attracting well qualified workers as only satisfied and committed workers will be willing to continue their association with the organization and make considerable effort towards achieving its goals (Nagar, 2012). Acquiring, maintaining and retaining best workforce is an important success factor in today's organizations. The objective of the organization is not only to acquire workforce but

they are looking for an efficient and effective labor force. Getting workforce that can offer best return is now becoming the need of time. Commitment of workforce toward organization is considered essential.

Organizational commitment is an issue of prime importance, especially to the management and owners of the organizations. Organizational commitment and job satisfaction are directly related to an organization's profitability and competitive position in the market. Organizational commitment directly affects employees' performance and is therefore treated as an issue of great importance. (Siders, George & Dharwadkar, 2001; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolnytsky, 2002; Jaramillo *et al.*, 2005; Vijayashree & Jagdishchandra, 2011).

Organizational commitment refers to "the strength of an individual's feelings of attachment to, identification with and obligation to the organization" (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Henkin and Marchiori (2003) defined organizational commitment as a feeling of employees which force them to be the part of their organization and recognize the goals, values, norms and ethical standards of an organization. Organizational commitment is viewed as a psychological connection that individuals have with their organization, characterized by strong identification with the organization and a desire to contribute to the accomplishment of organizational goals (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Organizational commitment can be attributed as employees' loyalty and faithfulness towards organization and his intentions to be the part of that organization. Organizational commitment has significant importance because committed workers have less intention to quit the job, less often absent and highly motivated to perform at an advanced level (Bushra *et al.*, 2011).

Organizational commitment can be measured by the following factors: identification with the goals and values of the organization, the desire to belong to the organization and the willingness to display effort on behalf of the organization. Maxwell and Steele (2003) carried out a study to identify the determinants of organizational commitment and its effects in the organization. The results suggested that organizational commitment is determined by job characteristics such as the job scope

and work experiences such as rewards and employee importance. The findings further suggested that organizational commitment was positively related to employee performance.

Organizational commitment has a strong relation with the employee behaviour. If an employee is committed to an organization, it would reduce the chances or occurrences of absenteeism and turnover (Igbaria & Greenhaus, 1992). Gbadamosi (2003) contends that the more favorable an individual's attitudes toward the organization, the greater the individual's acceptance of the goals of the organization, as well as their willingness to exert more effort on behalf of the organization. Employees with high organizational commitment spend more personal resources during the job for the organization and also remain with organization and will not remain in search of other employment (Bret, Corn & Slocum, 1995).

Three essential components related to the definitions of organizational commitment have been found in literature. These three types of commitment are: affective, continuance and normative (Greenberg, 2005). Affective Commitment deals with the attachment of an employee with his organization and the organizational goals (O'Reily & Chatman, 1986). Employees with strong affective commitment keep working for the organization voluntarily and eagerly not only because they need the occupation, but because they want to work (Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993). In such type of commitment, the individual and the organization share similar values and therefore the interaction between them is positive (Shore & Tetrick, 1991).

Affective commitment encompasses at least three dimensions: development of an emotional involvement with an organization, identification with an organization and a desire to remain its member (Buciuniene & Skudiene, 2008). Affective commitment develops when the employees become more involved and recognize the value of their identity from association with the organization. Affective commitment relies on an emotional attachment to the organization and it is likely that the affectively attached employee will be motivated to make a greater contribution to shape the organization's vision (Aghashahi, Davarpanah, Omar & Sarli, 2013).



Continuance commitment deals with the commitment to pursue working in an organization because of the inter-employee relations and other non-transferable investments like retirement benefits (Riechers, 1985). An employee with continuance commitment finds it difficult to give up his organization due to the fear of the unknown ‘opportunity cost’ of leaving the organization or having few or no alternatives. It is based on the idea that the investments, or side bets, an employee makes in an organization, such as time, job effort, and the development of work friendships, organization-specific skills and political deals, constitute sunk costs that diminish the attractiveness of external employment alternatives (Jaros, Jermier, Koehler & Sincich, 1993). The employee feels compelled to commit to the organization because the monetary, social, psychological and other costs associated with leaving are high. Employees with high level of this type of commitment therefore remain a member of the organization because they need it.

Normative commitment refers to a sort of an obligation on the part of an employee, due to which he is willing to stay (or continue working) in an organization (Alam & Ramay, 2011). It is an employee’s moral commitment that manifests itself when an organization provides moral and financial support for the employee’s development. Employees high in normative commitment feel that they must maintain membership in the organization, because that is the “right and moral” thing to do (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Organizational commitment is also influenced by the nature of job and an employee’s experience at the workplace as it is influenced by such attributes as organizational climate (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman & Gupta, 2004) and opportunities for professional and technical growth (Baugh & Roberts, 1994), which are related to an employee’s job.

There are two forms of commitment, depending on the target of commitment: organization-oriented commitment and occupation-oriented commitment. Organizational commitment is generally defined as employees’ attachment and loyalty toward their organizations (Morrow & Wirth, 1989) whereas occupational

commitment refers to the psychological link between employees and their occupations on the basis of their affective reactions to the occupations (Lee, Chun & Lin, 2000).

### **Leadership and organizational commitment**

One personal and organizational factor that is considered as key antecedent of organizational commitment is leadership (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982). Shirbagi (2007) states that there is a positive relationship between leadership and overall organizational commitment. Leadership plays an important role in determining employees' commitment (Bushra *et al.*, 2011). Researchers have found that employees who are pleased with their supervisors/leaders and feel that they are being treated with respect and are valued by their management have more attachment with their organizations (Stup, 2005). Various studies conducted on leadership style (Decotiis & Summers, 1987; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990) claimed that there is a strong positive relationship between leadership and organizational commitment.

Lee *et al.* (2000) conducted research to find out effects of leadership style on organizational commitment; their results revealed that transformational style of leaders has direct bearing on commitment level of employees. Transformational leadership is considered as one of the most influencing factor which has a positive effect on employee commitment in Indian bank's employees (Rai & Sinha, 2000). Carlson and Perrew (as cited in Buciuniene & Skudiene, 2008) argued that when transformational leadership is enacted, members of organizations no longer seek merely self-interest, but that which is beneficial to the organization as a whole. Researchers have found that employees who are pleased with their supervisors/leaders and feel that they are being treated with respect and are valued by their management feel more attached to their organizations (Stup, 2005).

Transformational leaders have great ability to influence organizational commitment by promoting the values which are related to the goal accomplishment, by emphasizing the relation between the employees efforts and goal achievement and by

creating a greater degree of personal commitment on the part of both followers as well as leaders for the achievement of ultimate common vision, mission and goals of the organization (Shamir, Zakay, Breinin & Popper, 1998). Transformational leaders motivate subordinates to accomplish more by focusing on their values and provide guidelines for aligning their values with the values of the organization (Givens, 2008). Transformational leaders develop relationships with their followers that go beyond pure economic and social exchange (Bass, 1985). Transformational leadership by the top manager can enhance organizational commitment and innovativeness of employees directly and indirectly by creating an organizational culture in which employees are encouraged to freely discuss and try out innovative ideas and approaches (Ross & Gray, 2006).

Chiun, Ramayah and Min (2009) opine that different angles of transformational leadership have positive relationship with organizational commitment. Ismail and Yusuf (2009) studied the impact of transformational leadership on followers' commitment and concluded that there is a significant positive relation between these two variables. Transformational leadership is the most effective leadership style in determining organizational commitment of employees. Transformational leadership is positively correlated with organizational commitment (Avolio *et al.*, 2004). Transformational leaders influence followers' organizational commitment by encouraging followers to think critically by using novel approaches, involving followers in decision-making processes, inspiring loyalty, while recognizing and appreciating the different needs of each follower to develop his or her personal potential (Kara, 2012). A study by Geijsel, Sleegers, Leithwood and Jantzi (2003) examined the effects of transformational leadership on teachers' commitment and effort toward school reform and found that transformational leadership dimensions to affect both teachers' commitment and extra effort.

Transformational leadership is positively associated with commitment of employees to work and organization even when they are at distance from their supervisors and leaders. The positive impact of empowerment supports this relationship (Avolio,

Zhu, Koh & Bhatia, 2004). This shows that the development of behavior takes place when transformational leadership style is practised and employees are given sufficient level of empowerment in their work to engage. Transformational leadership not only enhances positive outcomes but also reduces the effect of negative aspects associated with employee satisfaction and performance. Organizations exercising transformational leadership style and practising follower's development showed employees less intentions to leave the organization; reduction in absenteeism and intention to leave. Ferguson (2009) discussed that transformational leadership style reduces the negative effects of work stress in the organization that ultimately improves the performance.

Leadership theory suggests a positive relation between transformational/transactional leadership and other constructs such as organizational commitment, job involvement, job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior (Mester, Visser, Roodt & Kellerman, 2003). Transformational leadership is the more effective in determining organizational commitment of employees than transactional leadership. Both transformational and transactional leadership are positively correlated with the organizational commitment (Avolio, Zhu, Koh & Bhatia, 2004; Chipunza, Samuel & Mariri, 2011).

Bass and Avolio (1993) claimed that organizations have a kind of culture, which is represented by the leaders who use transactional or transformational leadership styles. According to their findings, transactional culture creates only short-term commitment, whereas transformational culture creates long-term commitment. Several studies indicate that transformational leadership, when compared to transactional and laissez faire leadership, results in higher levels of satisfaction, commitment, organizational citizenship behaviour, cohesion, motivation, performance, satisfaction with the leader and leader effectiveness (Hartog & Van Muijen, 1997; Hater & Bass, 1988; Posdakoff, MacKenzie & Bommer, 1996). Transformational leadership enhances satisfaction level of employees in their work setting by improving organizational citizenship behavior (Breaugh, 1981). Although

the attitudes of job satisfaction, job involvement and organizational commitment represent distinct concepts (Brooke, Russel & Price, 1988), research has indicated that these work-related variables are likely consequences of each other (Brown, 1996). Koh, Steers and Terborg (1995) discovered that transactional leadership positively affects organizational commitment by emphasizing short-term, basic needs of subordinates and moreover further affects subordinate approval of the organization itself.

### **Employee participation and organizational commitment**

Participation of employees in the decision-making process and involving them in organizational plans and goals setting has a positive impact on the employees' commitment towards the organization (Kirmizi & Deniz, 2012). Involving employees in these processes, adds to their satisfaction and commitment. Higher employee participation leads to higher employee performance and organizational commitment in general (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Studies in literature show that job involvement and employee commitment have a significant relationship (Brown, 2003). Job involvement and organizational commitment both are linked with identification and recognition of employee with his work and job experience, in this aspect of job both are similar to some extent (Chughtai, 2008).

#### **2.4.3 Employee participation**

Organ, Podsakoff and McKenzie (2005) state that the ability of an organization to innovate and successfully implement business strategy and to achieve competitive advantage depends on how much employees are involved in their jobs. Singh (2009) observed that organizations are realizing that their employees are the most important asset and organization's future depends on more involvement of employees in generating new ideas. This has caused the great need for employee participation (EP).

Van Vugt, Hogan and Kaiser (2008) stated that leaders tend to ignore the essential role of employees. In today's context, people are no longer expected to accept decisions without having some opportunity to influence the final outcome. According to Marchington (1980), the success of participation depends on the behavior and attitudes of leaders. Buciuniene and Skudiene (2008) confirm that employee participation within an organization is affected by leader's behavior. Nerdinger (2008) indicates that human beings are fundamentally active and strive for responsibility, which leads to the valuing of participation in the organization.

Many authors have defined EP from different angles. Robbins and Judge (2009) refer to EP as the participative process that uses the input of employees to increase their commitment to the organization's success. Veluri (2010) defined EP as providing an opportunity to participate in management decisions. Employee participation is a process for empowering members of an organization to make decisions and to solve problems appropriate to their levels in the organization (Veluri, 2010). Employee participative decision-making is seen as a form of empowerment that allows employees to realise their full potential thereby helping organizations to secure competitive advantage (Jarrar & Zairi, 2002). Employers are interested in EP because these programs can bring many possible benefits to the organizations. The greatest benefit is that the employee identifies himself or herself with the work and this leads to an improved performance and job satisfaction. Improved performance manifests itself in an increased output and improved quality (Pattanayak, 2008; Aswathappa, 2008; Markey, 2006). It can also be instrumental in creating satisfied and highly committed employees (Markey, 2006).

Employees can contribute to a number of decisions like: setting work goals, choosing their own benefit packages, solving productivity and quality problems etc. This can increase employee productivity, commitment to work goals, motivation and job satisfaction. Employee participation will help build ownership and help employees identify with the whole change process (Sharma, 2007). Employee participation creates more job satisfaction, contributes to personal growth and at the same time

improves the results of the company (Pattanayak, 2008). Thus, the involvement of workers in decision making is considered as a tool for inducing motivation in the workers leading to positive work attitude and high productivity (Noah, 2008).

Participation is a process that allows employees to exercise some control over their work and the conditions under which they work (Strauss, 2006). It encourages employees to participate in the process of making decisions, which has a direct impact on work environment. Substantial employee participation in management is vital for cross-functional integration and efficient working. Nel, Swanepoel, Kirsten, Erasmus and Tsabadi (2005) posit that employee participation programmes recognize employees' right to be individually and collectively involved with leaders in the areas of organizational decisions, beyond those usually associated with collective bargaining.

Employee involvement provides employees the opportunity to use their private information, which can lead to better decisions for the organization (Williamson, 2008). As a result of the incorporation of the ideas and information from employees, organizational flexibility, product quality and productivity may improve (Preuss & Lautsch, 2002). Employee involvement also contributes to greater trust and a sense of control on the part of the employees (Chang & Lorenzi, 1983). Through employee involvement, resources required to monitor employee compliance (e.g. supervision and work rules) can be minimized, hence reducing costs (Spreitzer & Mishra, 1999). In addition, when employees are given the opportunities of contributing their ideas and suggestions in decision making, increased firms' performance may result since deep employee involvement in decision making maximizes viewpoints and a diversity of perspectives (Kemelgor, 2002).

Busck, Knudsen and Lind (2010) confirm that the tendency towards increased participation leads to an increase in employees' control at work, that is, their ability to influence decisions and use their skills or competencies. Employees must be involved if they are to understand the need for creativity and if they are to be committed to changing their behaviour at work, in new and improved ways (Singh,

2009; Kingir & Mesci, 2010; Kuye & Sulaimon, 2011). Employee involvement in decision making serves to create a sense of belonging among the workers as well as a congenial environment in which both the management and the workers voluntarily contribute to healthy industrial relations (Noah, 2008).

Employee participation and involvement is a key component of the high commitment bundle of HRM, but it can take a range of forms in practice. Employee participation is intended to provide employees with information, enable two-way exchange of views and opportunities to influence decision making in the workplace practice (Cox, Zagelmeyer & Marchington, 2006). Supporters of participation argue that it strengthens workers commitment to the firm, reduces the need for costly monitoring, and increases work effort and hence efficiency and productivity (Doucouliagos, 1995).

Employee participation in matters that concern their job serves to create a sense of belonging among workers, as well as a conducive environment in which both leaders and employees voluntarily contribute towards good and healthy industrial relations (Noah, 2008). Employees' involvement in the organization is considered a source of development and innovation (Ghafoor, Qureshi, Khan & Hijazi, 2011). EP has been proved to be an extensive way to motivate employees, as it allows employees to express their feelings regarding decisions. It gives scope for improved interpersonal communication between superiors and subordinates. Since employees feel their suggestions are accepted, they readily accept decisions (Veluri, 2010). The underlying logic is that if workers are involved in decisions that affect them and increase their autonomy and control over their work lives, employees will become motivated, more motivated, more committed to the organization, more productive and more satisfied with their jobs (Robbins & Judge, 2009).

Marchington *et al.* (1992) proposed a four-fold classification of EP schemes which are: downward communications, upward problem-solving techniques, financial involvement of employees and representative participation. This classification is based on theoretical reasoning relating to the characteristics of the schemes



concerned. Downward communication and upward problem-solving techniques are generally introduced on management's initiative and reflect a concern to increase communications. Downward communication refers to top-down communication from management to employees. Typical practices include company magazines and newsletters, team briefings, communication meetings, video briefings, employee reports, noticeboards, memoranda, presentations and staff intranets. The use of ICT in employee communication, for example the use of email and e-bulletins has been witnessed in recent years.

Upward problem-solving is concerned with empowering workers to improve work processes by encouraging them (either individually or in small groups) to suggest improvements and solutions to specific 'local' problems and to take greater responsibility for decisions over, for example, work organization and allocation. This is often as part of a broader focus on high performance and/or high quality. In particular, the rationale for such initiatives is to give employees greater 'ownership' over decisions in order to develop increased association with the strategic objectives of the firm and to improve motivation and job satisfaction. Examples of upward problem-solving mechanisms include quality circles or problem-solving groups, attitude surveys, employee focus groups, suggestion schemes and autonomous team working or self-managed teams where employees working in groups take responsibility for their job tasks, decide how their tasks are to be accomplished and appoint their own team leader from among members of the group (Robbins & Judge, 2009). The scope of upward problem-solving schemes can vary from small groups or individuals charged with solving specific problems or broader measures designed to seek the opinion of employees on a broad range of issues, allowing differences between employees and managers to surface and be resolved helping employees and managers better understand each other's concerns, expectations, needs and wants.

Representative participation refers to mechanisms for indirect and collective employee participation in decision-making through management consultation and negotiation, either with trade unions or elected workers' representatives. Such

participation typically provides employees with a degree of influence over a range of issues as part of decision-making bodies, such as joint consultative committees, advisory councils and works councils. The most powerful form of representative participation is collective bargaining which refers to the joint regulation of certain aspects of the employment relationship (most commonly, pay) by employers and recognized trade union representatives. Representative participation covers works councils, collective bargaining and board representatives among others. In western European countries like Germany and Netherlands, works councils are one of the most important models of employee representation. In English speaking countries like Australia, United Kingdom and USA, collective bargaining and joint consultation are the more significant channels (Parasuraman, 2007).

Financial participation represents a range of mechanisms that allow employees a financial stake in the firm. Whilst clearly not a form of ‘voice’ and affording little opportunity to exert influence over management (Strauss, 2006), financial participation represents a form of participation complementary to voice initiatives which seek to develop the long-term relationship between employees and employer by connecting the overall success of the firm with individual reward. Typical mechanisms include employee share ownership schemes, profit-related pay or profit-sharing and bonus payments. Financial participation has the purpose of enhancing employee commitment to the organization by linking performance of the firm to that of the employee (Aswathappa, 2008). Representative participation and financial participation are associated with establishments operating more competitive product markets. Two main types of financial participation schemes exist. One involves relating an element of pay to profits while the other involves offering shares in the firm to employees. Offering shares has been greatly encouraged in recent years by the introduction of a number of tax breaks for employees investing in their company’s shares. Relating an element of pay to profits offers a much more direct link between effort and reward and might therefore be expected to be more effective in promoting good financial performance (Macnabb & Whitefield, 1998).

Two forms of EP exist: direct and indirect participation. Direct participation allows workgroups/individual employees to be involved in the decision making process (Solomon, 1988). Direct participation involves the employees themselves (Cabrera, Ortega & Cabrera, 2001). Direct participation encompasses any initiatives which provide for greater direct employee involvement in decisions affecting their jobs and immediate work environment. Direct employee participation may include briefing groups, quality circles, consultative meetings and team working. Direct forms of employee participation are normally introduced at management's behest, often as part of a change initiative whereby management transfers responsibility to employees for a limited range of job-related decisions, such as working methods or task allocation. Indirect participation takes place through an intermediary of employee representative bodies (Cabrera *et al.*, 2001). It is whereby employees' views and input are articulated through the use of some form of employee representation. Common examples include trade unions and works councils. Such employee representatives are generally elected or nominated by the broader workers' body and thus carry a mandate to represent the interests and views of the workers they represent. They do not act in a personal capacity but as a conduit through which the broader mass of workers can influence organizational decision making. Representative participation is largely concerned with re-distributing decision making power in favor of employees.

Robinson and Wilson (2006) found that only indirect forms of participation such as union representation offer a real voice for employees and consequently have productivity enhancing effects. Yates (2006) found that the combined effect of financial participation schemes, such as Employee Share Ownership and unions enhance economic democracy goals by providing a greater say in the management and governance of the firm. Strauss suggests that representative participation is likely to be more effective than direct participation and that the former needs to be associated with the latter to succeed (Strauss, 1998). To him direct participation can only make limited changes to the way work is undertaken because most fundamental changes affect workers outside the immediate vicinity of the participation process

and thus need to involve higher-level managers. He states, “In fact, only relatively unimportant decisions are made at the workplace level. Really important decisions, relating, for example, to job security, are made higher up” (Strauss, 1998). Representative participation seeks to reduce the extent of management prerogative and effect greater employee influence on areas of decision making which have traditionally been the remit of senior management. Representative participation is generally employee driven, coming from the demands of workers or their trade unions for a greater input into organizational decision making.

Aswathappa (2008) pointed out that there are five ethical perspectives involved in participation. The first stems from the fundamental objective of any morality- the impartial promotion of human welfare. Impartiality requires a fair hearing of the interests of every person in decisions concerning policies that affect their lives. The second principle supporting participation relates to the mental and physical health of employees. The third one is derived from the negative consequences of hierarchical and authoritarian organizations of work which deny the workers their voice in decision making. Such deprived employees develop apathy towards any democratic process. The fourth requires the need to recognize the inherent value and dignity of the human being. The last one relates to the assumption that employees who believe themselves powerless will lose psychological good of self-respect. All persons deserve the conditions that contribute to their sense of dignity or self-efficacy.

Strauss (1998) had three rationales for implementing EP in organizations. First he considered EP in terms of the idea of power sharing perspective and democratic principles in the workplace (Strauss, 2006). If employees are actively involved in EP, particularly in direct participation, then employers benefit in terms of, company business performance and excellent service quality (Cotton, 1993) but the gains for employees or unions are less (Ramsay, 1991; Markowitz, 1996). The second reason was that EP could contribute significantly to organizational efficiency and performance in organizations. Other labor advocates found that EP can enhance job performance, commitment and employee skills in organizing their own work

(Addison & Belfield, 2000). Lastly, he looked at the issue from a humanistic perspective. EP is implemented to fulfill non-economic desires such as personal growth, self-work and self-actualization. Wilpert (1998) explains that if employees are satisfied with the nature and organization of work and have input in the organizational decision making, then it will lead to their higher motivation that will benefit the organization in the long term, in terms of the employees work performance and their desire to perform their job better in future.

Strauss (2006) said that participation is a process that allows employees to exercise some control over their work and the conditions under which they work. It encourages employees to participate in the process of making decisions, which has a direct impact on work environment. Substantial employee participation in management is vital for cross-functional integration and efficient working.

Recent years have witnessed the development of a wide range of schemes aimed at increasing employee participation in the decision making process. Many of these have been introduced as components of management packages attempting to improve organizational performance. Employee participation is an extremely heterogeneous concept and varies from, at one extreme, active joint consultation to, at the other, the existence of a suggestion scheme (Macabb & Whitner, 1999). According to Robbins & Judge (2009), employee participation schemes include: quality circles, participation at the board level, self-directed work teams, joint councils and committees, job enlargement and job enrichment, staff or works councils, collective bargaining, participation through complete control, total quality management, suggestion schemes and financial participation.

A number of recent studies, however, have suggested that the assumed effects for workers of high-involvement work organizations (i.e. quality circles and teams) may not be found. Marchington *et al.*'s (1992) study of employee involvement in the United Kingdom supports these findings. They conducted 25 in-depth case studies involving 38 sites and concluded that employee involvement was typically management initiated with the intention of improving communication and enhancing

employee commitment but had nothing to do with increasing employee influence. The other camp argues that various forms of participation reduce managerial power, obstruct management decision making, waste valuable and scarce resources and lead to free rider problems (Doucouliagos, 1995).

## **2.4 Empirical studies**

### **2.4.1 Leadership and organizational commitment**

Many researchers have studied the relationship between leadership style and organizational commitment and have found that leadership style has a significant effect on the commitment level of employees. Davenport (2010) found that personality type and leadership style both are important predictors of organizational commitment. He found that employees with internal locus of control are more committed towards organization/s; similarly employees who follow transformational leaders are also more committed towards their organizations. Shirbagi (2007) states that there is a positive relationship between leadership and overall organizational commitment; he also found a positive relationship of leadership style with three components of organizational commitment.

Stander and Rothmann (2008) found that a leader's behavior impacts positively on employee attitudes towards their jobs; these positive attitudes in turn result in employees' desire to maintain their relationship with the company concerned. Savas and Toprak (2014) found strong correlations between leadership practices and organizational commitment in Turkey. Teachers are influenced by actions of their leaders and these leadership skills have a determining effect on whether teachers are affectively attached to their organizations. Mahdi, Mohd and Almsafir (2014) in their study found that there was a significant strong relationship between the leadership behavior (supportive and directive) and organizational commitment (affective, continuance and normative). The results of this investigation suggest that supportive and directive leadership behavior have significant relationship and impact with

affective, continuance and normative organizational commitment in plantation companies in Malaysia.

In Indonesia, Mutmainah, Afnan and Noermijati (2013) found that leadership style has indirect effect on the performance of private school teachers of Malang City through organizational commitment. The Principal's leadership style can be said to influence the teachers' performance through organizational commitment. In Singapore, Loke (2001) opined that leadership behaviours have a great impact on employees' outcomes and that nurse managers should not just use leadership behaviours but must use them appropriately to influence employees for better organizational outcomes. In a South African study by Nyengane (2007), overall findings suggest that transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership behaviors do play important roles in determining levels of affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment. In contrast, a Kenyan study by Mbwiria (2010) concluded that leadership styles of secondary school principals do not influence commitment of teachers.

### **Transformational leadership and organizational commitment**

Transformational leadership style has been proven to be the most effective style of leadership (Obasan & Hassan, 2014). A number of studies in educational settings have indicated that the commitment of teachers increased as they perceived their leaders to have higher levels of transformational leadership. In a study involving 3,074 teachers in elementary schools in Canada, Ross and Gray (2006) found that transformational leadership had direct influence on teachers' commitment to school mission. This correlation suggested that the more teachers perceive their leader as transformational, the higher their levels of commitment to their organization. Further, the results showed that approximately 40% of the variability in special education teachers' level of job organizational commitment could possibly be accounted for by teachers' perceptions of their administrators' supportive or transformational behaviors.

In another study of 144 high school teachers in western India, Krishnan (2005) found that transformational leadership significantly related to a teacher's attachment and affective commitment to his or her organization. In Costa Rica, Camps and Rodriguez (2011) concluded that employees who worked under transformational leaders had high self-perception of their employability and stay committed to their employers. A study by Geijsel *et al.* (2003) examined the effects of transformational leadership on teachers' commitment and effort toward school reform and found transformational leadership dimensions to affect both teachers' commitment and extra effort (Geijsel *et al.*, 2003). McGuire and Kennerly (2006) found significant correlations between transformational leadership and organizational commitment of staff nurses in the mid-west region. Limsila and Ogunlana (2008) reported a significant relationship between transformational leadership and effectiveness, satisfaction, extra effort and commitment. The results of a study in a higher public institution in Malaysia by Yahaya, Chek and Samsudin (2013) revealed that faculty members perceived their leaders practised transformational leadership more frequently than the transactional and laissez-faire leadership. In terms of commitment, this study found that 87.7% of the faculty members had high level of commitment, while the remaining 12.3% had moderate level of commitment. The findings of this study clearly demonstrated that transformational leadership was positively correlated with organizational commitment. These findings lead to the conclusion that most effective leaders are those who combine both leadership styles as suggested by Bass and Avolio (2004).

Aghashahi *et al.* (2013) examined the statistical relationship between leadership styles and organizational commitment components. Results supported a positive direct relationship of transformational leadership style with affective and normative commitment in the context of service industry. The results of the analysis provided that transformational leadership had the strongest and most positive correlations with affective commitment. The statistical results of this study suggest that in contact centers where employees are under high pressure and stress, the leaders who encourage the followers to look to problems and challenges and approach them from



creative perspectives will enhance the willingness of the employees to stay loyal to the organization. The results also indicated that transformational leadership has a positive effect on the employee moral obligations underlying in normative commitment to stay in the organization. This suggests that transformational leadership in which the leader creates, communicate and model a shared vision for the subordinates will positively affect the belief of employees to remain in the organization because that's the right and moral thing to do. Transformational and transactional styles were not found to be significant predictors of continuance commitment. The outcome of this study is consistent with the result of Lo, Ramayah and Min (2009) who concluded that transformational leaders are more able to inspire commitment in employees than transactional leaders in Malaysian manufacturing industry. It is also supported by the study of Walumbwa, Orwa, Wang and Lawler (2005) as their results showed that transformational leadership has a strong and positive effect on organizational commitment. Muchiri, Cooksey and Walumbwa (2012) also investigated the same relationship in local government councils in Australia and found that transformational leadership predicted affective-normative commitment.

Several studies on organizational commitment using Malaysian samples have reported the relationship between transformational leadership and commitment. In a study involving 156 employees from 11 manufacturing companies in Malaysia, Lo, Ramayah, Min and Songan (2010) found a positive direct relationship between transformational leadership and three components of commitment (affective, normative and continuance commitment). In another study utilizing 118 employees from a U.S. subsidiary firm in Malaysia, Ismail, Mohamed, Sulaiman, Mohamad and Yusuf (2011) found that transformational leadership positively and significantly correlated with both the empowerment and the organizational commitment of employees. Respondents perceived that transformational leaders had increased employees' empowerment and subsequently increased the level of organizational commitment of employees.

In a Malaysian study by Givens (2011), research results revealed that transformational leadership behaviors and contingent rewards leadership had a statistically significant relationship with follower's affective commitment and normative commitment, and that these leadership behaviors accounted for 32.8% of the variance in the followers' affective commitment and 31.4% of the variance in the followers' normative commitment. Correlation analysis indicated that individual consideration had the strongest relationship with employees' organizational commitment. The results of the study showed that there are significant correlations between transformational leadership style and job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

In another Malaysian study, the statistical results indicated a positive direct relationship between three dimensions of transformational leadership styles, namely intellectual stimulation, idealized influence and inspirational motivation, with affective and normative commitment. Similarly, two dimensions of transformational leadership, namely, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration were found to have positive relationship with continuance commitment (Lo *et al.*, 2009). The results show that Malaysian employers to be more transformational than transactional which is in line with the findings of a study by Sabri (2005). Correlation analysis shows that transformational and transactional leadership styles are related to employees' organizational commitment.

In another study conducted in Malaysia on the relationship between transformational leadership and teacher commitment, there were partially significant linear correlations between transformational leadership and teacher commitment. First, "individualized consideration" and "idealized influence" were factors to "commitment towards organization" (Ling & Ling, 2012). Higher levels of organizational commitment are reported among employees when leaders are perceived as being more transformational. Transformational leadership behaviors were found to have significant impact on teacher commitment (Amoroso, 2002). Leithwood, Seashore, Anderson and Wahlstrom (2004) also reported that

transformational leadership had significant direct and indirect effects on teachers' commitment to change (Ling & Ling, 2012). Transformational leadership has a positive influence on organizational commitment and employees' performance (Thamrin, 2012). Extensive research has indicated that transformational leadership is positively associated with organizational commitment in a variety of organizational settings and cultures (Givens, 2008).

The results of an Iranian study by Aboodi, Javadi and Kazemian (2013) showed a positive correlation between organizational commitment of healthcare staff and transformational behavior of their supervisors. In an Indonesian study, Atmojo (2012) found that transformational leadership significantly influences employee organization commitment at PTPN V Riau. This implies that transformational leadership should encourage employee's trust. Trust building relies on leader's expertise and leader's consistency in articulating statements and attitudes. As a result, transformational leadership improves employee's organizational commitment at PTPN V Riau.

A study carried out in China, India and U.S. shows that employees in an organization are emotionally attached and they feel obliged to stay when they perceive their superiors to be transformational leaders (Ramachandran & Krishnan, 2009). In addition, the way employees in different cultures perceive commitment and transformational leadership is different in different cultures. The most significant finding of this study is that the relationship between follower's organizational commitment (particularly normative commitment) and transformational leadership is stronger in collectivistic cultures than in individualistic cultures. Results indicate that affective commitment and normative commitment are positively related to transformational leadership, whereas continuance commitment is not significantly related. Normative commitment is significantly higher in India-China combined than in the U.S. Continuance commitment is moderately higher in China than in India and the U.S. Transformational leadership is moderately higher in the U.S. than in China. Culture moderates the effect of transformational leadership on normative

commitment and affective commitment. Normative commitment is significantly and positively related to transformational leadership in India and China, but not in the U.S. Affective commitment is significantly and positively related to transformational leadership in the U.S. and India but not in China.

Rai and Sinha (2000) conducted a test of 261 middle managers from public banking sector in India and identified that managers' score on transformational leadership accounted for significant amounts of variances in their commitment to the organizations. Emery and Barker (2007) investigated the effect of transactional and transformational leadership styles in the U.S. on the organizational commitment of customer contact personnel in banking and food store organizations. Their findings showed that employees managed under a transformational style of leadership will have a higher organizational commitment. Specifically, the three factors of transformational leadership (i.e. charisma, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration) were significantly correlated with the organizational commitment of food store employees (Emery & Barker, 2007).

Yahchouchi (2009) conducted a study on Lebanese managers' leadership. Results show a significant correlation between transformational leadership and organizational commitment. The correlations and regression results support hypothesis that proposed a positive relation between transformational leadership and organizational commitment. Joo, Yoon and Je (2012) examined the impact of transformational leadership and core self-evaluation on organizational commitment of employees using a sample of 500 companies of Korea. The results found the positive relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment.

Rad and Yarmohammadian (2006) hypothesise that leadership styles and organizational commitment are highly interrelated, as leaders who practise effective leadership in planning and administering organizational functions will strongly motivate their employees to commit to the organization. Lee (2005) also maintains that there is a positive association between transformational leadership and

organizational commitment: a transformational leader's consideration for their followers' individuality and willingness to coach them will, in effect, create meaningful exchanges. Horn-Turpin (2009) found that higher levels of organizational commitment are reported among employees when leaders are perceived as being more transformational.

In their meta-analytic investigation, Meyer *et al.* (2002) identified only four studies that examined the relation between transformational leadership and each of affective commitment and continuance commitment and only three studies examining the relation with normative commitment. They found positive relations with affective commitment and normative commitment and a negative relation with continuance commitment. Similar findings have been reported in more recent primary studies (Rafferty & Griffin, 2006). Rafferty and Griffin found that several dimensions of transformational leadership correlated negatively with continuance commitment. However, correlations ranging from zero to weak positive between transformational leadership and continuance commitment have been also been reported (Felfe, Yan & Six, 2008).

Jackson, Meyer and Wang (2013) carried out meta-analytic studies which showed employees with strong affective commitment want to remain, those with strong normative commitment feel that they ought to remain and those with strong continuance commitment believe that they have to remain. An important finding of this study was a strong correlation between transformational/charismatic leadership and affective commitment and a moderate correlation between the same leadership variable and normative commitment. It is noteworthy that the correlations involving affective commitment and normative commitment were both positive but that the correlation with normative commitment was weaker. Found no significant relation between transformational/charismatic leadership and continuance commitment. Using meta-analytic techniques, transformational/charismatic leadership correlated substantially with one form of commitment (affective commitment) and its influence

on other forms of commitment (normative commitment and continuance commitment) appeared susceptible to cultural moderation.

Less attention has been paid to examining the links between commitment and the transactional and laissez-faire styles of leadership (Jackson *et al.*, 2013). Transformational/charismatic leadership was shown to be positively related to affective and normative commitment, while contingent rewards and management-by-exception (active) were positively related to affective commitment (Jackson *et al.*, 2013). In Yemen, transformational leadership was significantly related to all aspects or dimensions of organizational commitment namely affective, continuance and normative (Saeed, Gelaidan & Ahmad, 2013). The results showed that transformational leadership is a very crucial factor of enhancing the organizational commitment in the Yemen setting. Results further showed that the employees in Yemen setting are influenced by the behavior of the transformational leadership which shows the more the leader showed transformational charisma, the more he or she can enhance and to be admired by the subordinate. In addition, transformational leadership in this case showed it is more powerful than transactional leadership.

In a study involving manufacturing workers in Taiwan, Chen (2004) found that transformational leadership correlated with organizational commitment. Wu *et al.* (2006) confirmed that transformational leadership significantly correlated with affective commitment and continuance commitment. Gao and Bai (2011) conducted a study on Chinese Family Businesses (CFB) involving 186 CFBs. They found that the leadership behavior of CFB owners is quite similar to transformational leadership style and their transformational leadership behavior has positive impact on family employees' value commitment and commitment to stay. This study is one of the first to study the leadership style in CFBs. It empirically validates the transformational leadership theory in the context of China. Jia, Chen and Song (2006) verified that there was the positive association between the transformational leadership and

organizational commitment of employees by using the samples of 972 managers of the companies in China.

The results of a Turkish study by Kara (2012) show the correlation analysis between employees' organizational commitment and managers' transformational leadership and its sub dimensions as statistically significant. There is a positive, moderate level of correlation between employee organizational commitment and transformational leadership styles (idealized attributes, idealized behaviors, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individual consideration leadership styles). In the analysis, employees' organizational commitment and transformational leadership styles (idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration) were found to be significant. According to the results, there is a correlation between the dependent variable (organizational commitment) and the independent variable (transformational leadership style). The results showed that 13 percent of the total variance in employee organizational commitment stems from transformational leadership style.

In another Turkish study by Cemaloglu, Sezgin and Kilin (2012), it was found that school principals prefer transformational leadership style to transactional leadership style and that teachers' continuance commitment levels are higher than affective and normative commitment. Results show significant relationships between school principals' leadership styles and teachers' organizational commitment levels. School principals showing the behaviors of idealized influence (behavior), idealized influence (attributed), motivation by inspiration, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, contingent rewards and management by exception (active) are negatively related to teachers' affective commitment. Inspirational motivation and individualized consideration were predicting affective commitment.

Overall results of a Pakistanian study by Rehman *et al.* (2012) show that both transformational and transactional leadership have positive relationship with organizational commitment. The second important finding is that transformational leadership is used mostly than transactional leadership. The elements of the

transformational leadership have consistent averages in contribution of organizational commitment. The results show inspirational motivation and individual consideration as playing a strong role in contribution of transformational leadership towards the organizational commitment. But there is very little difference in the contribution of all the elements of transformational leadership. This is the basic reason why transformational leadership leads to commitment as a whole.

Transformational leadership encourages the subordinates and gives way of critical thinking which affects employee commitment (Avolio & Bass, 1994). Transformational leadership is considered as one of the most influencing factor which has a positive effect on employee commitment in Indian bank's employees (Rai & Sinha, 2000). If the management of the organization tries to satisfy the needs of its employees, the commitment of the employee will also increase and employees will prefer to remain the part of the organization (Hamdia & Phadett, 2011).

The results of a Taiwanese study by Wu *et al.*(2006) showed that when the top-level leadership is a democratic style, the degree of the subordinates' overall and effort commitments are significantly higher than those led by authoritative and non-interference leadership styles. The subordinates led by a democratic leadership style have a higher degree of value and retention commitments than those led by an authoritative leadership style. This finding implies that a democratic style has the highest degree of overall and effort commitments for subordinates and an authoritative style results in the lowest degree of overall and retention commitments for the followers.

Using a sample of 158 respondents, Raja and Palanichamy (2011) conducted a survey which showed that the leadership style at Bharat Heavy Electricals Limited (BHEL) in India was more transformational than transactional. Correlation and regression analysis also evidenced that transformational leadership style is related to employees' organizational commitment than the transactional leadership. Senior Engineers tend to perceive their leadership styles as more transformational. In a study assessing the link between leader personality and transformational leadership



behaviour, Judge and Bono (2000) found that by controlling for transactional leadership, transformational leadership behavior significantly predicted subordinate satisfaction with the leader, subordinate organizational commitment, work motivation and supervisory ratings of leader effectiveness.

Transformational leadership was found to be significantly related to organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior in a study of 864 teachers in Singapore (Koh *et al.*, 1995). Avolio *et al.* (2004) conducted a study on staff nurses in a public hospital of Singapore and stated that transformational leadership positively affects organizational commitment. Ismail and Yusuf (2009) studied the impact of transformational leadership on followers' commitment and concluded that there is significant positive relation between these two variables. Transformational leadership is the most effective leadership style in determining organizational commitment of employees.

Bushra *et al.* (2011) in a Pakistanian study found that transformational leadership positively relates with organizational commitment of the sampled employees. Transformational leadership brings 16% change in organizational commitment which exhibits a positive and moderate relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment. The study found that if managers encourage employees' innovative thinking, spends time to teach and coach them, consider their personal feelings before implementing a decision, helps them to develop their strengths, it will increase the level of emotional attachment that workers have with their organizations. Employees will feel pride to be a part of it, find similarity between their own values and organization values and ready to accept any type of job assignment for the smooth running of organization.

Mester *et al.*(2003) in a South African study found that although transformational and transactional leadership did not correlate significantly with job involvement and job satisfaction, the study provides evidence of a significant relationship between transactional leadership and affective commitment, transformational leadership and affective commitment (to a lesser degree), normative commitment as well as

organizational citizenship behaviour. The results further indicate a significant relationship between affective commitment and normative commitment. In another South African study by Nyengane (2007), two-tailed correlation analysis showed that although the relationship is not strong, there is a positive relationship between the transformational leadership behaviours and commitment (affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment). This study found that the transformational leadership behaviours were positively related with affective, continuance and normative commitment, although not very strongly. This means that leadership behaviours which involve engendering trust, inspiring a shared vision, generating enthusiasm, encouraging creativity, providing coaching and recognizing accomplishments, do explain some of the variation in how employees feel about wanting to, needing to, or feeling obligated to stay with the organization. The more they display these behaviours, the more employees may want to, need to or feel obligated to stay.

In a study carried out in Zimbabwe, results show a moderate but significant positive direct correlation between transformational leadership style and affective commitment and also between transformational leadership style and motivation. A relatively weak but significant positive direct correlation was found between transformational leadership style and normative commitment (Chipunza *et al.*, 2011). Teshome (2011) in an Ethiopian study reported that transformational leadership behaviors accounted for between 12% and 21 % of teachers' organizational commitment scores. In a Tanzanian study, the regression analysis indicates that transformational leadership and transactional leadership explained 39% and 28% of the variance in teacher value coefficients commitment and commitment to stay (Nguni, 2005). The level of active management by exception contributed to the level of commitment to stay. There were negatively significant regression coefficients for leadership with value commitment and commitment to stay.

Nguni, Slegers and Denessen (2006) carried out a study in which they examined the effects of transformational and transactional leadership behaviors on teachers' job

satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior. In their study, the researchers surveyed 560 primary school teachers in 70 schools in Tanzania. Through path analysis, these researchers found that transformational leadership behaviors had strong to moderate positive effects on each of the three variables. In addition, Nguni and his colleagues examined the effects of individual behavioral constructs of transformational leadership upon organizational commitment, job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior. Their results showed varying degrees of influence. Charismatic leadership had the greatest effect and accounted for the largest proportion of variation on the three variables, whereas, individualized consideration had a very weak and insignificant effect. Intellectual stimulation had a weak influence on job satisfaction, but active management had a moderate positive influence on commitment to stay.

Mert, Keskin and Bas (2010) state that transformational leadership style positively affects organizational commitment of followers. Similar findings were given by Tseng and Kang (2008) when they found that there is positive and significant relationship between transformational leadership style and organizational commitment. Charisma, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration factors of transformational leadership are more significantly related with organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Emery & Barker, 2007).

Transformational leadership is positively correlated with the organizational commitment (Avolio *et al.*, 2004). Chiun *et al.* (2009) states that different angles of transformational leadership have positive relationship with organizational commitment. Lee *et al.* (2000) conducted research to find out effects of leadership style on organizational commitment; their results revealed that transformational style of leaders has direct bearing on commitment level of employees. Findings show that there is a significant relationship between transformational leadership style and affective employees' commitment. It also shows the independent effects of all dimensions of transformational leadership which also prove that there is significant

and positive relationship between transformational leadership and employees' affective commitment.

Walumbwa and Lawler (2003) found that transformational leaders are able to motivate their followers to become more involved in their work and to show higher levels of organizational commitment. A study by Limsila and Ogunlana (2008) examined the correlation of leadership styles and subordinates' organizational commitment with leadership outcomes and work performance of subordinates on construction projects and found that transformational leadership style has a positive association with work performance and organizational commitment of subordinates more than the transactional style. Transformational leaders produce higher leadership outcomes as well (Limsila & Ogunlana, 2008).

Shukui and Xiaomin (2009) found that transformational leadership has a positive relationship with employees' commitment but when organizational culture operates between, transformational leadership does not positively influence the organizational commitment. Ekeland (2005) and Chandna and Krishnan (2009) found that transformational leadership has a positive effect on follower's affective commitment while Ramachandran and Krishnan (2009) found transformational leadership to have a positive effect on followers' affective and normative commitment when culture plays a moderating role between them. Lai, Luen, Chai and Ling (2014) in their Malaysian study found that transformational leadership has a significant positive impact on affective commitment and continuance commitment but not on normative commitment.

### **Transactional leadership and organizational commitment**

Research findings by Bass and Riggio (2006) showed that transactional leadership has a positive relationship with affective commitment, moral commitment and commitment to keep working with the organization. In Iran, Aboodi *et al.* (2013) found there was a significant negative relationship between transactional behavior of supervisors and organizational commitment of their subordinates. In Yemen,

transactional leadership was found to be significantly related to organizational commitment dimensions except normative commitment which it is not significantly related to. The results are quite surprising and it can be figured out that transactional leadership is not a good predictor of normative commitment same as transformational leadership (Saeed *et al.*, 2013).

In a Turkish study by Cemaloglu *et al.* (2012), contingent rewards was predicting continuance commitment and management by exception (passive) was predicting normative commitment. The fact that contingent rewards predicted continuance commitment is understandable in that teachers may work more efficiently if their efforts are appreciated by school principals. Teachers' affective commitment is positively correlated with principals using management by exception (passive). Teachers' continuance and normative commitment are negatively related to management by exception (passive). In a meta-analysis, Jackson *et al.* (2013) found that contingent rewards and management-by-exception (active) were positively related to affective commitment. Overall results of a Pakistanian study by Rehman *et al.* (2012) show that both transformational and transactional leadership have a positive relationship with organizational commitment. Lai *et al.* (2014) in their Malaysian study found that transactional leadership has a significant positive impact on affective commitment only and not on continuance commitment and normative commitment.

In a Nigerian study, Soieb, Zairy, Othman and D'Silva (2013) analyzed the relationship between leadership style and organizational commitment of the lecturers of State Universities. Survey approach was used to collect data from 151 lecturers of State universities in Nigeria who continued study on post graduate program in some colleges in Malaysia. This study found that transactional leadership style has significant influence toward organizational commitment of the lecturers (affective commitment, continuance and normative commitment).

In a South African study by Nyengane (2007), the correlation analysis indicated a weak, but significant, positive relationship between transactional leadership

behaviours and continuance commitment. Transactional leadership behaviours had a positive relationship with continuance commitment and indicate a lesser variance than transformational leadership behaviours. This means that leadership behaviours, which involve ignoring problems or waiting for problems to become chronic before taking action, explain only a little of the variation in how employees feel about needing to stay with the organization. However, no statistically significant correlation was found between transactional leadership behaviours and affective commitment as well as between transactional leadership behaviours and normative commitment. Teshome (2011) in an Ethiopian study reported that there is very weak, but positive and significant relationship between transactional leadership style and normative commitment but there is no statistically significant correlation with affective commitment and continuance commitment. It can also be said that 5% of the variance in normative commitment originates from the transactional leadership behaviors when coefficient of determination is taken into consideration.

### **Laissez-faire leadership and organizational commitment**

According to Jackson *et al.* (2013), less attention has been paid to examining the links between commitment and laissez-faire styles of leadership. In a meta-analysis, Jackson *et al.* (2013) found that laissez faire leadership was negatively related to affective commitment. In a Turkish study by Cemaloglu *et al.* (2012), teachers' affective commitment is positively correlated with principals using laissez-faire leadership styles. Teachers' continuance and normative commitment are negatively related to laissez-faire leadership styles. Laissez-faire was predicting normative commitment. In Central Europe and Lithuania, Clinebell, Skudiene, Trijonyte and Reardon (2013) found passive/avoidant leadership style showed a significant negative correlation with affective commitment dimension only.

In a South African study by Nyengane (2007), the correlation results showed a weak, but significant, negative correlation between laissez-faire leadership behaviours and affective commitment. This means that leadership behaviours, which involve avoiding getting involved when problems arise, will negatively impact on affective

commitment. This explains some of the variation in how employees feel about not wanting to stay with the organization. There was no statistically significant correlation between laissez-faire leadership behaviours and continuance commitment as well as between laissez-faire leadership behaviours and normative commitment. In Iran, laissez-faire style as hypothesized had a negative relationship with followers' organizational commitment (Aboodi *et al.*, 2013).

Teshome (2011) in an Ethiopian study reported that laissez-faire leadership style is significantly and negatively related to affective commitment though it is relatively weak. This existence of significant and negative correlation between laissez-faire leadership style and affective commitment suggests the strengths of negative influence on affective commitment. Therefore, leadership behaviors that involve ignoring problems, displaying indifference and overlooking achievements are negatively related to affective employees' commitment in PHEIs. Buciuniene and Skudiene (2008) in their study found a negative significant association between laissez-faire leadership style and employee affective commitment.

Existing literature and previous studies found that passive/avoidant leadership style either do not correlate or correlate negatively with affective commitment (Limsila & Ogunlana, 2008; Lo *et al.*, 2010). However, laissez-faire leadership does not have any statistically significant correlations with continuance and normative commitments. These almost non-existent correlations suggest that leadership behaviors involving ignoring problems, acting non-involved, displaying indifference and overlooking achievements may not be related to how employees feel about need to stay and having to stay with the PHEIs (Teshome, 2011).

#### **2.4.2 Organizational commitment and employee participation**

Organizational commitment has been associated with employee participation/involvement. Employees' participation in developing and implementing strategies can create ownership to organizational goals and to the practical means which they are invited to participate in developing. It also creates a feeling of

belonging and pride and hence increases their commitment with the organization. Studies in literature show that job involvement and employee commitment have a significant relationship (Brown, 1996). Job involvement and organizational commitment both are linked with identification and recognition of employee with his work and job experience, in this aspect of job both are similar to some extent (Chughtai, 2008). Studies on various forms of employee participation, conducted by Wilkinson, Gollan, Marchington and Lewin (2010) found that participative decision-making, as well as consultative and delegative participation, had a positive impact on employee attitudes and performance.

Research indicates that participation is not usually needed to gain commitment toward objectives but having employee participation in the planning can be an effective means of fostering commitment with the organization (Bhatti, Nawab & Akbar, 2011). Participation can be particularly helpful in developing plans for implementing goals. For these reasons, managers often include subordinates in goal setting and in the subsequent planning of how to achieve the goals. It is observed that employees' commitment to the organization is strong among those whose leaders allow them to participate in decision making. The need for employees to be more involved in decisions that affect their work has been a center of argument in current management issues (Hales, 2000). Scott-Land and Marshall (2004) found employee participation to be correlated with task characteristics, rewards and performance efforts, as well as outcomes such as job satisfaction and affective commitment. Research results indicate that satisfied employees tend to be committed to an organization, and employees who are satisfied and committed are more likely to attend work, stay with an organization, arrive at work on time, perform well and engage in behaviors helpful to the organization (Aamodt, 2007).

A study conducted by Meyer *et al.* (2002) found a very strong positive correlation between affective commitment and employees' job involvement. Similar results were also proven by Torka (2003) when he found that amongst Dutch metal workers that employee involvement leads to more affective and normative commitment to the



department as well as to the organization. Literature on direct participation reveals that direct participation in decision making is related with organizational commitment and organizational commitment is positively related to more favorable outcomes such as effort and coming on time (Randall, 1990; Wallace, 1995).

A study conducted by Kamal and Hanif (2009) reported that most of the Pakistani banks do not see employee participation as a driver of enhancing organizational commitment which is in contrast with findings which state that types of employee participation have a positive and significant impact on organizational commitment. Pay satisfaction and participation in decision making have low correlations with organizational commitment which may mean that these factors might not highly contribute towards employees' commitment towards their organizations (Alam & Ramay, 2012). According to Khan *et al.* (2011), direct participation has a direct, positive and significant impact on all three forms of organizational commitment in Pakistani settings but in American commercial banks direct participation has a direct, positive and significant impact on affective organizational commitment, weak and significant impact on continuous organizational commitment whereas weak and insignificant impact on normative commitment.

Participation of employees in the decision-making process and involving them in organizational plans and goals setting has positive impact on the employees' commitment towards the organization (Kirmizi & Deniz, 2012). Involving employees in these processes, adds to their satisfaction and commitment. Higher employee participation leads to higher employee performance and organizational commitment in general (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Khan *et al.* (2011) in their study proved that job involvement is positively related to affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment. These findings are consistent with the findings of Brown (1996) that organizational commitment is an outcome of job involvement. Other researchers (Tansky, Gallagher & Wetzel, 1997; Cohen, 1999) also confirmed this relationship of job involvement and organizational commitment. Overall study proved the significance of job involvement with

employee commitment. This clearly indicates that those organizations that have job involvement culture, their employees are more committed with organization than those organizations who do not involve their employees (Khan *et al.*, 2011).

Moynihan and Pandey (2007) investigated the relationship between job involvement and organizational commitment using a sample of public sector health and human services managers. The study showed that there is a moderate positive correlation between job involvement and organizational commitment. Uygur and Kilic (2009) studied the level of organizational commitment and job involvement of the personnel at Central Organizational, Ministry of Health in Turkey. A significant positive correlation was found between organizational commitment and job involvement. Ross and Gray (2006) surmise that the results of their study reported central role of empowerment in the relation of transformational leadership, innovativeness and commitment. Transformational leadership can achieve employee's commitment and innovativeness through empowerment. In other words, transformational leadership focuses on empowering employees at work place by delegating power to subordinates and involves them into decision making which in turn leads to increase their level of commitment and innovativeness for organization.

Raymond and Mjoli (2013) in a South African study found the correlation coefficient between job involvement and organizational commitment to be significant and positively correlated. The results indicate that there is a statistically significant relationship between the two independent variables, that is, job satisfaction and job involvement on the one hand and the dependent variable, that is, organizational commitment, on the other. However, the results also indicated that there is no additive effect between job satisfaction and job involvement whereby the two put together account for a higher proportion of variance in organizational commitment than each of them separately (Raymond & Mjoli, 2013). The results obtained from this study showed that there is a significant positive association between job involvement, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Wainaina, Iravo and Waititu (2014) found that employee participation in decision making significantly

influences university academic staffs' organizational commitment in Kenya. The study recommended that university academic staff should be involved in making decisions especially those that affect their working life. Kipkebut (2010) in her study of public and private universities in Kenya found that participation in decision making is an important predictor of organizational commitment.

## **2.5 Critique of the existing literature relevant to the study**

Leadership style has been reported to affect employee participation and organizational commitment. Organizational commitment is said to have impact on organizational performance. Contrasting findings have been reported on the effect of various leadership styles on employee participation and organizational commitment and its dimensions. Existing literature on transformational leadership clearly shows that studies conducted in different areas have reported different findings. Some studies have reported that a significant relationship exists between transformational leadership style and organizational commitment (Ramchandran & Krishnan, 2009; Mert, Keskin & Bas, 2010). Others have reported that this relationship is not significant (Mbwiria, 2010). Varied findings have been reported on the relationship between components of transformational leadership and dimensions of organizational commitment. Lo *et al.* (2010), Saeed *et al.* (2013) and Nyengane (2007) found a positive direct relationship between transformational leadership and three dimensions of commitment (affective, normative and continuance commitment). Aghashahi *et al.* (2013), Wu *et al.* (2006), Ramachandran and Krishnan (2009) and Givens (2011) reported a positive direct relationship of transformational leadership style with affective and normative commitment. Continuance commitment was not found to be significantly related. It is evident that there is no agreement on the effect of transformational leadership on organizational commitment.

Varied findings have also been reported on the effect of transactional leadership on organizational commitment. Soieb *et al.* (2013) and Rehman *et al.* (2012) reported that transactional leadership has a positive relationship with organizational

commitment. Aboodi *et al.* (2013) found a significant negative relationship between transactional behavior of supervisors and organizational commitment of their subordinates. Soieb *et al.* (2013) have reported a significant influence of transactional leadership on affective commitment, continuance and normative commitment. Others have reported a significant effect exists with only continuance commitment (Nyengane, 2007). Teshome (2011) reported a significant correlation exists between transactional leadership and normative commitment. There is therefore no agreement on the effect of transactional leadership on organizational commitment.

There is also no agreement on the effect of laissez-faire leadership on organizational commitment. Nyengane (2007) found a significant negative correlation between laissez-faire leadership behaviours and affective commitment. Limsila and Ogunlana (2008), Buciuniene and Skudiene (2008) and Lo *et al.* (2010) reported that laissez-faire leadership does not have any statistically significant correlations with continuance and normative commitments. Cemaloglu *et al.* (2012) found affective commitment is positively correlated with laissez-faire leadership style while continuance and normative commitment are negatively related to laissez-faire leadership style. Similarly, contrasting findings have been given on the relationship between employee participation and organizational commitment. Kirmizi and Deniz (2012) and Robbins and Judge (2011) surmise that participation has a positive impact on employee commitment towards the organization. Other studies that have reported a positive correlation between job involvement and organizational commitment include studies by Raymond and Mjoli (2013), Uygur and Kilic (2009) and Moynihan and Pandey (2007).

According to Khan *et al.* (2011), direct participation has a direct, positive and significant impact on all three forms of organizational commitment in Pakistani settings but in American commercial banks, direct participation has a direct, positive and significant impact on affective organizational commitment, weak and significant impact on continuance organizational commitment whereas weak and insignificant

impact on normative commitment. Scott-Land and Marshall (2004) found employee participation to be correlated with affective commitment. A study conducted by Meyer *et al.* (2002) found a very strong positive correlation between affective commitment and employees' job involvement. Alam and Ramay (2012) and Kamal and Hanif (2009) on the other hand found that employee participation is not a driver of enhancing organizational commitment. As such it would be important to find out the relationship between these variables as there is no agreement.

## **2.6 Research gaps**

A number of studies have been conducted on leadership style and organizational commitment (Ismail & Yusuf, 2009; Shirbagi, 2007; Mert *et al.*, 2010; Tseng & Keng, 2008). Studies have also been carried out on employee participation and organizational commitment (Hafeez, Rizvi, Hasnain, & Mariam, 2012; Kamal & Hanif 2009; Kenari, 2012; Alam & Ramay, 2011). However, there are a few studies that have investigated the relationship between integrative leadership style, organizational commitment and employee participation in one study.

Riaz *et al.* (2012) in a study on impact of transformational leadership style on affective employees' commitment suggested that studies should be conducted in various cities, different culture and in various parts of the country at different organizational levels. Such studies should consider other dimensions/facets of commitment that is normative and continuance. Kara (2012) recommended that studies be carried on different sectors other than the hotel industry. Rehman *et al.* (2012) suggested that future studies should attempt to cover more educational institutes. Ramachandran and Krishnan (2009) in their study of U.S., India and China found that transformational leadership is related differently to the three forms of commitment in the three countries. The same was found in studies carried in Zimbabwe (Chipunza *et al.*, 2011) and in South Africa (Mester *et al.*, 2003). Khan *et al.* (2011) found participation to be significantly related to all the three forms of commitment in Pakistan but for the American setting, normative commitment was found to be insignificant. Alam and Ramay (2012) proposed the need to study

organizational commitment in relation to its three components. Givens (2011) carried out a study on the impact of transformational leadership on follower commitment with psychological empowerment and value congruence as the mediators. He suggested the need to study this impact further using various moderators.

Existing literature is mainly based on western countries and the East. Comparatively fewer studies have been undertaken in developing countries like Kenya. It would be important to establish how integrative leadership style and employee participation are related to each of the forms of organizational commitment in the Kenyan context. Consequently, the concern of this study was to investigate the effect of integrative leadership style on organizational commitment as moderated by employee participation in technical institutions in Kenya.

## **2.7 Summary**

This chapter has discussed the various leadership theories and models. These theories include the leadership trait theories, behavioral theories, situational/contingency theories, neo-charismatic theories and the full range leadership theory. This is followed by a review of literature on each of the three variables under study namely: integrative leadership style, employee participation and organizational commitment. A section is devoted to empirical studies on the three variables. Literature has shown that leadership style has an effect on organizational commitment. Employee participation has been found to be an important antecedent of organizational commitment. The three variables are seen to be interrelated. However, literature reviewed has shown that there is no agreement on the variables under study. Different findings have been reported for each of the study variables.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the different methods adopted in collecting and interpreting data related to the study by discussing choices related to research design, target population, sample and sampling techniques, sample size, data collection procedure, instrumentation and data analysis.

#### **3.2 Research design**

A research design is a conceptual structure within which research would be conducted aimed at providing the collection of relevant evidence with minimal expenditure of effort, time and money (Kothari, 2004). This study adopted the survey research design. Survey design provides a quantitative or numeric description of trends, attitudes or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population. From sample results, the researcher generalizes or makes claims about the population (Creswell, 2003). It entails the collection of data on more than one case and at a single point in time in order to collect a body of quantitative or quantifiable data in connection with two or more variables which are examined to detect patterns of association (Bryman, 2008; Fowler, 2009).

This design was found to be appropriate by the researcher because the researcher was studying a sample in order to make generalizations about the population. There was therefore the advantage of identifying the attributes of the population from a small group of individuals. Secondly, the design was found suitable because of enabling the researcher make quantitative descriptions of the opinions of the population. The research design enabled the researcher to collect data on the effect of integrative leadership style on organizational commitment as moderated by employee participation in technical institutions in Kenya. This was a cross sectional study as it involved the collection of data at a single point in time.

### **3.2.1 Research philosophy**

The research philosophy of this study was the positivist paradigm. The overall aim of the positivist research process is to construct a set of theoretical statements that are generalizable and service the development of universal knowledge. Positivists claim there is a single, objective reality that can be observed and measured without bias using standardized instruments. This approach therefore tends towards the use of questionnaires for data collection and analytical statistical analysis such as hypotheses testing, random sampling, aggregation, precision and measurement (Serinyel, 2008). In this study, there was independence and objectivity of the observer and the focus was on facts. The researcher saw himself as a neutral recorder. Hypotheses that were formulated were tested in order to show the relationship between variables (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2008).

### **3.3 Population**

The study population was all the 3114 lecturers in the 47 technical institutions in Kenya in 2013. Technical institutions were chosen because of the critical role they are expected to play in the realization of vision 2030.

### **3.4 Sampling frame**

A sampling frame is the set of people that has a chance to be selected (Fowler, 2009). In this study, a sample of 343 respondents was drawn from a population of 3114 teaching staff members (Teachers Service Commission, 2013). 3114 therefore was the sampling frame.

### **3.5 Sample and sampling technique**

A sample was obtained using the following formula:

$$n = \frac{Z^2 \cdot p \cdot q}{e^2}$$



Where:

$$Z= 1.96$$

$$p= 0.5$$

$$q= 0.5(1- 0.5)$$

$$e^2= 0.05^2$$

n = sample size

N = population size

e = error term or other parameters not used (minimum margin error).

$$\text{Hence } n = \frac{1.96^2(0.5)(0.5)}{0.05^2} = 385$$

This is adjusted using the following formula:

$$N_{\text{adj}} = \frac{nN}{n + N} = \frac{385 * 3114}{385 + 3114} = 342.6 = 343$$

The study used a sample of 343 respondents. Multistage sampling design was employed. The researcher first sampled the institutions (clusters) and then sampled from the clusters (Creswell, 2003). A sample of 16 institutions was obtained from a total of 47 (Table 3.1). Stratified sampling and simple random techniques were then employed. Stratified sampling was used to group the lecturers into two so that each gender was included in the sample. Using simple random sampling technique, a sample of twenty two respondents was got from each institution based on gender and the departments. Respondents were drawn from at least four departments in each institution.

**Table 3.1: Technical institutions that participated in the study**

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<b>Serial No.</b>	<b>Name of institution</b>
1	Kabete Technical Training Institute
2	Karen Technical Institute
3	Kiambu Institute of Science and Technology
4	Kiirua Technical Training Institute
5	Maasai Technical Training Institute
6	Meru Technical Training Institute
7	Michuki Technical Training Institute
8	Nairobi Technical Training Institute
9	N’kabune Technical Training Institute
10	Nyandarua Institute of Science and Technology
11	Nyeri Technical Training Institute
12	PC Kinyanjui Technical Training Institute
13	Rift Valley Institute of Science and Technology
14	Rwika Technical Training Institute
15	Thika Technical Training Institute
16	Wote Technical Training Institute

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### **3.6 Research instrument**

A 5-point Likert scale questionnaire was the main instrument of data collection for the study. The questionnaire used had four sections. Section one solicited information on name of institution, demographic data on gender, religion, marital status, age bracket, family size, education, job title, job group and number of years of service in the institution and under current supervisor. The information was intended to collect data describing the sample characteristics in order to include them in the analysis because these characteristics have an effect on perception of the respondents.

Section two sought information on the leadership style. These leadership styles were transformational, transactional and laissez faire styles. Transformational and transactional leadership styles each had its components. The components of transformational leadership were: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration. The components of transactional leadership were: contingent rewards, management-by-exception (active) and management-by-exception (passive). Section three solicited information on organizational commitment. The dimensions of organizational commitment being captured were affective, continuance and normative commitment. Section four sought information on employee participation.

To generate data on leadership style, a modified and improved version of Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) by Bass (1985) was used. Bass's (1985) multifactor leadership questionnaire was selected as it has been improved and revised by Bass (1990, 1994 and 1999) to measure additional dimensions of leadership including laissez-faire behavior. Bass's (1985) initial Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) included the five subscales of charisma, individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, contingent rewards and management-by-exception. Later, Bass and Avolio (1990) introduced the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Form 5R (MLQ Form 5R), which contained six subscales:

charisma, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, contingent rewards, and management-by-exception.

In 1995, Bass and Avolio presented the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Form 5X (MLQ Form 5X). This new version of the MLQ contained nine subscales: idealized influence (attributed) idealized influence (behavior), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, contingent rewards, management-by-exception (active), management-by-exception (passive) and laissez-faire. Bass and Avolio (1995) categorized these subscales into three groups: (a) idealized influence (attributed), idealized influence (behavior), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration are considered transformational leadership (measures of relations-oriented leadership behaviors); (b) contingent rewards, management-by-exception (active) and management-by-exception (passive) are considered transactional leadership (measures of task-oriented leadership behaviors); and (c) laissez-faire is considered non-leadership (measures neither relations-oriented nor task-oriented leadership behaviors). Howell and Hall-Marenda (1999) tested the reliability and validity of the MLQ. The aggregated reliability for the transformational leadership subscales was .93. Reliability for the subscale of contingent rewards was .95, management-by-exception (active) was .86, and management-by-exception (passive) was .90.

An updated instrument by Meyer and Allen (1997) was modified to obtain data on organizational commitment. This questionnaire has been used by researchers as it is considered to be the best measure of all three types of organizational commitment. The usefulness of Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian (1974) Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) as a measure of organizational commitment has been questioned by authors. The questionnaire does not specify delineation among the types of organizational commitment. As such, the Meyer and Allen (1997) OCQ was selected as the measure of organizational commitment for this research. While the earlier versions (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Allen & Meyer, 1990) of the OCQ contained 24 items (8 items for each scale), the later version by Meyer, Allen and

Smith (1993) and Meyer and Allen (1997) only contained 18 items (6 items for each scale). Several studies have used and reported varying values of reliability of OCQ. Allen and Meyer (1990) reported .87 for affective, .75 for continuance, and .79 for normative. Cohen (1999) discovered alphas of .79 for affective, .69 for continuance and .65 for normative. To obtain data on employee participation, a modified questionnaire by Barringer and Bluedorn (1999) was used. A continuous 5-point Likert scale, ranging from “Strongly Agree” to “Strongly Disagree”, was adopted for scale measurement. Other questions asked for factual information such as the employee participation schemes used and suggestions for improving employee participation.

### **3.6.1 Operationalization of variables of study**

The measures used were as summarized in Table 3.1 below.

**Table 3.2: Variables' measures summary**

Variables	Measures	Questionnaire Item
<b>Independent</b>		
<b>Transformational</b>		
Idealized influence	Values and beliefs	26,21,6,11,27,7,1
	Sense of purpose	2,22
	Consequences of decisions	
	Collective sense of mission and team spirit	
	Instilling pride	
	Sacrificing self interest	
	Leadership skills that build respect	
	Display of power and confidence	
	Source: Bass and Avolio (1997)	
Inspirational motivation	Optimism about the future	8,28,13,23
	Enthusiasm about goals and objectives	
	Vision of the future	
	Achievement of goals	
	Source: Bass and Avolio (1997)	

Individual consideration	<p>Teaching and coaching staff</p> <p>Treating of employees</p> <p>Consideration of special needs, abilities and skills</p> <p>Helping staff improve and develop</p> <p>Source: Bass and Avolio (1997)</p>	9,14,29,24
Intellectual stimulation	<p>Re-examines critical assumptions</p> <p>Different perspectives in problem solving</p> <p>Looking at problems from different angles</p> <p>Suggesting new ways to complete assignments</p> <p>Source: Bass and Avolio (1997)</p>	15,10,25,30
<b>Transactional</b>		
Contingent rewards	<p>Provides staff with assistance in exchange of efforts.</p> <p>Discusses one responsible for achieving targets.</p> <p>Makes clear what to receive when goal achieved.</p> <p>Expresses satisfaction when target met.</p> <p>Source: Bass and Avolio (1997)</p>	37,2,32,17
Management by exception(active)	<p>Focuses attention on mistakes/deviations.</p> <p>Concentrates full attention on dealing with failures.</p> <p>Keeping track of staff's mistakes.</p>	18,33,3,38

Directing attention towards failures to meet standards.

Source: Bass and Avolio (1997)

Management by exception (passive)      Failing to interfere until problems become serious.      39,19,34,4

Waiting for things to go wrong before taking action.

Firm believer in “if not broke, don’t fix it”

Taking action after problems become chronic.

Source: Bass and Avolio (1997)

Laissez-faire leadership      Avoids getting involved when important issues arise      5,1,20,35

Absent when needed

Avoiding making decisions

Delaying to respond to urgent questions

**Dependent**

Affective commitment      Spending career with organization      51,57,41,46,4  
7,52,58

Owning organizational problem

Belonging to the family of the organization

Emotional attachment

Meaning of working with organization

Sense of belonging

Pride in talking about job



Source: Allen and Meyer (1997)

Continuance commitment	Difficulty in leaving the organization	42,59,48,43,5
	Leaving as a disruption	4,55,44
	Desire to continue working	
	Availability of job opportunities	
	Availability of alternatives	
	Leaving as a personal sacrifice	
	Working due to advantages	

Source: Allen and Meyer (1997)

Normative commitment	Obligation to continue working	60,50,61,45,5
	Right to leave organization	6,53,49
	Feeling of guilt	
	Feeling organization deserves commitment	

Source: Allen and Meyer (1997)

**Moderator**

Employee participation	Management tells what to be done	62-76
	Management's elimination of situations of disagreement	
	Differences in opinion	
	Introduction of changes	
	Employees resistance to change	
	Change of opinion on a work situation	

Management listening during change

Ability to influence decisions

Satisfaction with employee representation on  
management board and decision making

Role in organizational policies

Involvement in solving problems

Employee participation objectives

Culture of staff involvement

Source: Barringer and Bluedorn (1999)

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### **3.7 Data collection procedure**

Permission was obtained from the University and the National Council for Science, Technology and Innovation before proceeding to the field. The researcher then sought permission from the administration of each of the 16 technical institutions. Upon being granted permission, the researcher with the help of research assistants physically administered questionnaires to the Heads of Departments (HODs) and lecturers. The questionnaires were left behind and collected at an agreed time mainly through the HODs. In a few cases, the questionnaires were administered and collected on the same day.

### **3.8 Pilot study**

A pilot study was conducted at Mathenge Technical Institute. This was done to establish the content validity of the instrument and to improve questions, format and the scales (Creswell, 2003). Thirty five questionnaires were administered as this constituted 10% of the sample. Thirty questionnaires were returned duly completed giving a response rate of 85.71%.

The pilot testing yielded the results shown in Table 3.2.

**Table 3.3: Pilot study results**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Cronbach's Alpha coefficient</b>
Leadership style	0.842
Organizational commitment	0.820
Employee participation	0.848

Since the computed alpha coefficient was greater than 0.80, then, this was considered as an acceptable level of internal reliability (Bryman, 2008). The pilot study greatly helped in identifying that some open-ended questions were ambiguous. The questionnaire was thus modified accordingly before proceeding to the field.

### **3.8.1 Validity and reliability**

Validity refers to the extent to which differences found with a measuring instrument reflect true differences among those tested (Kothari, 2004). In order to ensure high level of content validity, comments by supervisors who are themselves experts were incorporated and changes made accordingly into the final questionnaire version. Correlation analysis was used to measure criterion related validity.

Reliability is a measure of the degree to which a research instrument yields consistent results or data after repeated trials (Mugenda & Mugenda, 1999). Cronbach's alpha was used to test for internal reliability of each variable used in the study. Cronbach's alpha values range from 0 to 1. Where the computed alpha coefficient was greater than 0.80, then, this was considered as an acceptable level of internal reliability (Bryman, 2008).

After data was collected, it was coded and then entered. Frequencies were run to see if there were wrong entries. Editing was then done before data was put into SPSS. There were a few missing values on demographic information. These values were found to be insignificant and therefore could not affect the reliability of the study.

### 3.9 Data analysis and presentation

Data analysis was undertaken using the statistical package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 16.0. Descriptive statistics was used to examine the responses. This was done through descriptive analysis where mean, frequencies, percentages and standard deviation were used. These helped in getting the spread and variation of the scores. Correlation analysis was done to get the relationship between the variables. Multiple regression was then applied in order to analyze the effect of integrative leadership style on organizational commitment as moderated by employee participation. The following model was applied:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1X_1 + \beta_2X_2 + \beta_3X_3 + \beta_4Z + \beta_{1z}X_1Z + \beta_{2z}X_2Z + \beta_{3z}X_3Z + \varepsilon$$

Where:

Y= Organizational commitment

X<sub>1</sub>= Transformational leadership

X<sub>2</sub>= Transactional leadership

X<sub>3</sub>= Laissez-faire leadership

Z= Employee participation

$\beta_0$  is a constant which denotes organizational commitment that is independent of leadership style and employee participation

$\beta_1 - \beta_3$  -Intercepts for the independent variables

$\beta_z$  is the intercept for the moderator

$\varepsilon$  = Error term

To establish whether the variables were jointly significant, the model was first subjected to F-test. F values were used to determine their significance in the model. The hypothesis was accepted or rejected based on the p-value obtained with the decision rule being to accept the hypothesis where p-value is  $<0.05$ . The effect of  $X_i$  was measured using the coefficient  $\beta_i$  under the hypothesis  $H_0: \beta_i = 0$  vs  $H_1: \beta_i \neq 0$ . Where the hypothesis was accepted,  $X_i$  was taken to have significant influence on  $Y$ . The direction of the influence was determined by the sign. The magnitude of standardized beta coefficient gave the strength of the influence.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION**

#### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the key findings of the study that sought to establish the effect of integrative leadership style on organizational commitment in technical institutions in Kenya. The findings with regard to the response rate and study sample characteristics are presented first. The descriptives of the variables follow. This is followed by statistical analysis findings. Data analysis was undertaken using the statistical package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 16.0. In this study, statistical analysis tests used were: reliability tests, correlation and regression.

Reliability tests were used to measure the reliability of variables namely transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, employee participation and organizational commitment. Correlation analysis was employed to examine the correlation of variables. Regression analysis was performed to examine the associative relationships between the dependent variable and the other variables.

#### **4.2 Response rate**

Questionnaires were distributed to 343 respondents. 278 respondents completed the questionnaires giving a response rate of 81.05%. However, two questionnaires could not be used as the respondents gave the same response for all the items.

#### **4.3 Sample characteristics**

The researcher collected demographic information on respondents' gender, religion, marital status, age bracket, family size, education level, job title, job group, length of service and years worked under current supervisor. The sample characteristics of 276

respondents from 16 technical institutions were analyzed. The findings are presented in Table 4.1 to Table 4.9.

**Table 4.1: Distribution of respondents by gender and religion**

<b>Sample characteristic</b>	<b>Category</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Gender</b>	Male	177	63.7
	Female	99	35.6
	Missing	2	0.7
<b>Religion</b>	Catholic	74	26.8
	Protestant(Mainstream)	121	43.8
	Protestant(Pentecostal)	70	25.4
	Muslim	2	0.7
	Missing	9	3.3

Findings indicate that majority of the respondents were male (63.7%). Female respondents were 35.6%. This shows that females were at least one third of the respondents. This may be attributed to the fact that in the technical institutions there were departments that had no females or were very few. This was common in the Engineering departments. Some respondents (0.7%) did not want to disclose their

gender or it was an oversight. This was considered insignificant to affect the reliability of the study.

The independent sample t-test was performed to test if there is any significant difference of the respondents' perception of leadership style and organizational commitment due to their gender. Results are shown in Table 4.2.

**Table 4.2: The independent samples t-test-gender**

<b>Dimension</b>	<b>t-value</b>	<b>p-value(Sig.)</b>
Transformational leadership	0.672	0.607
Transactional leadership	-0.838	0.945
Laissez-faire leadership	-0.825	0.065
Organizational commitment	0.019	0.896
Affective commitment	0.156	0.509
Continuance commitment	-0.337	0.559
Normative commitment	0.293	0.255

Reviewing Table 4.2 shows the p-value is greater than the significance level ( $\alpha=0.05$ ), for all dimensions. Therefore there is insignificant difference between the respondents' leadership style and organizational commitment due to gender.

Majority of the respondents were Protestants (mainstream) as they made up 43.8%. Only 0.7% of the respondents were Muslims. This could be a reflection of the Kenyan population which is said to be about 80% Christian. ANOVA test was performed to test if there is any significant difference of the respondents' perception



of leadership style and organizational commitment due to their religion. The findings were as tabulated in Table 4.3.

**Table 4. 3: ANOVA-Religion**

<b>Dimension</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Transformational leadership	0.744	0.526
Transactional leadership	0.123	0.946
Laissez-faire leadership	0.210	0.889
Organizational commitment	2.035	0.109
Affective commitment	1.111	0.345
Continuance	1.422	0.237
Normative commitment	2.418	0.067

Reviewing Table 4.3 shows the p-value is greater than the significance level ( $\alpha=0.05$ ) for all dimensions. Therefore, there is insignificant difference between the respondents' leadership style and organizational commitment due to religion.

The distribution of the respondents by marital status and age was as shown in Table 4.4.

**Table 4.4: Distribution of respondents by marital status and age**

<b>Sample characteristic</b>	<b>Category</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Marital status</b>	Married	224	81.2
	Single	46	16.7
	Widowed	1	0.4
	Divorced	2	0.7
	Missing	3	1.1
<b>Age</b>	20-24	1	0.4
	25-29	28	10.1
	30-34	24	8.7
	35-39	49	17.8
	40-44	58	21.0
	45-49	73	26.4
	Above 50	42	15.2
	Missing	1	0.4

Findings indicate that majority of the respondents were married (81.2%) with 1.1% not disclosing their marital status. The other categories of “single”, “widowed” and “divorced” made up 17.8% of the respondents. It can therefore be said that majority

of the respondents were able to establish and raise families. ANOVA test performed showed there was no significant difference of the respondents' perception of leadership style and organizational commitment due to their marital status.

Majority of the respondents (62.6%) were aged 40 and above as shown in Table 4.4. Respondents who were more than 50 years old made up 15.2% of the sample meaning technical institutions have many experienced staff. Staff below 30 years were only 10.5% meaning there was a small number of youthful lecturers. Only 0.4% of the respondents were in the 20-24 age category. ANOVA test performed showed there was no significant difference of the respondents' perception of leadership style and organizational commitment due to their age.

The distribution of respondents by family size, level of education and job title is shown in Table 4.5.

**Table 4.5: Distribution of respondents by family size, level of education and job title**

<b>Sample characteristic</b>	<b>Category</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Family size</b>	Below 5	64	23.2
	5-10	178	64.5
	11-15	16	5.8
	16-20	2	0.7
	Missing	16	5.8
<b>Highest level of education</b>	CPA	1	0.4
	Diploma	64	23.2
	Higher National Diploma	34	12.3
	Bachelors	103	37.3
	Masters	61	22.1
	Missing	14	5.1
	<b>Job title</b>	HOD	66
	Lecturer	205	74.2
	Missing	5	1.8

The findings indicated that 5.8% of the respondents did not want to disclose their family size with 6.5% indicating their families had more than 10 members. Majority of the members (64.5%) had 5-10 siblings. Those from families having 4-8 siblings made up 74.6% meaning most respondents were from moderate families. ANOVA

test performed showed there was no significant difference of the respondents' perception of leadership style and organizational commitment due to their family size.

Findings on highest level of education completed showed that 59.4 % of the respondents had either a Bachelor's or Master's degree. Lecturers having a Master's degree constitute 22.1% meaning the staff developed themselves much as a Master's degree is not a requirement for one to teach in technical institutions. ANOVA test was performed to test if there is any significant difference of the respondents' perception of leadership style and organizational commitment due to their level of education for the categories: Diploma, Higher National Diploma (HND), Bachelors and Masters. Results are shown in Table 4.6.

**Table4. 6: ANOVA-Level of education**

<b>Dimension</b>	<b>F-value</b>	<b>P-value</b>
Transformational leadership	1.232	0.299
Transactional leadership	2.330	0.075
Laissez-faire leadership	1.165	0.324
Organizational commitment	4.112	0.007*
Affective commitment	3.198	0.024*
Continuance commitment	2.995	0.031*
Normative commitment	4.690	0.003*

\*The mean difference is significant at 0.05 level

Reviewing Table 4.6 reveals that respondent's views for organizational commitment, affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment were

statistically significant. The other dimensions had the p-value greater than the significance level ( $\alpha=0.05$ ) therefore there is insignificant difference between respondents due to their level of education.

As the ANOVA-test showed that some variables are statistically significant, multiple comparisons was performed to check where these differences were. The results are presented in Table 4.7.

**Table 4.7: Scheffe's test- level of education**

<b>Dependent variable</b>	<b>(I)Level of education</b>	<b>(J)Level of education</b>	<b>Mean difference (I-J)</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Organizational commitment	Diploma	HND	-0.02471	0.998
		Bachelors	0.06201	0.993
	HND	Masters	0.32199*	0.028
		Bachelors	0.08672	0.908
	Bachelors	Masters	0.34670	0.060
		Masters	0.25999	0.063
Affective commitment	Diploma	HND	0.09894	0.950
		Bachelors	-0.06167	0.971
	HND	Masters	0.32156	0.162
		Bachelors	-0.16060	0.787
	Bachelors	Masters	0.22262	0.629
		Masters	0.38322*	0.031
Continuance commitment	Diploma	HND	-0.18951	0.540
		Bachelors	0.07550	0.894
	HND	Masters	0.18624	0.402
		Bachelors	0.26501	0.184
	Bachelors	Masters	0.37575*	0.041
		Masters	0.11074	0.735
Normative commitment	Diploma	HND	0.08729	0.956
		Bachelors	0.16934	0.545
	HND	Masters	0.46871*	0.005
		Bachelors	0.08206	0.955
	Bachelors	Masters	0.38142	0.114
		Masters	0.29937	0.093

\*The mean difference is significant at 0.05 level

Examining Table 4.7 reveals that there is a negative relationship between level of education and organizational commitment with its three constructs: affective, continuance and normative commitment where higher qualifications had less commitment. The reason for this could be that staff with lower qualifications would find it difficult to get another job outside the technical institutions while the staff with higher qualifications would find it easier to find another job outside the technical institutions. These findings correspond with findings of earlier studies (Abu, 2007; Al-Ahmadi, 2004) where they found a similar negative relationship between level of education and organizational commitment.

The respondents were broadly categorized into two: Heads of Departments (24%) and lecturers (74.2%). ANOVA test performed showed there was no significant difference of the respondents' perception of leadership style and organizational commitment due to their job title.

The distribution of respondents by job group is shown in Table 4.8.



**Table 4.8: Distribution of respondents by job group**

<b>Sample characteristic</b>	<b>Category</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Job Group</b>	Contract	33	12
	F	1	0.4
	G	3	1.1
	H	2	0.7
	J	11	4.0
	K	27	9.8
	L	83	30.1
	M	93	33.7
	N	19	6.9
	P	1	0.4
	Q	2	0.7
	R	1	0.4

The bulk of the respondents were in Job Group L (30.1%) and M (33.7%). This shows there is some stagnation in the two Job groups. Stagnation is likely to affect organizational commitment. All the other categories except those on contract (12%) had less than 10%. Respondents who were above job Group N were only 1.5%.

ANOVA test performed showed there was no significant difference of the respondents' perception of leadership style and organizational commitment due to their job group.

The number of years worked in the institution and under the current supervisor are shown in Table 4.9.

**Table 4.9: Distribution of respondents by years worked in institution and under current supervisor**

<b>Sample characteristic</b>	<b>Category</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Years worked in the institution</b>	Below 5	119	43.1
	5-10	92	33.3
	11-15	28	10.1
	16-20	25	9.1
	21-25	6	2.2
	26-30	1	0.4
<b>Years worked under current supervisor</b>	Below 5	173	62.7
	5-10	79	28.6
	11-15	7	2.5
	Missing	17	6.2

Findings indicate 2.6% of the respondents had been in the same institution for over 20 years although a majority of them (43.1%) had been in the current institution for less than five years. It is evident that some lecturers had been in the same institution for a long time. ANOVA test performed showed there was no significant difference of the respondents' perception of leadership style and organizational commitment due to their length of stay in the institution.

The findings show that 62.7 % of the respondents had worked under the current supervisor for less than five years. Table 4.9 also shows that 2.5% of the respondents had worked under the same supervisor for more than 10 years. This could mean that change of leadership is not frequent. ANOVA test performed showed there was no significant difference of the respondents' perception of leadership style and organizational commitment due to years worked under current supervisor.

### **4.3 Statistical analysis of the study variables**

This section has the responses to each of the items of the variables and the reliability of the items. In this study, any score above 3.0 was considered positive while any score below 3.0 was considered negative.

#### **4.3.1 Descriptive statistics on items on transformational leadership**

Transformational leadership is a leadership style where the leader inspires followers to accomplish more by concentrating on the follower's values and helping the follower align these values with the values of the organization. The leader encourages followers to go beyond self-interest for the good of the team or the organization. Transformational leadership is conceptualized into four components: idealized influence; inspirational motivation; intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration. The responses to transformational leadership items are as shown in Table 4.10.

**Table 4.10: Responses on transformational leadership items**

	SD	D	N	A	SA		
Item	%	%	%	%	%	Mean	Std.dev.
Talks about their most important values and beliefs	4.8	15.0	24.2	45.1	11.0	3.4249	1.02669
Frequently specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose	3.3	5.6	20.7	48.5	21.9	3.8000	.95474
Always considers the moral and ethical consequences of his or her decisions	7.0	14.0	19.1	39.3	20.6	3.5257	1.16818
Emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission and supports team spirit	5.6	9.7	12.3	45.7	26.8	3.7844	1.11217
Always instills pride in staff of being associated with him or her	9.4	16.7	26.1	33.7	14.1	3.2645	1.17503
Regularly sacrifices his or her self-interest for the good of the group	12.5	12.9	18.8	34.2	21.7	3.3971	1.29876
Has strong leadership skills that built my respect	4.5	13.3	14.4	42.0	25.8	3.7121	1.12375
Always displays a sense of power and confidence	1.5	7.5	17.3	48.1	25.6	3.8872	.92475
Talks very optimistically about the future	3.5	9.7	15.5	43.4	27.9	3.8256	1.05335

Talks quite enthusiastically when setting goals and objectives to be accomplished	2.6	4.4	23.4	49.3	20.4	3.8066	.89922
Commonly articulates a compelling vision of the future	3.3	10.6	20.1	46.5	19.4	3.6813	1.00965
Shows great confidence that goals will be achieved	2.6	6.2	12.8	51.8	26.6	3.9380	.93359
Regularly spends time teaching and coaching staff	15.6	21.6	25.7	29.4	7.8	2.9219	1.20224
Ever treats me as an individual rather than just a member of a group	7.3	13.2	20.5	43.2	15.8	3.4689	1.12783
Always considers staff's individual special needs, abilities and aspirations	6.2	13.6	19.4	46.2	14.7	3.4945	1.09182
Commonly helps staff to improve and develop their abilities and skills	5.1	16.7	16.7	41.3	20.3	3.5507	1.13824
Re-examines critical assumptions to questions whether they are appropriate	4.1	10.5	28.2	43.6	13.5	3.5188	.99129
Seeks different perspectives when solving problems	6.6	14.6	15.7	42.0	21.2	3.5657	1.16625
Always gets staff to look at problems from different angles	3.6	15.6	20.7	47.3	12.7	3.4982	1.01943

Frequently suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments	5.1	14.2	20.4	44.0	16.4	3.5236	1.08169
Is the best symbol and sign of success and accomplishment in the organization	10.7	14.1	24.8	37.0	13.3	3.2815	1.18323
The leadership style of my supervisor has affected my institutional commitment	8.8	13.6	20.9	39.6	17.2	3.4286	1.18019
Is ready to recommend others for further training	5.5	11.0	23.2	37.5	22.8	3.6103	1.11794
Has strong religious convictions	4.7	7.8	36.3	34.0	17.2	3.5117	1.01743

n=276      Cronbach's Alpha=0.949

SD=Strongly disagree D=Disagree N=Neutral A=Agree SA=Strongly Agree

Majority of the respondents agreed with each of the transformational leadership items. In most of the items, over 50% of the respondents scored for agree and strongly agree. The item "Regularly spends time teaching and coaching staff" had the lowest mean of 2.9219. All the other 23 items had means above 3.0 meaning they were positive and agreed with the items. Generally most of the respondents were in the agreeing position. The item "Shows great confidence that goals will be achieved" had a mean of 3.9380 which had highest mean. This shows the respondents agreed with the item. The percentages are also indicating the same in that 51.8% scored for agree and 26.6% scoring for strongly agree. Similarly in the item "Always displays a sense of power and confidence", 48.1% of the respondents scored for agree while 25.6% scored for strongly agree.

Only five items had standard deviation that was below 1.0. The item “Talks quite enthusiastically when setting goals and objectives to be accomplished” had a standard deviation of 0.89922 which is low. This shows there were no extremes. The percentages indicate that only 2.6 % and 4.4% of the respondents scored for strongly disagree and disagree respectively.

Nineteen items had standard deviation that was above 1.0. This shows that for most of the items there were extremes; the respondents did not agree. The item “Regularly spends time teaching and coaching staff” had a standard deviation of 1.20224 which shows extremes. The percentages indicate that 15.6% and 21.6% of the respondents scored for strongly disagree and disagree respectively while 7.8% and 29.4% scored for strongly agree and agree respectively. This shows extremes. The findings are not reflecting where the respondents are as they viewed the items from different angles. Most of the items hence are not a good measure.

The reliability of the transformational leadership variable is 0.949. Reliability is a measure of the degree to which a research instrument yields consistent results or data after repeated trials (Mugenda & Mugenda, 1999). Cronbach’s alpha was used to test for internal consistency of each variable used in the study. Cronbach’s alpha values range from 0 to 1. Where the computed alpha coefficient is greater than 0.80, then, this is considered as an acceptable level of internal reliability (Bryman, 2008). Since the computed alpha coefficient is greater than 0.80, it is acceptable.

#### **4.3.2 Descriptive statistics on items on transactional leadership**

Transactional leadership is leadership based on the traditional, bureaucratic authority and legitimacy where followers receive certain valued outcomes when they act according to the leader’s wishes. Transactional leadership results in followers meeting expectations, upon which their end of the bargain is fulfilled and they are rewarded accordingly. Transactional leadership is based on three primary components; contingent rewards, active management by exception and passive management by exception.

The responses to the transactional leadership variable items are shown in Table 4.11. Two items were reversed in the analysis. These were “Fails to interfere until problems become serious” and “waits for things to go wrong before taking action”. Two other items that were not consistent in measuring the coefficient were kicked out. These were “Shows that s/he is a firm believer in ‘if not broke’, don’t fix it” and “Demonstrates that problems become chronic before taking action”.

**Table 4.11: Responses to transactional leadership items**

Item	SD %	D %	N %	A %	SA %	Mean	Std.dev.
Provides staff with assistance in exchange of their efforts	10.9	15.3	24.5	39.8	9.5	3.2153	1.15199
Discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets	6.7	7.1	12.4	52.4	21.3	3.7453	1.08073
Makes clear what staff can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved	5.4	13.8	18.5	44.6	17.8	3.5543	1.09907
Expresses satisfaction when staff meets expectations	3.6	11.3	7.7	43.4	33.9	3.9270	1.09367
Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes,	7.2	13.8	17.0	46.4	15.6	3.4928	1.12974



expectations and deviations from standards							
Concentrates his/her full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints and failures	12.9	15.1	24.6	37.5	9.9	3.1654	1.18968
Keeps track of staff's mistakes	5.6	15.8	20.3	44.7	13.5	3.4474	1.08465
Directs staff's attention towards failures to meet standards	8.5	18.8	30.1	35.3	7.4	3.1434	1.07540
Interferes before problems become serious	6.6	14.2	23.4	29.2	26.6	3.5511	1.21013
Takes action before things go wrong	2.9	13.0	14.1	33.0	37.0	3.8804	1.13306

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n=276      Cronbach's Alpha=0.753

SD=Strongly disagree D=Disagree N=Neutral A=Agree SA=Strongly Agree

Majority of the respondents agreed with most of the transactional leadership items. In the item "Expresses satisfaction when staff meets expectations", 43.4 % and 33.9 % of the respondents agreed and strongly agreed respectively. In the item "Discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets", 52.4% and 21.3% of the respondents agreed and strongly agreed respectively. The highest mean was 3.9270 with the lowest being 3.1434. This shows the respondents took a

positive position (above 3.0). Out of the 10 items, five of them had a mean of above 3.5. The general position was that the respondents agreed with the items.

The highest standard deviation for the items was 1.21013 with no single item having a standard deviation of less than 1.0 which shows there were extremes in the scoring. In the item “Interferes before problems become serious”, 6.6% and 14.2% of the respondents scored for strongly disagree and disagree while 26.6% and 29.2% scored for strongly agree and agree respectively. This shows the respondents were spread to the positive and to the negative hence the high standard deviation witnessed. The internal reliability of transactional leadership was found to be 0.753. Although it is less than 0.80, it is still high and therefore acceptable.

#### **4.3.3 Descriptive statistics on items on laissez-faire leadership**

Laissez-faire leadership is a kind of leadership where the leader is inactive, rather than reactive or proactive. In a sense, this extremely passive type of leadership indicates the absence of leadership and is marked by a general failure to take responsibility for managing. The responses to the laissez-faire leadership items are tabulated in Table 4.12.

**Table 4.12: Responses to laissez-faire leadership items**

	<b>SD</b>	<b>D</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>A</b>	<b>SA</b>		
<b>Item</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std.dev.</b>
Avoids getting involved when important issues arise	39.7	32.4	12.1	9.6	6.2	2.1029	1.2074
Is absent when needed	37.0	35.2	12.1	10.3	5.5	2.1209	1.1773
Avoids making decisions	29.8	34.2	15.4	15.1	5.5	2.3235	1.2050
Delays responding to urgent questions	24.2	29.3	17.6	22.7	6.2	2.5751	1.2495

n=276      Cronbach's Alpha=0.585

SD=Strongly disagree D=Disagree N=Neutral A=Agree SA=Strongly Agree

Majority of the respondents strongly disagreed with the items. The item "Avoids getting involved when important issues arise" had 39.7% and 32.4% of the respondents score for strongly disagree and disagree respectively. The means for all the items were below 3.0. The highest mean of the items was 2.5751 whereas the lowest was 2.1029 meaning the respondents disagreed with the items. The standard deviation of the items was high meaning the respondents were not in agreement; there were extremes. Respondents scored both in the positive and in the negative. Three out of the four items had standard deviation that was above 1.2 which is high. This shows the items were not a good measure as the respondents could not agree. The reliability of laissez-faire leadership variable was found to be 0.585. Although the reliability is not high, it meets the threshold.

#### 4.3.4 Descriptive statistics on items on employee participation

Employee participation involves providing employees with an opportunity to participate in management decisions. It is a process for empowering members of an organization to make decisions and to solve problems appropriate to their levels in the organization. The responses to employee participation items are shown in Table 4.13.

**Table 4.13: Responses to employee participation items**

<b>Item</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>D</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>A</b>	<b>SA</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std.dev.</b>
	<b>%</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>%</b>		
The management always tells me what needs to be done and how it should be accomplished	6.9	30.3	17.2	36.0	9.6	3.1111	1.14653
The management finds it very difficult to understand why employees resist every change	7.6	30.5	29.8	24.4	7.6	2.9389	1.07750
I am fully satisfied with the level of employee participation in this institution's decision-making process	12.6	36.3	25.6	23.3	2.3	2.6641	1.04027
My institution has specific objectives in relation to employee participation	8.4	24.0	25.5	37.3	4.9	3.0646	1.06989
Difference in opinions on how work should be done makes management very angry	8.4	23.3	32.4	26.3	9.5	3.0534	1.10251
The management listens carefully to each person in my department when any significant change is being made	10.6	29.7	23.6	30.4	5.7	2.9087	1.11856
I play a significant role in the policies of this organization	10.7	25.6	26.3	29.8	7.6	2.9809	1.13614

My institution has a culture of involving staff in decisions on issues that affect them	12.5	27.0	22.4	32.3	5.7	2.9163	1.14944
When I am in a supervisory role, I know I must not change my opinion on a significant work situation	6.9	25.5	30.9	29.7	6.9	3.0425	1.05385
I am fully satisfied with the level of employee representation on the board of management	11.5	27.5	29.4	27.1	4.6	2.8588	1.08238
The management communicates all the information that concerns me regularly	9.9	22.9	21.4	38.5	7.3	3.1031	1.13836
The management in my institution regularly tries to eliminate situations that can lead to disagreement	8.7	17.1	25.9	41.1	7.2	3.2091	1.08687
When changes in rules and procedures must be made, the ideas are gradually introduced so that employees do not get upset	8.8	25.6	27.5	33.2	5.0	3.0000	1.06853
I am well able to influence decisions that affect my work	8.4	25.7	23.8	33.3	8.8	3.0843	1.13026
I am fully involved in solving problems that fall within my docket	6.5	17.9	22.8	40.7	12.2	3.3422	1.10378

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n=276      Cronbach's Alpha=0.883

SD=Strongly disagree D=Disagree N=Neutral A=Agree SA=Strongly Agree

Majority of the respondents either agreed with most of the items or were neutral. In 10 items, the majority scored for agree and three for neutral. In the items "The management finds it very difficult to understand why employees resist every change" and "I am fully satisfied with the level of employee participation in this institution's decision-making process" the majority scored for disagree. Generally most of the

respondents took the neutral position. The means of the items also show this. The means for all the items were between 3.4 and 2.6. Only two items out of 15 had means which were higher than 3.2 while only two had below 2.9. This shows 11 items out of 15 had means that were between 2.9 and 3.2 which is an indicator of neutrality. The standard deviation of the items was between 1.04 and 1.15. This high standard deviation shows that there was no agreement in the scoring as there were extremes in the positive and negative positions. For example in the item “My institution has a culture of involving staff in decisions on issues that affect them”, 12.5% and 27.0% of the respondents scored for strongly disagree and disagree respectively while 32.3% and 5.7 % scored for agree and strongly agree respectively. A Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of 0.883 is higher than 0.880 hence acceptable.

#### **4.3.5 Descriptive statistics on items on organizational commitment**

Organizational commitment refers to the strength of an individual’s feelings of attachment to, identification with and obligation to the organization and is viewed as a psychological connection that individuals have with their organization, characterized by strong identification with the organization and a desire to contribute to the accomplishment of organizational goals. Three essential components of organizational commitment are: affective, continuance and normative commitment. The responses are as shown in Table 4.14.

**Table 4.14: Responses to organizational commitment items**

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	<b>SD</b>	<b>D</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>A</b>	<b>SA</b>		
<b>Item</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std.dev.</b>
I feel as if I belong to the 'family' in this institution	8.7	12.4	19.3	42.2	17.5	3.4727	1.17229
Even if I wanted, it would be very difficult for me to leave this institution	17.2	33.2	26.3	18.6	4.7	2.6058	1.11505
I feel that if I left there would be too few job opportunities available to me	28.8	42.0	16.4	9.1	3.6	2.1679	1.05920
I continue to work with this institution for the many advantages I find compared with other employers	8.7	29.1	27.3	29.1	5.8	2.9418	1.07911
I believe I will still be working for this institution in the next one year	4.0	9.1	25.9	42.7	18.2	3.6204	1.01369
I always feel emotionally attached to this institution	7.6	14.1	27.5	40.6	10.1	3.3152	1.07801
It means a great deal to me, personally, to work with this institution	3.3	12.7	26.9	38.5	18.5	3.5636	1.03521
It is as much necessity as desire that keeps me working here	4.4	14.3	29.0	43.8	8.5	3.3750	.97902

I don't feel it would be right for me to leave my work place now, even if it were to my advantage to do so	14.9	30.1	23.6	25.4	6.2	2.7790	1.16231
If I left my job now, I will feel quite guilty	23.3	32.7	18.8	19.2	6.0	2.5188	1.21065
I will be very happy if I spend the rest of my career with this institution	22.5	30.5	24.7	16.0	6.2	2.5273	1.18159
My work with this institution always gives me a strong sense of belonging	5.5	21.1	20.4	41.1	12.0	3.3309	1.10223
I believe I will still be working for this institution in the next five years	28.2	25.3	32.2	9.2	5.1	2.3773	1.13782
The lack of available alternatives would be one of the few negative consequences of leaving this institution	20.9	24.2	29.3	18.7	7.0	2.6667	1.19845
The fact that leaving this institution would require considerable personal sacrifice is one of the reasons to continue to work here	22.5	28.0	31.0	15.9	2.6	2.4797	1.08464
I believe I will still be working for this institution in the next ten years	17.7	23.2	33.9	19.6	5.5	2.7196	1.13315
I feel that if this institution has a problem it is my problem as well	5.4	10.9	22.8	45.3	15.6	3.5471	1.05208



I always feel proud when talking to others about my job	3.7	9.2	17.2	48.7	21.2	3.7473	1.01017
If I decided to leave this institution right now, it would be too disruptive to my life	15.3	27.3	28.7	18.5	10.2	2.8109	1.20244
I always feel obliged to remain working here	11.7	27.1	29.3	23.4	8.4	2.8974	1.14264
I feel this institution deserves all my commitment	4.0	8.3	16.3	48.2	23.2	3.7826	1.02151

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n=276      Cronbach's alpha=0.880

SD= Strongly disagree   D= Disagree   N=Neutral   A=Agree   SA=Strongly Agree

In nine out of 21 items, majority of the respondents scored for agree while for six items, majority scored for neutral and disagree each. In the items "I feel this institution deserves all my commitment" and "I always feel proud when talking to others about my job", 48.2% and 48.7 % the respondents respectively scored for agree. In the item "I feel that if I left there would be too few job opportunities available to me", 42.0% scored for disagree while 33.9% of the respondents scored for neutral in the item "I believe I will still be working for this institution in the next ten years." It can therefore be generally said that the respondents took the neutral position.

The means of the 21 items were between 2.1 and 3.8. Twelve items had means below 3.0 while nine had means above 3.0 showing a neutral position. The high standard deviation for most items shows there were extremes in the positive and

negative positions. In the item “ If I decided to leave this institution right now, it would be too disruptive to my life”, 15.3 % and 27.3% percent of the respondents scored for strongly disagree and disagree respectively while 18.5 % and 10.2% scored for agree and strongly agree respectively. This shows the respondents were not in agreement as they scored in the positive and negative. As such, this is not a good measure. The reliability coefficient of organizational commitment variable is 0.880 which is acceptable as it is high (more than 0.80).

#### **4.3.6 Descriptives of the study variables**

After each set met the threshold, the items that were retained were aggregated by getting the mean to get specific variables for the study. The 24 items under transformational leadership ( $X_1$ ) were aggregated by getting the average to give  $X_1$  score for each respondent. The 10 items under transactional leadership ( $X_2$ ) were aggregated by getting the average to give  $X_2$  score for each respondent. The four items under laissez-faire leadership ( $X_3$ ) were aggregated by getting the average to give  $X_3$  score for each respondent. The 15 items under employee participation ( $Z$ ) were aggregated by getting the average to give  $Z$  score for each respondent. The 21 items under organizational commitment ( $Y$ ) were aggregated by getting the average to give  $Y$  score for each respondent. The descriptives for the variables  $X_1$ ,  $X_2$ ,  $X_3$ ,  $Z$  and  $Y$  are shown in Table 4.15.

**Table 4.15: Descriptives of the study variables**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>No. of items</b>	<b>Cronbach's Alpha</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std.dev.</b>
Transformational leadership (X <sub>1</sub> )	24	0.949	3.5571	0.7265
Transactional leadership (X <sub>2</sub> )	10	0.753	3.224	0.4632
Laissez-faire leadership (X <sub>3</sub> )	4	0.585	2.3037	0.9026
Employee participation (Z)	15	0.883	3.0188	0.6746
Organizational commitment (Y)	21	0.880	3.0133	0.5959

Reviewing Table 4.15 shows that transformational leadership had the highest mean of 3.5571. This indicates that majority of respondents agreed with the items meaning that transformational type of leadership existed in the technical institutions. Transformational leadership could be the dominant leadership style. Transactional leadership is also practised as its mean was 3.224 meaning majority of the respondents agreed with the items but the mean was lower than that of transformational leadership. This is in agreement with the findings of a study by Cemaloglu *et al.* (2012) who found that school principals prefer transformational leadership style to transactional leadership style. The results show that Malaysian employers to be more transformational than transactional.

The standard deviation for transformational and transactional was 0.7265 and 0.4632 respectively. This standard deviation is low meaning that there were no extremes in the positive and negative in the scoring. However, transactional is a better measure than transformational as it had a lower standard deviation indicating that the

respondents agreed more in scoring transactional than transformational. Majority of the respondents disagreed with laissez-faire leadership items meaning laissez-faire leadership is not frequently practised. A mean of 2.3037 indicates that the respondents disagreed with the items of laissez-faire leadership. The standard deviation for laissez-faire leadership is 0.9026 which is low. This implies that the respondents generally agreed in the scoring of laissez-faire leadership items. It can therefore be said that there were no extremes in the scoring.

Majority of the respondents were neutral about organizational commitment as the variable had a mean of 3.0133. This neutral position shows it cannot be said whether there is organizational commitment or not. The standard deviation for organizational commitment is 0.5959 which is low. This indicates that the respondents generally agreed in the scoring and hence a good measure.

Majority of the respondents were neutral about employee participation as the variable had a mean of 3.0188. This is a neutral position. As such it could not be established whether employee participation was embraced or not. The standard deviation for employee participation was 0.6746 which is low. It shows the respondents generally agreed in the scoring hence a good measure.

#### **4.4 Correlation analysis results for the study variables**

The correlations among the variables are shown in Table 4.16.

**Table 4.16: Correlation matrix**

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1.Organizational commitment	1							
2.Affective commitment	.843**	1						
3.Continuanace commitment	.721**	.333**	1					
4. Normative commitment	.929**	.758**	.531**	1				
5. Employee Participation	.570**	.624**	.292**	.513**	1			
6.Transformational leadership	.449**	.592**	.206**	.337**	.564**	1		
7.Transactionall leadership	.392**	.360**	.337**	.287**	.302**	.595**	1	
8. Laissez-faire leadership	-.139*	.289**	.022	-.094	.367**	.510**	.130*	1
N	276	276	276	276	263	276	276	

Results in Table 4.16 show that there was a positive correlation between organizational commitment, affective commitment, continuance commitment,

normative commitment and transformational, transactional and employee participation whereas a negative correlation was found between laissez-faire leadership and organizational commitment, affective commitment, normative commitment, employee participation, transformational leadership and transactional leadership.

The strongest positive correlation was between organizational commitment and normative commitment (0.929) whereas the weakest correlation was between laissez-faire leadership and continuance commitment (0.022). All the correlations were significant except between laissez-faire leadership and continuance commitment and normative commitment.

#### **4.4.1 Correlation between transformational leadership and organizational commitment**

Analyzing Table 4.16 shows that there is a moderate positive correlation ( $r = 0.449$ ;  $p\text{-value} < 0.001$ ) between transformational leadership and organizational commitment. This is in agreement with the findings of Avolio *et al.* (2004) who reported that transformational leadership is positively correlated with the organizational commitment. Similarly, Chiun *et al.* (2009) states that different angles of transformational leadership have a positive relationship with organizational commitment. Lee *et al.* (2004) conducted research to find out effects of leadership style on organizational commitment and found that transformational style of leaders has direct bearing on commitment level of employees. In support of this, Mert *et al.* (2010) states that transformational leadership style positively affects organizational commitment of followers. Similar findings were given by Tseng and Kang (2008) when they found that there is positive and significant relationship between transformational leadership style and organizational commitment. Results of an Iranian study by Aboodi *et al.* (2013) showed a positive correlation between organizational commitment of healthcare staff and transformational behavior of their supervisors.

Bushra *et al.* (2011) in a Pakistanian study found that transformational leadership positively relates with organizational commitment of the sampled employees. Overall results of a Pakistanian study by Rehman *et al.* (2012) show that transformational leadership has a positive relationship with the organizational commitment. In the same breath, Ismail and Yusuf (2009) concluded that there is a significant positive relationship between these two variables.

The correlation matrix shows that a relationship exists between transformational leadership and organizational commitment ( $r = 0.449$ ;  $p\text{-value} < 0.001$ ). This implies that transformational leadership explains  $(0.449^2)$  20.16 % of the variation in organizational commitment as indicated in Table 4.17. It follows that other factors outside transformational leadership explain 79.84% of variation in organizational commitment.

**Table 4.17: Regression results of transformational leadership on organizational commitment**

Model	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Regression	19.717	1	19.717	69.313	.000 <sup>a</sup>
Residual	77.942	274	284		
Total	97.659	275			
R= 0.449	R <sup>2</sup> =0.202	$\Delta R^2 = 0.199$			

Similar findings were reported in a study by Obasan and Hassan (2014) who found that approximately 40% of the variability in special education teachers' level of job organizational commitment could possibly be accounted for by teachers' perceptions

of their administrators' supportive or transformational behaviors. The only difference is the magnitude as 20.2% compared to 40% shows a big disparity. Kara (2012) showed that 13 % of the total variance in organizational commitment stems from transformational leadership style. Bushra *et al.* (2011) in a Pakistanian study found that transformational leadership brings 16% change in organizational commitment which exhibits a positive and moderate relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment. Teshome (2011) in an Ethiopian study reported that transformational leadership behaviors accounted for between 12% and 21 % of teachers' organizational commitment scores. In a Tanzanian study, regression analysis indicates that transformational leadership explained 39% of the variance in teacher value coefficients commitment and commitment to stay (Nguni, 2005). The findings of Bushra *et al.* (2011) and Teshome (2011) are the closest to the findings of this study.

The model to be tested was

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \varepsilon$$

Where:

Y= Organizational commitment

$\beta_0$ = level of organizational commitment in the absence of transformational leadership

$\beta_1$ = intercept for the independent variable

$X_1$ =Transformational leadership

$\varepsilon$ =Error term

The model was found to be valid ( $F(1,274)=69.313, p\text{-value} < 0.001$ ). Details of the model are found in Table 4.17. For the sake of determining the significance of the variables, standardized beta coefficients are used. Standardized beta coefficients are



used for ease of comparison with other studies. The fitted model equation is  $Y = 0.449X_1$ . The details of the model are shown in Table 4.18.

**Table 4.18: Regression coefficients of transformational leadership on organizational commitment**

Model	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	1.702	.161		10.592	.000
Transformational leadership	.369	.044	.449	8.325	.000

This equation shows that standardized organizational commitment (OC) will increase by 0.449 units with one unit increase in standardized transformational leadership style. The model indicates that transformational leadership is significantly explaining the variation in the dependent variable (organizational commitment). Therefore, hypothesis  $H_{01}$ : there is no significant effect of transformational leadership style on organizational commitment is rejected and conclude that transformational leadership style has a significant effect on organizational commitment. The high residual sum of squares (77.942) indicates that the model does not explain a lot of the variation in the dependent variable as there are other factors that account for a higher proportion of the variation in the dependent variable.

### **Correlation between transformational leadership and affective commitment**

Reviewing Table 4.16, a moderate positive correlation was found between transformational leadership and affective commitment ( $r = 0.592$ ,  $p$ -value  $< 0.001$ ). The findings are in agreement with previous studies. In a study carried out in Zimbabwe, results show a moderate but significant positive direct correlation between transformational leadership style and affective commitment (Chipunza *et al.*, 2011). Ekeland (2005) found that transformational leadership has a positive effect on follower's affective commitment. Chandna and Krishnan (2009) also found that transformational leadership has significant relationship with affective commitment. Wu *et al.* (2006) confirmed that transformational leadership significantly correlated with affective commitment.

Jackson *et al.* (2013) found that there was a strong positive correlation between transformational/charismatic leadership and affective commitment. They further found that the correlation with normative commitment was weaker than with affective commitment. The findings differ from others in that other studies have found a moderate positive relationship. Mester *et al.* (2003) in a South African study found evidence of a significant relationship between transformational leadership and affective commitment but to a lesser degree than transactional leadership.

Aghashahi *et al.* (2013) examined the statistical relationship between leadership styles and organizational commitment components. Results supported a positive direct relationship of transformational leadership style with affective in the context of service industry. The results of the analysis provided that transformational leadership had the strongest and most positive correlations with affective commitment. Muchiri *et al.* (2012) also investigated the same relationship in local government councils in Australia and found that transformational leadership predicted affective-normative commitment. In a Malaysian study by Givens (2011), research results revealed that transformational leadership behaviors had a statistically significant relationship with follower's affective commitment. Ramachandran and Krishnan (2009) found that affective commitment is positively related to transformational leadership. Further

found that transformational leadership is moderately higher in the U.S. than in China and affective commitment is significantly and positively related to transformational leadership in the U.S. and India but not in China.

The correlation matrix shows that a relationship exists between transformational leadership and affective commitment ( $r=0.592$ ;  $p\text{-value} < 0.001$ ). This implies that transformational leadership explains ( $0.592^2$ ) 35.05% of the variation in affective commitment as shown in Table 4.19. Therefore factors outside transformational leadership explain 64.95% of variation in affective commitment.

**Table 4.19: Regression results of transformational leadership on affective commitment**

<b>Model</b>	<b>Sum of squares</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Mean square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Regression	60.475	1	60.475	147.874	.000 <sup>a</sup>
Residual	112.056	274	.409		
Total	172.530	275			
R=0.592	R <sup>2</sup> =0.351	$\Delta R^2=0.348$			

a. Predictors: (Constant), X<sub>1</sub>

b. Dependent Variable: Y<sub>1</sub>

These findings are similar to those of a Malaysian study. Givens (2011) found that transformational and contingent rewards leadership behaviors accounted for 32.8% of the variance in the followers' affective commitment. However, the findings of this study are higher because those of the Malaysian study combine both transformational and transactional leadership styles.

The model to be tested was

$$Y_1 = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \varepsilon$$

Where:

$Y_1$  = Affective commitment

$\beta_0$  = level of affective commitment in the absence of transformational leadership

$\beta_1$  = intercept for the independent variable

$X_1$  = Transformational leadership

$\varepsilon$  = Error term

The model was found to be valid ( $F(1,274) = 147.874$ ,  $p\text{-value} < 0.001$ ) as indicated in Tables 4.19. The fitted model equation is  $Y_1 = 0.592X_1$ . The details of the model are shown in Table 4.20.

**Table 4.20: Regression coefficients of transformational leadership on affective commitment**

Model	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	1.062	.193		5.512	.000
Transformational leadership	.645	.053	.592	12.160	.000

This equation shows that standardized affective commitment (AC) will increase by 0.592 units with one unit increase in standardized transformational leadership style. The model indicates that transformational leadership is significantly explaining the variation in the dependent variable (affective commitment). Therefore, hypothesis H<sub>01a</sub>: there is no significant effect of transformational leadership style on affective commitment is rejected and conclude that transformational leadership style has a significant effect on affective commitment. The high residual sum of squares (112.056) indicates that the model does not explain a lot of the variation in the dependent variable as there are other factors that account for a higher proportion of the variation in the dependent variable.

#### **Correlation between transformational leadership and continuance commitment**

Table 4.16 shows a weak positive correlation was found between transformational leadership and continuance commitment ( $r = 0.206$ ;  $p\text{-value} = 0.001$ ). Correlations ranging from zero to weak positive between transformational leadership and continuance commitment have been reported (Felfe *et al.*, 2008). Wu *et al.* (2006) confirmed that transformational leadership significantly correlated with continuance commitment.

The correlation matrix shows that a relationship exists between transformational leadership and continuance commitment ( $r = 0.206$ ;  $p\text{-value} = 0.001$ ). This shows that transformational leadership explains  $(0.206^2)$  4.24 % of the variation in continuance commitment (Table 4.21). Other factors outside transformational leadership therefore explain 95.76% of variation in continuance commitment. The variation in continuance commitment explained by transformational leadership is quite low. To improve this, there would be need to combine transformational leadership with transactional leadership style.

**Table 4.21: Regression results of transformational leadership on continuance commitment**

Model	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Regression	4.281	1	4.281	12.116	.001 <sup>a</sup>
Residual	96.818	274	.353		
Total	101.099	275			
R=0.206	R <sup>2</sup> =0.042	ΔR <sup>2</sup> =0.039			

a. Predictors: (Constant), X<sub>1</sub>

b. Dependent Variable: Y<sub>2</sub>

The model to be tested was

$$Y_2 = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \varepsilon$$

Where:

Y<sub>2</sub> = Continuance commitment

β<sub>0</sub> = level of continuance commitment in the absence of transformational leadership

β<sub>1</sub> = intercept for the independent variable

X<sub>1</sub> = Transformational leadership

ε = Error term

The model was found to be valid ( $F(1,274) = 12.116$ ,  $p\text{-value}=0.001$ ) like indicated in Table 4.21. The fitted model equation is  $Y_2 = 0.206 X_1$ . The details of the model are in Table 4.22.

**Table 4.22: Regression coefficients of transformational leadership on continuance commitment**

Model	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	2.108	.179		11.767	.000
Transformational leadership	.172	.049	.206	3.481	.001

The model equation shows that standardized continuance commitment (CC) will increase by 0.206 units with one unit increase in standardized transformational leadership style. The model indicates that transformational leadership is significantly explaining the variation in the dependent variable (continuance commitment). Therefore, hypothesis  $H_{01b}$ : there is no significant effect of transformational leadership style on continuance commitment is rejected and conclude that transformational leadership style has a significant effect on continuance commitment.

Some studies have reported contrasting findings. Aghashahi *et al.* (2013) examined the statistical relationship between leadership styles and organizational commitment components. Transformational leadership style was not found to be a significant predictor of continuance commitment. Jackson *et al.* (2013) found no significant relation between transformational/charismatic leadership and continuance

commitment. In a study by Ramachandran and Krishnan (2009), results indicate that transformational leadership is not significantly related to continuance commitment. They found that continuance commitment is moderately higher in China than in India and the U.S.

The high residual sum of squares (98.818) indicates that the model does not explain a lot of the variation in the dependent variable as there are other factors that account for a higher proportion of the variation in the dependent variable. This is true as transformational leadership explains 4.24 % in the variation in continuance commitment

### **Correlation between transformational leadership and normative commitment**

Reviewing Table 4.16 shows a weak positive correlation was found between transformational leadership and normative commitment ( $r= 0.337$ ;  $p\text{-value}<0.001$ ). Chipunza *et al.* (2011) reported a weak but significant positive direct correlation between transformational leadership style and normative commitment. Jackson *et al.* (2013) found a moderate positive correlation between transformational leadership variable and normative commitment. Aghashahi *et al.* (2013) examined the statistical relationship between leadership styles and organizational commitment components. Results supported a positive direct relationship of transformational leadership style with normative commitment in the context of service industry. In a study by Ramachandran and Krishnan (2009), results indicate that normative commitment is positively related to transformational leadership. Normative commitment is significantly higher in India-China combined than in the U.S. In Yemen, transformational leadership was found not to be a good predictor of normative commitment (Saeed *et al.*, 2013).

The correlation matrix shows a relationship exists between transformational leadership and normative commitment ( $r= 0.337$ ;  $p\text{-value}<0.001$ ). This shows that transformational leadership explains ( $0.337^2$ ) 11.35% of the variation in normative



commitment (Table 4.23). Other factors outside transformational leadership therefore explain 88.65% of variation in normative commitment.

**Table 4.23: Regression results of transformational leadership on normative commitment**

Model	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Regression	16.960	1	16.960	35.041	.000 <sup>a</sup>
Residual	132.615	274	.484		
Total	149.575	275			
R=0.337	R <sup>2</sup> =0.113	ΔR <sup>2</sup> =0.110			

The model to be tested was

$$Y_3 = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \varepsilon$$

Where:

$Y_3$  = Normative commitment

$\beta_0$  = level of normative commitment in the absence of transformational leadership

$\beta_1$  = intercept for the independent variable

$X_1$  = Transformational leadership

$\varepsilon$  = Error term

The model was found to be valid ( $F(1,274) = 35.041$ ,  $p\text{-value} < 0.001$ ) as shown in Table 4.23. The fitted model equation is  $Y_3 = 0.337X_1$ . The details of the model are in Table 4.24.

**Table 4.24: Regression coefficients of transformational leadership on normative commitment**

Model	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients		t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta			
(Constant)	1.792	.210			8.550	.000
Transformational leadership	.342	.058	.337		5.920	.000

The model equation shows that standardized normative commitment (NC) will increase by 0.337 units with one unit increase in standardized transformational leadership style. The model indicates that transformational leadership is significantly explaining the variation in the dependent variable (normative commitment). Therefore, hypothesis  $H_{01c}$ : there is no significant effect of transformational leadership style on normative commitment is rejected and conclude that transformational leadership style has a significant effect on normative commitment.

Similar findings were reported in a Malaysian study by Givens (2011). Research results revealed that transformational leadership behaviors had a statistically significant relationship with follower's normative commitment. The high residual sum of squares (132.615) indicates that the model does not explain a lot of the variation in the dependent variable as there are other factors that account for a higher proportion of the variation in the dependent variable.

#### **4.4.2 Correlation between transactional leadership and organizational commitment**

Reviewing Table 4.16 shows there is a weak positive correlation between transactional leadership ( $X_2$ ) and organizational commitment ( $r = 0.392$ ;  $p$ -value  $< 0.001$ ). Similar findings have been reported in a Nigerian study by Soieb *et al.* (2013). They found that transactional leadership style has a significant influence toward organizational commitment of the lecturers (affective commitment, continuance and normative commitment). Overall results of a Pakistanian study by Rehman *et al.* (2012) show that transactional leadership has a positive relationship with organizational commitment. Contrasting results have been reported in an Iranian study by Aboodi *et al.* (2013). They found a significant negative relationship between transactional behavior of supervisors and organizational commitment of their subordinates.

The correlation matrix shows a relationship exists between transactional leadership and organizational commitment ( $r = 0.392$ ;  $p$ -value  $< 0.001$ ). Therefore, transactional leadership explains  $(0.392^2)$  15.37 % of the variation in organizational commitment (Table 4.25). This indicates that other factors outside transactional leadership explain 84.63 % of variation in organizational commitment.

**Table 4.25: Regression results of transactional leadership on organizational commitment**

Model	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Regression	14.972	1	14.972	49.615	.000 <sup>a</sup>
Residual	82.687	274	.302		
Total	97.659	275			
R=0.392    R <sup>2</sup> =0.153    ΔR <sup>2</sup> =0.150					

a. Predictors: (Constant), X<sub>2</sub>

b. Dependent Variable: Y

Similar findings were reported in a Tanzanian study by Nguni (2005) where the regression analysis indicated that transactional leadership explained 28% of the variance in teacher value coefficients commitment and commitment to stay. However, the percentage in the Tanzanian study was higher than the results of this study.

The model to be tested was

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_2 X_2 + \varepsilon$$

Where:

Y= Organizational commitment

$\beta_0$ = level of organizational commitment in the absence of transactional leadership

$\beta_2$ = intercept for the independent variable

$X_2$ =Transactional leadership

$\varepsilon$ =Error term

The model was found to be valid ( $F(1,274) = 49.615$ ,  $p\text{-value} < 0.001$ ) as indicated in Table 4.25. The fitted model equation is  $Y = 0.392X_2$  with the predictors explaining 15.3% of the variation in organizational commitment. Details of the model are presented in Table 4.26.

**Table 4.26: Regression coefficients of transactional leadership on organizational commitment**

Model	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	1.390	.233		5.969	.000
Transactional leadership	.504	.072	.392	7.044	.000

The model equation shows that standardized organizational commitment (OC) will increase by 0.392 units with one unit increase in standardized transactional leadership style. The model indicates that transactional leadership ( $X_2$ ) is

significantly explaining the variation in the dependent variable (organizational commitment). Therefore, hypothesis H<sub>02</sub>: there is no significant effect of transactional leadership style on organizational commitment is rejected and conclude that transactional leadership style has a significant effect on organizational commitment. The high residual sum of squares (82.687) indicates that the model does not explain a lot of the variation in the dependent variable as there are other factors that account for a higher proportion of the variation in the dependent variable.

### **Correlation between transactional leadership and affective commitment**

Table 4.16 shows a weak positive correlation exists between transactional leadership and affective commitment ( $r= 0.360$ ;  $p\text{-value}<0.001$ ). This is in agreement with previous studies. Research findings by Bass and Riggio (2006) showed that transactional leadership has a positive relationship with affective commitment, moral commitment and commitment to keep working with the organization. Mester *et al.* (2003) in a South African study found evidence of a significant relationship between transactional leadership and affective commitment. In Yemen, transactional leadership was found to be significantly related with organizational commitment dimensions (Saeed *et al.*, 2013). Contrasting results have also been reported. In a South African study by Nyengane (2007), no statistically significant correlation was found between transactional leadership behaviours and affective commitment. Teshome (2011) in an Ethiopian study reported that there is no statistically significant correlation between transactional leadership behaviours and affective commitment.

The correlation matrix shows that a relationship exists between transactional leadership and affective commitment ( $r= 0.360$ ;  $p\text{-value}<0.001$ ). As such transactional leadership explains  $(0.360^2)12.96\%$  of the variation in affective commitment as indicated in Table 4.27. This indicates that other factors outside transactional leadership explain 87.04 % of variation in affective commitment.

**Table 4.27: Regression coefficients of transactional leadership on affective commitment**

Model	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Regression	22.386	1	22.386	40.852	.000 <sup>a</sup>
Residual	150.144	274	.548		
Total	172.530	275			
R=0.360	R <sup>2</sup> =0.130	ΔR <sup>2</sup> =0.127			

The model to be tested was

$$Y_1 = \beta_0 + \beta_2 X_2 + \varepsilon$$

Where:

$Y_1$  = Affective commitment

$\beta_0$  = level of affective commitment in the absence of transactional leadership

$\beta_2$  = intercept for the independent variable

$X_2$  = Transactional leadership

$\varepsilon$  = Error term

The model was found to be valid ( $F(1,274) = 40.852, p\text{-value} < 0.001$ ) as shown in Table 4.27. The fitted model equation is  $Y_1 = 0.360X_2$  with the predictors explaining

13.0 % of variation in affective commitment. The details of the model are in Table 4.28.

**Table 4.28: Regression coefficients of transactional leadership on affective commitment**

<b>Model</b>	<b>Unstandardized coefficients</b>		<b>Standardized coefficients</b>		
	<b>B</b>	<b>Std.Error</b>	<b>Beta</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
(Constant)	1.373	.314		4.376	.000
Transactional leadership	.616	.096	.360	6.392	.000

The model equation shows that standardized affective commitment (AC) will increase by 0.360 units with one unit increase in standardized transactional leadership style. The model indicates that transactional leadership is significantly explaining the variation in the dependent variable (affective commitment). As such, hypothesis H<sub>02a</sub>: there is no significant effect of transactional leadership style on affective commitment is rejected and conclude that transactional leadership style has a significant effect on affective commitment. The high residual sum of squares (150.144) indicates that the model does not explain a lot of the variation in the dependent variable as there are other factors that account for a higher proportion of the variation in the dependent variable.

### **Correlation between transactional leadership and continuance commitment**

Table 4.16 shows a weak positive correlation was found between transactional leadership and continuance commitment ( $r=0.337$ ;  $p\text{-value}<0.001$ ). Previous studies support the findings of this study. In a South African study by Nyengane (2007), the



correlation analysis indicated a weak, but significant, positive relationship between transactional leadership behaviours and continuance commitment.

The correlation results show a relationship exists between transactional leadership and continuance commitment ( $r=0.337$ ;  $p\text{-value}<0.001$ ). This implies that transactional leadership explains ( $0.337^2$ ) 11.36 % of the variation in continuance commitment (Table 4.29). This indicates that other factors outside transactional leadership explain 88.64% of variation in continuance commitment.

**Table 4.29: Regression results of transactional leadership on continuance commitment**

Model	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Regression	11.486	1	11.486	35.119	.000 <sup>a</sup>
Residual	89.613	274	.327		
Total	101.099	275			
R=0.337    R <sup>2</sup> =0.114    ΔR <sup>2</sup> =0.110					

a. Predictors: (Constant), X<sub>2</sub>

b. Dependent Variable: Y<sub>2</sub>

The model to be tested was

$$Y_2 = \beta_0 + \beta_2 X_2 + \varepsilon$$

Where:

$$Y_2 = \text{Continuance commitment}$$

$\beta_0$ = level of continuance commitment in the absence of transactional leadership

$\beta_2$ = intercept for the independent variable

$X_2$ =Transactional leadership

$\varepsilon$ =Error term

Under the model  $Y_2 = \beta_0 + \beta_2 X_2 + \varepsilon$ , the model was found to be valid ( $F(1, 274) = 35.119$ ,  $p$ -value  $< 0.001$ ) as shown in Table 4.29. The fitted model equation is  $Y_2 = 0.337X_2$ . The details of the model are in Table 4.30.

**Table 4.30: Regression coefficients of transactional leadership on continuance commitment**

Model	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	1.297	.242		5.349	.000
Transactional leadership	.441	.074	.337	5.926	.000

The model equation shows that standardized continuance commitment (CC) will increase by 0.337 units with one unit increase in standardized transactional leadership style. The model indicates that transactional leadership is significantly explaining the variation in the dependent variable (continuance commitment). Because of this, hypothesis  $H_{02b}$ : there is no significant effect of transactional leadership style on continuance commitment is rejected and conclude that

transactional leadership style has a significant effect on continuance commitment. The high residual sum of squares (89.613) indicates that the model does not explain a lot of the variation in the dependent variable as there are other factors that account for a higher proportion of the variation in the dependent variable.

In Yemen, transactional leadership was found to be significantly related with organizational commitment dimensions (Saeed *et al.*, 2013). Some studies have reported contrasting findings. Teshome (2011) in an Ethiopian study reported that transactional leadership has no statistically significant correlation with continuance commitment. Aghashahi *et al.* (2013) examined the statistical relationship between leadership styles and organizational commitment components. Transactional style was not found to be a significant predictor of continuance commitment.

### **Correlation between transactional leadership and normative commitment**

Reviewing Table 4.16 indicates a weak positive correlation was found between transactional leadership and normative commitment ( $r= 0.287$ ;  $p\text{-value}<0.001$ ). Similar findings have been reported in previous studies. Teshome (2011) in an Ethiopian study reported that there is a very weak, but positive and significant relationship between transactional leadership style and normative commitment. Contrasting findings have also been reported. In a South African study by Nyengane (2007), no statistically significant correlation was found between transactional leadership behaviours and normative commitment. In Yemen, transactional leadership was found to be significantly related with organizational commitment dimensions except normative commitment. The results are quite surprising in that transactional leadership is not a good predictor of normative commitment same as transformational leadership (Saeed *et al.*, 2013).

The correlation matrix shows that a relationship exists between transactional leadership and normative commitment ( $r= 0.287$ ;  $p\text{-value} <0.001$ ). This implies that transactional leadership explains  $(0.287^2)$  8.24 % of the variation in normative commitment (Table 4.31). This indicates that other factors outside transactional

leadership explain 91.76% of variation in normative commitment. Teshome (2011) found that 5% of the variance in normative commitment originates from transactional leadership behaviors.

**Table 4.31: Regression results of transactional leadership on normative commitment**

<b>Model</b>	<b>Sum of squares</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Mean square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Regression	12.352	1	12.352	24.665	.000 <sup>a</sup>
Residual	137.223	274	.501		
Total	149.575	275			
R=0.287    R <sup>2</sup> =0.083    ΔR <sup>2</sup> =0.079					

The model to be tested was

$$Y_3 = \beta_0 + \beta_2 X_2 + \varepsilon$$

Where:

$Y_3$  = Normative commitment

$\beta_0$  = level of normative commitment in the absence of transactional leadership

$\beta_2$  = intercept for the independent variable

$X_2$  = Transactional leadership

$\epsilon$ =Error term

The model was found to be valid ( $F(1,274)=24.665, p\text{-value}<0.001$ ) as shown in Table 4.31. The fitted model equation is  $Y_3 = 0.287X_2$  with the details in Table 4.32.

**Table 4.32: Regression coefficients of transactional leadership on normative commitment**

Model	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	1.534	.300		5.113	.000
Transactional leadership	.458	.092	.287	4.966	.000

The model equation shows that standardized normative commitment (NC) will increase by 0.287 units with one unit increase in standardized transactional leadership style. The model indicates that transactional leadership is significantly explaining the variation in the dependent variable (normative commitment). Therefore, hypothesis  $H_{02c}$ : there is no significant effect of transactional leadership style on normative commitment is rejected and conclude that transactional leadership style has a significant effect on normative commitment.

The high residual sum of squares (137.223) indicates that the model does not explain a lot of the variation in the dependent variable as there are other factors that account for a higher proportion of the variation in the dependent variable.

#### **4.4.3 Correlation between laissez-faire leadership and organizational commitment**

Table 4.16 shows that there is a weak negative correlation ( $r = -0.139$ ;  $p\text{-value} = 0.021$ ) between laissez-faire leadership style and organizational commitment. Similar findings were reported in an Iranian study by Aboodi *et al.* (2013). They reported that laissez-faire leadership style has a negative relationship with followers' organizational commitment. In support of this, Saqer (2009) reported a significant negative relationship between laissez-faire leadership and organizational commitment. This correlation suggests that leadership behaviours involving avoiding getting involved when important issues arise, avoidance to make decisions, absent when needed and delaying response to urgent matters are negatively related to how employees feel about wanting or obliged to stay with the organization and attachment with the organization.

Correlation results show that a relationship exists between laissez-faire leadership and organizational commitment ( $r = -0.139$ ;  $p\text{-value} = 0.021$ ). This implies that laissez-faire leadership explains  $(-0.139^2)$  1.93% of variation in organizational commitment (Table 4.33). This shows other factors outside laissez-faire leadership explain 98.07% of variation in organizational commitment.

**Table 4.33: Regression results of laissez-faire leadership on organizational commitment**

Model	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Regression	1.884	1	1.884	5.391	.021 <sup>a</sup>
Residual	95.775	274	.350		
Total	97.659	275			

R=0.139    R<sup>2</sup>=0.019    ΔR<sup>2</sup>=0.016

a. Predictors: (Constant), X<sub>3</sub>

b. Dependent Variable: Y

The model to be tested was

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_3 X_3 + \varepsilon$$

Where:

Y= Organizational commitment

$\beta_0$ = level of organizational commitment in the absence of laissez-faire leadership

$\beta_3$ = intercept for the independent variable

X<sub>3</sub>=Laissez-faire leadership

$\varepsilon$ =Error term

The model was found to be valid ( $F(1,274)=5.391, p\text{-value}=0.021$ ) as shown in Table 4.33. The fitted model equation is  $Y = -0.139X_3$  with the predictor explaining 1.9% of the variation in organizational commitment. Details of the model are presented in Table 4.34.

**Table 4.34: Regression coefficients of laissez-faire leadership on organizational commitment**

Model	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients		Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	
(Constant)	3.225	.098		33.003	.000
Laissez-faire leadership	-.092	.039	-.139	-2.322	.021

The model equation shows that standardized organizational commitment (OC) will decrease by 0.139 units with one unit increase in standardized laissez-faire leadership style. The use of laissez-faire leadership style leads to a decrease in organizational commitment. As such, its use should be discouraged. Koech and Namusonge (2012) in their Kenyan study also recommended that laissez-faire leadership should be discarded so as to improve organizational performance.

The model indicates that laissez-faire leadership is significantly explaining the variation in the dependent variable (organizational commitment). Therefore, hypothesis  $H_{03}$ : there is no significant effect of laissez-faire leadership style on organizational commitment is rejected and conclude that laissez-faire leadership style has a significant effect on organizational commitment. The high residual sum of squares (95.775) indicates that the model does not explain a lot of the variation in the



dependent variable as there are other factors that account for a higher proportion of the variation in the dependent variable.

### **Correlation between laissez-faire leadership and affective commitment**

Table 4.16 shows a weak negative correlation exists between laissez-faire leadership and affective commitment ( $r = -0.289$ ;  $p\text{-value} < 0.001$ ). Existing literature and previous studies found that passive/avoidant leadership style either does not correlate or correlates negatively with affective commitment (Limsila & Ogunlana, 2008; Lo *et al.*, 2010).

In a South African study by Nyengane (2007), the correlation results showed a weak, but significant, negative correlation between laissez-faire leadership behaviours and affective commitment. This means that leadership behaviours, which involve avoiding getting involved when problems arise, will negatively impact on affective commitment. Teshome (2011) in an Ethiopian study reported that laissez-faire leadership style is significantly and negatively related to affective commitment though it is relatively weak. This existence of significant and negative correlation between laissez-faire leadership style and affective commitment suggests the strengths of negative influence on affective commitment. In a meta-analysis, Jackson *et al.* (2013) found that laissez-faire leadership was negatively related to affective commitment. In Central Europe and Lithuania, Clinebell *et al.* (2013) found that passive/avoidant leadership style showed a significant negative correlation with affective commitment dimension only. Buciuniene and Skudiene (2008) in their study found a negative significant association between laissez-faire leadership style and employee affective commitment. Contrasting findings were reported in Turkey where Cemaloglu *et al.* (2012) found that teachers' affective commitment is positively correlated with principals using laissez-faire leadership styles.

The correlation matrix shows a relationship exists between laissez-faire leadership and affective commitment ( $r = -0.289$ ;  $p\text{-value} < 0.001$ ). This shows that laissez-faire leadership explains  $(-0.289^2)$  8.35 % of variation in affective commitment (Table

4.35). Hence, other factors outside laissez-faire leadership explain 91.65% of variation in affective commitment.

**Table 4.35: Regression results of laissez-faire leadership on affective commitment**

Model	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Regression	14.394	1	14.394	24.941	.000 <sup>a</sup>
Residual	158.136	274	.577		
Total	172.530	275			
R=0.289    R <sup>2</sup> =0.083    ΔR <sup>2</sup> =0.080					

a. Predictors: (Constant), X<sub>3</sub>

b. Dependent Variable: Y<sub>1</sub>

The model to be tested was

$$Y_1 = \beta_0 + \beta_3 X_3 + \varepsilon$$

Where:

Y<sub>1</sub>= Affective commitment

β<sub>0</sub>= level of affective commitment in the absence of laissez-faire leadership

β<sub>3</sub>= intercept for the independent variable

X<sub>3</sub>=Laissez-faire leadership

ε=Error term

The model was found to be valid ( $F(1,274) = 24.941$ ,  $p\text{-value} < 0.001$ ) as shown in Table 4.35. The fitted model equation is  $Y_1 = -0.289X_3$  with the details in Table 4.36.

**Table 4.36: Regression coefficients of laissez-faire leadership on affective commitment**

Model	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	3.942	.126		31.399	.000
Laissez-faire leadership	-.253	.051	-.289	-4.994	.000

The model equation shows that standardized affective commitment (AC) will decrease by 0.289 units with one unit increase in standardized laissez-faire leadership style. The use of laissez-faire leadership style leads to a decrease in affective commitment. As such, its use should be discouraged. The model indicates that laissez-faire leadership is significantly explaining the variation in the dependent variable (affective commitment). Therefore, hypothesis  $H_{03a}$ : there is no significant effect of laissez-faire leadership style on affective commitment is rejected and conclude that laissez-faire leadership style has a significant effect on affective commitment. The high residual sum of squares (158.136) indicates that the model does not explain a lot of the variation in the dependent variable as there are other factors that account for a higher proportion of the variation in the dependent variable.

### Correlation between laissez-faire leadership and continuance commitment

Table 4.16 shows there was a weak positive correlation between laissez-faire leadership and continuance commitment ( $r = 0.022$ ;  $p\text{-value}=0.715$ ). Contrasting findings have been reported in previous studies. In a Turkish study by Cemaloglu *et al.* (2012), teachers' continuance commitment is negatively related to laissez-faire leadership styles. In Central Europe and Lithuania, Clinebell *et al.* (2013) found passive/avoidant leadership style showed a significant negative correlation with affective commitment dimension only.

The correlation matrix shows a relationship exists by chance between laissez-faire leadership and continuance commitment ( $r = 0.022$ ;  $p\text{-value}=0.715$ ). Table 4.37 also shows similar results.

**Table 4.37: Regression results of laissez-faire leadership on continuance commitment**

Model	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Regression	.049	1	.049	.133	.715 <sup>a</sup>
Residual	101.050	274	.369		
Total	101.099	275			
R=0.022    R <sup>2</sup> =0.000    ΔR <sup>2</sup> =-0.003					

a. Predictors: (Constant), X<sub>3</sub>

b. Dependent Variable: Y<sub>2</sub>

The model to be tested was

$$Y_2 = \beta_0 + \beta_3 X_3 + \varepsilon$$

Where:

$Y_2$  = Continuance commitment

$\beta_0$  = level of continuance commitment in the absence of laissez-faire leadership

$\beta_3$  = intercept for the independent variable

$X_3$  = Laissez-faire leadership

$\varepsilon$  = Error term

The model was found not to be valid ( $F(1,274)=0.133$ ,  $p\text{-value}=0.715$ ) as shown in Table 4.37. The fitted model equation is  $Y_2 = 0.022X_3$  with the predictor explaining no variation in continuance commitment. The details of the model are presented in Table 4.38.

**Table 4.38: Regression coefficients of laissez-faire leadership on continuance commitment**

Model	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	2.684	.100		26.748	.000
Laissez-faire leadership	.015	.041	.022	.365	.715

The model indicates that laissez-faire leadership is not significantly explaining the variation in the dependent variable (continuance commitment). Therefore, hypothesis H<sub>03b</sub>: there is no significant effect of laissez-faire leadership style on continuance commitment is not rejected and conclude that laissez-faire leadership style does not have a significant effect on continuance commitment. Similar findings were reported by Limsila and Ogunlana (2008) and Lo *et al.* (2010) who observed that laissez-faire leadership does not have any statistically significant correlation with continuance commitment.

### **Correlation between laissez-faire leadership and normative commitment**

Reviewing Table 4.16, a weak negative correlation was found between laissez-faire leadership and normative commitment ( $r = -0.094$ ;  $p\text{-value} = 0.121$ ). Similar findings have been reported in previous studies. In a Turkish study by Cemaloglu *et al.* (2012), teachers' normative commitment was found to be negatively related to laissez-faire leadership style.

The correlation matrix shows a relationship exists by chance between laissez-faire leadership and normative commitment ( $r = -0.094$ ;  $p\text{-value} = 0.121$ ). The model to be tested was

$$Y_3 = \beta_0 + \beta_3 X_3 + \varepsilon$$

Where:

$Y_3$  = Normative commitment

$\beta_0$  = level of normative commitment in the absence of laissez-faire leadership

$\beta_3$  = intercept for the independent variable

$X_3$  = Laissez-faire leadership

$\varepsilon$  = Error term

The model was found not to be valid ( $F(1,274)=2.423, p\text{-value} = 0.121$ ). The details of the model are shown in Table 4.39.

**Table 4.39: Regression results of laissez-faire leadership on normative commitment**

Model	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Regression	1.311	1	1.311	2.423	.121
Residual	148.264	274	.541		
Total	149.575	275			

R= 0.094     $R^2 = 0.009$      $\Delta R^2 = 0.005$

a. Predictors: (Constant), X<sub>3</sub>

The model indicates that laissez-faire leadership is not significantly explaining the variation in the dependent variable (normative commitment). Therefore hypothesis H<sub>03c</sub>: there is no significant effect of laissez-faire leadership style on normative commitment is not rejected and conclude that laissez-faire leadership style does not have a significant effect on normative commitment. In Central Europe and Lithuania, Clinebell *et al.* (2013) found passive/avoidant leadership style does not have any statistically significant correlation with normative commitment (Limsila & Ogunlana, 2008; Lo *et al.*, 2010).

The use of laissez-faire leadership style actually leads to a decrease in normative commitment. As such, its use should be discouraged. The high residual sum of squares (148.264) indicates that the model does not explain a lot of the variation in

the dependent variable as there are other factors that account for a higher proportion of the variation in the dependent variable.

#### **4.4.4 Correlation between employee participation and organizational commitment**

Table 4.16 shows that there is a moderate positive correlation ( $r = 0.570$ ;  $p$ -value  $< 0.001$ ) between employee participation (Z) and organizational commitment (Y). Previous studies support these findings. Kirmizi and Deniz (2012) reported that participation of employees in the decision-making process and involving them in organizational plans and goals setting has positive impact on the employees' commitment towards the organization. In support of this, Khan (2011) surmised that direct participation has a direct, positive and significant impact on all three forms of organizational commitment in Pakistani settings. Bhatti *et al.* (2011) observed that having employee participation in the planning can be an effective means of fostering commitment with the organization.

Khan *et al.* (2011) in their study proved that job involvement is positively related to affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment. Overall study proved the significance of job involvement with employee commitment. This clearly indicates that those organizations that have job involvement culture, their employees are more committed with organization than those organizations who do not involve their employees (Khan *et al.*, 2011). Raymond and Mjoli (2013) in a South African study found the correlation coefficient between job involvement and organizational commitment to be significant and positively correlated.

Moynihan and Pandey (2007) investigated the relationship between job involvement and organizational commitment using a sample of public sector health and human services managers. The study showed that there is a moderate positive correlation between job involvement and organizational commitment. Uygur and Kilic (2009) studied the level of organizational commitment and job involvement of the personnel at Central Organization, Ministry of Health in Turkey. A significant positive



correlation was found between organizational commitment and job involvement. Contrasting results have been reported in Pakistan. A study conducted by Kamal *et al.* (2009) reported that most of the Pakistani banks do not see employee participation as a driver of enhancing organizational commitment.

The correlation matrix shows a relationship exists between employee participation and organizational commitment ( $r = 0.570$ ,  $p\text{-value} < 0.001$ ). This implies employee participation explains  $(0.570^2)$  32.49 % of the variation in organizational commitment. This shows that other factors outside employee participation explain 67.51% of variation in organizational commitment.

#### **Correlation between employee participation and affective commitment**

Reviewing Table 4.16, a moderate positive correlation was found between employee participation and affective commitment ( $r = 0.624$ ;  $p\text{-value} < 0.001$ ). Similar findings have been reported in previous studies. A study conducted by Meyer *et al.* (2002) found a very strong positive correlation between affective commitment and employees' job involvement. Similar results were also reported by Torka (2003) when he found that amongst Dutch metal workers that employee involvement leads to more affective commitment to the department as well as to the organization.

The correlation matrix shows a relationship exists between employee participation and affective commitment ( $r = 0.624$ ;  $p\text{-value} < 0.001$ ). This implies employee participation explains 38.94 % of the variation in affective commitment. This shows that other factors outside employee participation explain 61.06% of variation in affective commitment.

#### **Correlation between employee participation and continuance commitment**

Table 4.16 indicates that a weak positive correlation was found between employee participation and continuance commitment ( $r = 0.292$ ;  $p\text{-value} < 0.001$ ). The correlation matrix shows a relationship exists between employee participation and continuance commitment. This implies employee participation explains  $(0.292^2)$  8.53 % of the

variation in continuance commitment showing that other factors outside employee participation explain 91.47% of variation in continuance commitment.

### **Correlation between employee participation and normative commitment**

Reviewing Table 4.16 shows a moderate positive correlation exists between employee participation and normative commitment ( $r=0.513$ ;  $p\text{-value}<0.001$ ). Similar results were reported by Torka (2003) when he found that amongst Dutch metal workers, employee involvement leads to more normative commitment to the department as well as to the organization.

The correlation matrix shows a relationship exists between employee participation and normative commitment ( $r= 0.513$ ;  $p\text{-value}<0.001$ ). This implies employee participation explains  $(0.513^2)$  26.32% of the variation in normative commitment showing that other factors outside employee participation explain 73.68% of variation in normative commitment.

### **4.5 Regression analysis results for the study variables**

In order to analyze the relationship between the independent variables, the moderator variable and the dependent variable, multiple regression was employed. Multiple regression was conducted to test the degree and the direction of influence and to gauge the statistical significance of the relationship.

#### **4.5.1 The joint effect of the independent variables on organizational commitment**

The general model that was used was:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \varepsilon$$

Where:

$$Y = \text{Organizational commitment}$$

$X_1$ = Transformational leadership

$X_2$ =Transactional leadership

$X_3$ = Laissez-faire leadership

$\beta_0$  is the level organizational commitment in the absence of the independent variables

$\beta_1 - \beta_3$  = Intercepts for the independent variables

$\epsilon$ =Error term

The regression results of transformational leadership, transactional leadership and laissez-faire leadership regressed against organizational commitment are presented in Table 4.40.

**Table 4.40: Regression coefficients of independent variables on organizational commitment**

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<b>Model</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>Beta</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>Sig</b>	<b>VIF</b>
Constant	1.046		3.863	0.000	
Transformational leadership	0.320	0.390	4.946	0.000	2.195
Transactional leadership	0.219	0.170	2.489	0.013	1.653
Laissez-faire leadership	0.054	0.082	1.283	0.201	1.442

---

Under the model  $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \epsilon$ , the model was found to be valid ( $F(3,272) = 27.145$ ,  $p\text{-value} < 0.001$ ) as indicated in Table 4.41. The fitted model equation is:  $Y = 0.390X_1 + 0.170X_2 + 0.082X_3$  with transformational leadership, transactional leadership and laissez-faire leadership explaining 23.0% of the variation in organizational commitment.

**Table 4.41: Regression results of independent variables on organizational commitment**

Model	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Regression	22.502	3	7.501	27.145	.000 <sup>a</sup>
Residual	75.157	272	.276		
Total	97.659	275			
R= 0.480    R <sup>2</sup> =0.230    ΔR <sup>2</sup> =0.222					

The model equation shows that standardized organizational commitment (OC) will increase by 0.390 units with one unit increase in standardized transformational leadership style keeping the other independent variables constant. Standardized OC will increase by 0.170 units with an increase of one unit in standardized transactional leadership, keeping the other independent variables constant. Standardized OC will increase by 0.082 units with an increase of one unit in standardized laissez-faire leadership, keeping the other independent variables constant.

The model indicates that integrative leadership style significantly explains variation in organizational commitment (Table 4.41). It is concluded that integrative leadership style has a significant effect on organizational commitment. The high

residual sum of squares (75.157) indicates that the model does not explain a lot of the variation in the dependent variable as there are other factors that account for a higher proportion of the variation in the dependent variable.

For the sake of determining the significance of the variables, the standardized beta coefficients are used. To test the hypotheses, the t-statistic and its significance level are used. Results from Table 4.40 show the coefficients for transformational leadership as  $\beta_1 = 0.390$ ,  $t = 4.946$ ,  $p\text{-value} < 0.001$ . It is concluded that transformational leadership style has a significant effect on organizational commitment. The findings are in agreement with the independent results (Table 4.18). Bass and Riggio (2006) observed that transformational leadership behaviors show the strongest positive effects on followers' attitudes and their commitment to the leader and the organization. According to Robbins and Coulter (2007), transformational leadership is strongly correlated with lower turnover rates and higher levels of productivity, employee satisfaction, creativity and goal attainment and follower well-being.

These findings are in agreement with those of previous studies. Walumbwa *et al.* (2005) in their study showed that transformational leadership has a strong and positive effect on organizational commitment. Transformational leadership behaviors were found to have significant impact on teacher commitment (Amoroso, 2002). Leithwood *et al.* (2004) also reported that transformational leadership had significant direct and indirect effects on teachers' commitment to change (Ling & Ling, 2012). Transformational leadership has a positive influence on organizational commitment and employees' performance (Thamrin, 2012).

In an Indonesian study, Atmojo (2012) found that transformational leadership significantly influences employee organization commitment at PTPN V Riau. Emery and Barker (2007) investigated the effect of transactional and transformational leadership styles in the U.S. on the organizational commitment of customer contact personnel in banking and food store organizations. Their findings showed that employees managed under a transformational style of leadership will have a higher

organizational commitment. Rai and Sinha (2000) surmised that transformational leadership is considered as one of the most influencing factor which has a positive effect on employee commitment in Indian banks' employees. Mert *et al.* (2010) states that transformational leadership style positively affects organizational commitment of followers.

This may be expected as transformational leaders motivate subordinates to accomplish more by focusing on their values and provide guidelines for aligning their values with the values of the organization (Givens, 2008). Such leaders encourage followers to go beyond self-interest for the good of the team or the organization. Besides, the leader encourages followers to think critically and seek new ways to approach their jobs, resulting in intellectual stimulation (Bass *et al.*, 1994). Due to this, there is an increase in their level of performance, satisfaction, and commitment to the goals of their organization (Podsakoff *et al.*, 1996).

Ismail and Yusuf (2009) observe that managers exercising transformational leadership style focus on the development of the value system of employees, their motivational level and moralities with the development of their skills. The transformational leader motivates by making followers more aware of the importance of task outcomes, inducing them to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the organization or team and activating their higher-order needs. In addition, transformational leaders adopt an attitude that supports employees, provide them a vision, cultivate hope, encourage them to think innovatively, individualized consideration and broaden the communication. Bass (1990) summed up transformational leadership as leader behaviors that stimulate and inspire followers to achieve extraordinary outcomes by raising the level of motivation and morality in both themselves and their followers. Bushra *et al.* (2011) surmised that transformational leadership features boost up organizational strengths and increase the level of job satisfaction and organizational commitment in the workforce. Transformational leadership style practices develop a sense of ownership in employees. They feel responsible for their actions; develop confidence in their

abilities, sense of self-identity and sense of belongingness to their work and organization. This impacts on organizational commitment.

Bass and Riggio (2006) gave a summary of how transformational leadership affects organizational commitment by looking at each component of transformational leadership. Leaders use idealized influence to increase commitment by encouraging followers to develop a sense of identification with and an adherence to the goals, interests and values of the leader. Inspirational motivation is used by leaders to build emotional commitment to a mission or goal by moving followers to consider the moral values involved in their duties as members of the organization or profession. Leaders increase commitment through intellectual stimulation by encouraging and empowering followers to be innovative. Individualized consideration increases commitment at all levels when leaders provide their followers with a sense of increased competence to carry out directives and meeting their followers' personal and career needs.

Results in Table 4.40 show the coefficients for transactional leadership as  $\beta_2 = 0.170$ ,  $t = 2.489$ ,  $p\text{-value} = 0.013$ . Based on this, it is concluded that transactional leadership style has a significant effect on organizational commitment. The findings are in agreement with the independent results (Table 4.26). However, the beta weights show that transformational leadership is stronger than transactional leadership. Under transactional leadership, there is an understanding of employee needs, providing for those needs to reward employee contributions and hard work and committing to giving those rewards after employees complete assigned work duties (Bass & Avolio, 1990). The transactional leader helps followers gain the skills and experience to efficiently and effectively do what is required of them in a particular task and in their defined follower role. This is likely to impact greatly on organizational commitment.

In addition, a transactional leader helps followers accomplish tasks by modeling attitudes and behaviors appropriate to the efficient and effective implementation of the task at hand. Further, transactional leaders focus their energies on task

completion and compliance and rely on organizational rewards and punishments to influence employee performance (Tracey & Hinkin, 1998; Trott & Windsor, 1999). Transactional leaders motivate subordinates by means of predicting the future and depicting the vision. Hafeez *et al.* (2012) observes that a transactional leader finds “reward and punishment” the best source of motivation for the followers.

Results further show the coefficients for laissez-faire leadership as  $\beta_3=0.082$ ,  $t=1.283$ ,  $p\text{-value}=0.201$ . It is concluded that there is no significant effect of laissez-faire leadership style on organizational commitment. The findings contrast with the independent results which showed laissez-faire leadership has a significant effect on organizational commitment (Table 4.34).

This can be explained by the fact laissez-faire leadership style is a hands-off approach to leadership hence making the employees to lack commitment (Northouse, 2004). It is marked by a general failure to take responsibility for managing and leaders avoid involvement into making decisions and abdicate responsibility and avoid using their authority. The laissez-faire leader is one who believes in freedom of choice for the employees hence leaving them alone so that they can do as they want. The laissez-faire leader makes no attempt to motivate others or to recognize and satisfy individual needs. This is likely to impact negatively on organizational commitment. In addition to this, the laissez-faire leader only provides basic but minimal information and resources. There is virtually no participation, involvement or communication within the workforce. Understanding of job requirements, policies and procedures are generally exchanged from employee to employee. Consequently, many processes are out of control. No direction is given and the laissez-faire leader functions in a crisis or reaction mode. If there are goals and objectives, employee agreement or commitment is just assumed. Even if goals and objectives are shared, rarely is there a defined plan to accomplish them (Goodnight, 2004). Plunkett (1992) surmised that the disadvantage of this leadership style is that subordinates may become insecure without continual reassurance and contact with their leader.



The VIF values show that there was no multicollinearity between the variables as the values were below 10. As such the variables could not affect one another negatively.

### **The joint effect of study variables on affective commitment**

The regression results of transformational leadership, transactional leadership and laissez-faire leadership regressed against affective commitment are presented in Table 4.42.

**Table 4.42: Regression coefficients of integrative leadership on affective commitment**

<b>Model</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>Beta</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>Sig</b>	<b>VIF</b>
Constant	0.974		2.947	0.003	
Transformational leadership	0.649	0.595	8.224	0.000	2.195
Transactional leadership	0.014	0.008	0.127	0.899	1.653
Laissez-faire leadership	0.014	0.016	0.268	0.789	1.442

The model to be tested was  $Y_1 = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \epsilon$ . The model was found to be valid ( $F(3,272) = 48.989$ ,  $p\text{-value} < 0.001$ ) as shown in Table 4.43. The fitted model equation is  $Y_1 = 0.595X_1 + 0.008X_2 + 0.016X_3$  with transformational leadership, transactional leadership and laissez-faire leadership explaining 35.1% of the variation in affective commitment.

**Table 4.43: Regression results of integrative leadership on affective commitment**

<b>Model</b>	<b>Sum of squares</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Mean square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Regression	60.521	3	20.174	48.989	.000 <sup>a</sup>
Residual	112.010	272	.412		
Total	172.530	275			

R=0.592    R<sup>2</sup>=0.351     $\Delta R^2=0.344$

The model equation shows that standardized affective commitment (AC) will increase by 0.595 units with one unit increase in standardized transformational leadership style keeping the other independent variables constant. Standardized AC will increase by 0.008 units with an increase of one unit in standardized transactional leadership, keeping the other independent variables constant. Standardized AC will increase by 0.016 units with an increase of one unit in standardized laissez-faire leadership, keeping the other independent variables constant.

The model indicates that integrative leadership style significantly explains variation in affective commitment (Table 4.43). It is concluded that integrative leadership style has a significant effect on affective commitment. The high residual sum of squares (112.010) indicates that the model does not explain a lot of the variation in the dependent variable as there are other factors that account for a higher proportion of the variation in the dependent variable.

Results from Table 4.42 show the coefficients for transformational leadership as  $\beta_1=0.595$ ,  $t=8.224$ ,  $p\text{-value} < 0.001$ . Based on this, it is concluded that transformational

leadership has a significant effect on affective commitment. These findings are in agreement with the independent results (Table 4.20).

Results show the coefficients for transactional leadership as  $\beta_2= 0.008$ ,  $t=0.127$ ,  $p\text{-value}=0.899$ . It is concluded that there is no significant effect of transactional leadership style on affective commitment. The findings are in contrast with the independent results that show transactional leadership style has a significant effect on affective commitment (Table 4.28). Results further show the coefficients for laissez-faire leadership as  $\beta_3=0.016$ ,  $t=0.268$ ,  $p\text{-value}=0.789$ . It is concluded that there is no significant effect of laissez-faire leadership style on affective commitment. The findings are in contrast with the independent results that show laissez-faire leadership style has a significant effect on affective commitment (Table 4.36).

Affective commitment deals with the attachment of an employee to his organization and the organizational goals (O'Reily & Chatman, 1986). Employees with strong affective commitment keep working for the organization voluntarily and eagerly not only because they need the occupation, but because they want to work (Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993). Affective commitment relies on an emotional attachment to the organization and it is likely that the affectively attached employee will be motivated to make a greater contribution to shape the organization's vision (Aghashahi *et al.*, 2013). The individual and the organization share similar values and therefore the interaction between them is positive.

Results show that it is only transformational leadership which has a significant effect on affective commitment. Transformational leadership is characterized by vision and a sense of mission and the leaders get followers involved in envisioning the future and they promote positive expectations about what needs to be done and demonstrate commitment to the shared vision (Bass & Riggio, 2006). This leads to attachment to the organization which is a possible explanation for the significant effect on effective commitment. Transactional and laissez-faire leadership are not concerned with attachment to the organization. Consequently, the two did not have a significant effect on affective commitment.

### The joint effect of study variables on continuance commitment

The regression results of transformational leadership, transactional leadership and laissez-faire leadership regressed against continuance commitment are presented in Table 4.44.

**Table 4.44: Regression coefficients of integrative leadership on continuance commitment**

Model	B	Beta	t	Sig.	VIF
Constant	1.053		3.576	0.000	
Transformational leadership	0.063	0.075	0.890	0.374	2.195
Transactional leadership	0.400	0.305	4.178	0.000	1.653
Laissez-faire leadership	0.067	0.100	1.464	0.144	1.442

Under the model  $Y_2 = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \varepsilon$ , the model was found to be valid ( $F(3,272) = 12.432$ ,  $p\text{-value} < 0.001$ ) as shown in Table 4.45. The fitted model is  $Y_2 = 0.075X_1 + 0.305X_2 + 0.100X_3$  with transformational leadership, transactional leadership and laissez-faire leadership explaining 12.1% of the variation in continuance commitment.

**Table 4.45: Regression results of integrative leadership on continuance commitment**

<b>Model</b>	<b>Sum of squares</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Mean square</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
Regression	12.190	3	4.063	12.432	.000 <sup>a</sup>
Residual	88.909	272	.327		
Total	101.099	275			

R=0.347    R<sup>2</sup>=0.121    ΔR<sup>2</sup>=0.111

a. Predictors: (Constant), X<sub>3</sub>, X<sub>2</sub>, X<sub>1</sub>

b. Dependent Variable: Y<sub>2</sub>

The model equation shows that standardized continuance commitment (CC) will increase by 0.075 units with one unit increase in standardized transformational leadership style keeping the other variables constant. Standardized CC will increase by 0.305 units with an increase of one unit in standardized transactional leadership, keeping the other variables constant. Standardized CC will increase by 0.100 units with an increase of one unit in standardized laissez-faire leadership, keeping the other variables constant.

The model indicates that integrative leadership style significantly explains variation in continuance commitment (Table 4.45). So it is concluded that integrative leadership has a significant effect on continuance commitment. The high residual sum of squares (88.909) indicates that the model does not explain a lot of the variation in the dependent variable as there are other factors that account for a higher proportion of the variation in the dependent variable.

Results from Table 4.44 show the coefficients for transformational leadership as  $\beta_1 = 0.075$ ,  $t = 0.890$ ,  $p\text{-value} = 0.374$ . Based on this, it is concluded that there is no significant effect of transformational leadership on continuance commitment. The findings are in contrast with the independent results that show transformational leadership style has a significant effect on continuance commitment (Table 4.22). Results show the coefficients for transactional leadership as  $\beta_2 = 0.305$ ,  $t = 4.178$ ,  $p\text{-value} < 0.001$ . It is concluded that transactional leadership style has a significant effect of on continuance commitment. These findings are in agreement with the independent results (Table 4.30). The beta weights show that transactional leadership is stronger than transformational leadership.

Results further show the coefficients for laissez-faire leadership as  $\beta_3 = 0.100$ ,  $t = 1.464$ ,  $p\text{-value} = 0.144$ . It is concluded that there is no significant effect of laissez-faire leadership style on continuance commitment. These findings are in agreement with the independent results. Continuance commitment deals with the commitment to pursue working in an organization because of the inter-employee relations and other non-transferable investments like retirement benefits (Reichers, 1985). An employee with continuance commitment finds it difficult to give up his organization due to the fear of the unknown 'opportunity cost' of leaving the organization or having few or no alternatives. Transformational leadership is concerned with the development of the employees by coaching and mentoring, provides followers with new challenging ideas, is characterized by a sense of mission and vision which are not the attributes of continuance commitment. This possibly explains why transformational leadership has no significant effect on continuance. Similarly, laissez-faire which is the absence of leadership and has no exchange relationship between the leader and the followers showed no significant relationship. Transactional leadership is concerned with the benefits both to the organization and the employees which is major a component of continuance commitment. This explains the reason for the significant effect of transactional leadership on continuance commitment.

### The joint effect of study variables on normative commitment

The regression results of transformational leadership, transactional leadership and laissez-faire leadership regressed against normative commitment are presented in Table 4.46.

**Table 4.46: Regression coefficients of integrative leadership on normative commitment**

Model	B	Beta	t	Sig	VIF
Constant	1.160		3.256	0.001	
Transformational leadership	0.314	0.309	3.691	0.000	2.195
Transactional leadership	0.181	0.113	1.560	0.120	1.653
Laissez-faire leadership	0.064	0.079	1.161	0.247	1.442

Under the model  $Y_3 = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \varepsilon$ , the model was found to be valid ( $F(3,272) = 13.478$ ,  $p\text{-value} < 0.001$ ) as shown in Table 4.47. The fitted model equation is  $Y_3 = 0.309X_1 + 0.113X_2 + 0.079X_3$  with transformational leadership, transactional leadership and laissez-faire leadership explaining 12.9% of the variation in normative commitment (Table 4.47).

**Table 4.47: Regression results of integrative leadership on normative commitment**

Model	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Regression	19.357	3	6.452	13.478	.000 <sup>a</sup>
Residual	130.218	272	.479		
Total	149.575	275			
R=0.360    R <sup>2</sup> =0.129    ΔR <sup>2</sup> =0.120					

a. Predictors: (Constant), X<sub>3</sub>, X<sub>2</sub>, X<sub>1</sub>

b. Dependent Variable: Y<sub>3</sub>

The model equation shows that standardized normative commitment (NC) will increase by 0.309 units with one unit increase in standardized transformational leadership style keeping the other variables constant. Standardized NC will increase by 0.113 units with an increase of one unit in standardized transactional leadership, keeping the independent variables constant. Standardized NC will increase by 0.079 units with an increase of one unit in standardized laissez-faire leadership, keeping the other variables constant. The model indicates that integrative leadership style significantly explains variation in normative commitment (Table 4.47). So it is concluded that integrative leadership style has a significant effect on normative commitment. The high residual sum of squares (130.218) indicates that the model does not explain a lot of the variation in the dependent variable as there are other factors that account for a higher proportion of the variation in the dependent variable.

Results from Table 4.46 show the coefficients for transformational leadership as  $\beta_1=0.309$ ,  $t=3.691$ ,  $p\text{-value} < 0.001$ . Based on this, it is concluded that transformational



leadership has a significant effect on normative commitment. These findings are in agreement with the independent results (Table 4.24). Results show the coefficients for transactional leadership as  $\beta_2 = 0.113$ ,  $t = 1.560$ ,  $p\text{-value} = 0.120$ . It is concluded that there is no significant effect of transactional leadership style on normative commitment. The findings are in contrast with the independent results that show transactional leadership style has a significant effect on normative commitment (Table 4.32). The beta weights show that transformational leadership is stronger than transactional leadership. Results further show the coefficients for laissez-faire leadership as  $\beta_3 = 0.079$ ,  $t = 1.161$ ,  $p\text{-value} = 0.247$ . It is concluded that there is no significant effect of laissez-faire leadership style on normative commitment. These findings are in agreement with the independent results.

Normative commitment refers to a sort of an obligation on the part of an employee, due to which he is willing to stay (or continue working) in an organization (Alam & Ramay, 2011). It is an employee's moral commitment that manifests itself when an organization provides moral and financial support for the employee's development. Employees high in normative commitment feel that they must maintain membership in the organization, because that is the "right and moral" thing to do (Meyer & Allen, 1991). It is not surprising that only transformational leadership has a significant effect on normative commitment. Transformational leadership focuses on the development of the followers and their needs which is a major component of normative commitment. Transactional leadership is transactional in nature. It is a mutual exchange process where rewards and punishments are given for accomplished/non accomplished tasks. Transactional leadership is not concerned with the development of the employees hence a possible explanation why it has no significant effect on normative commitment. Laissez-faire leadership has no significant effect because of its hands-off approach which has nothing to do with the moral commitment of an employee.

#### 4.5.2 Effect of the independent and moderator variables on organizational commitment

The model to be tested was:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 Z + \varepsilon$$

Where:

Y= Organizational commitment

X<sub>1</sub>= Transformational leadership

X<sub>2</sub>= Transactional leadership

X<sub>3</sub>= Laissez-faire leadership

Z= Employee participation

$\beta_0$  is the level of organizational commitment in the absence of integrative leadership style and employee participation

$\beta_1 - \beta_3$  = Intercepts for the independent variables

$\beta_4$  is the intercept for the moderator

$\varepsilon$ =Error term

The regression results of transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership and employee participation regressed against organizational commitment are presented in Table 4.48.

**Table 4.48: Regression coefficients of integrative leadership on organizational commitment**

<b>Model</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>Beta</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>Sig</b>	<b>VIF</b>
Constant	1.117		4.178	0.000	
Transformational leadership	0.237	0.295	3.502	0.001	2.510
Transactional leadership	0.249	0.196	2.804	0.005	1.719
Laissez-faire leadership	0.067	0.103	1.597	0.112	1.467
Employee participation	0.276	0.215	3.624	0.000	1.240

The model was found to be valid ( $F(4,258)=23.864, p\text{-value}<0.001$ ) as shown in Table 4.49. The fitted model equation is  $Y=0.295X_1+0.196X_2+0.103X_3+0.215Z$  with the predictors explaining 27.0% of the variation in organizational commitment.

**Table 4.49: Regression results of integrative leadership on organizational commitment**

Model	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Regression	24.925	4	6.231	23.864	.000 <sup>a</sup>
Residual	67.367	258	.261		
Total	92.292	262			

R=0.520    R<sup>2</sup>=0.270    ΔR<sup>2</sup>=0.259

a. Predictors: (Constant), Z, X<sub>2</sub>, X<sub>3</sub>, X<sub>1</sub>

b. Dependent Variable: Y

The model equation shows that standardized organizational commitment (OC) will increase by 0.295 units with one unit increase in standardized transformational leadership style keeping the other variables constant. Standardized OC will increase by 0.196 units with an increase of one unit in standardized transactional leadership, keeping the other variables constant. Standardized OC will increase by 0.103 units with an increase of one unit in standardized laissez-faire leadership, keeping the other variables constant. Standardized OC will increase by 0.215 units with an increase of one unit in standardized employee participation, keeping the other variables constant. The model indicates that transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership and employee participation are significantly explaining the variation in the dependent variable (organizational commitment). The high residual sum of squares (67.367) indicates that the model does not explain a lot of the variation in the dependent variable as there are other factors that account for a higher proportion of the variation in the dependent variable.

Results from Table 4.48 show the coefficients for transformational leadership as  $\beta_1=0.295$ ,  $t=3.502$ ,  $p\text{-value}=0.001$ . This shows transformational leadership has a significant effect on organizational commitment. Results also show the coefficients for transactional leadership as  $\beta_1=0.196$ ,  $t=2.804$ ,  $p\text{-value}=0.005$ . This indicates transactional leadership has a significant effect on organizational commitment. Results from Table 4.48 show the coefficients for laissez-faire leadership as  $\beta_1=0.103$ ,  $t=1.597$ ,  $p\text{-value}=0.112$ . This indicates laissez-faire leadership has no significant effect on organizational commitment. The coefficients of employee participation are  $\beta_1=0.215$ ,  $t=3.624$ ,  $p\text{-value}<0.001$ . This shows employee participation has a significant effect on organizational commitment.

#### **4.5.3 The moderating effect of employee participation on the relationship between integrative leadership style and organizational commitment**

To test the main effect and see if employee participation moderates the relationship between integrative leadership style and organizational commitment, all the variables were entered in stepwise procedure of SPSS.

The general model used was:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1X_1 + \beta_2X_2 + \beta_3X_3 + \beta_zZ + \beta_{1z}X_1Z + \beta_{2z}X_2Z + \beta_{3z}X_3Z + \varepsilon$$

Where:

Y= Organizational commitment

X<sub>1</sub>= Transformational leadership

X<sub>2</sub>= Transactional leadership

X<sub>3</sub>= Laissez-faire leadership

Z= Employee participation

$\beta_0$  is the level of organizational commitment in the absence of integrative leadership style, employee participation and the interaction term

$\beta_1 - \beta_3 =$  Intercepts for the independent variables

$\beta_z$  is the intercept for the moderator

$\varepsilon =$  Error term

The stepwise procedure picked three predictors, which were transformational leadership ( $X_1$ ), the interaction term ( $X_2Z$ ) and transactional leadership ( $X_2$ ) as shown in Table 4.50. The excluded variables are detailed in Appendix B-Table 4.60. The best model with the highest number of predictors is reported in Table 4.50.

**Table 4.50: Moderated multiple regression analysis of employee participation as a predictor of organizational commitment**

Model	B	Beta	t	Sig	VIF
Constant	1.414		6.229	0.000	
Transformational leadership	0.187	0.232	3.182	0.002	1.873
Interaction term	0.081	0.212	3.549	0.000	1.251
Transactional leadership	0.261	0.205	3.049	0.003	1.596

Using standardized beta coefficient the best model equation was found to be:

$$Y = 0.232X_1 + 0.212X_2Z + 0.205X_2$$

Model three was found to be valid ( $F(3,259) = 30.970$ ,  $p\text{-value} < 0.001$ ) as shown in Table 4.51. Based on beta weight, transformational leadership was the most

significant in the order of influence followed by the interaction term ( $X_2Z$ ) while the third was transactional leadership. When transactional leadership combines with employee participation ( $Z$ ), there is more influence on organizational commitment than transactional leadership alone. Employee participation only moderates the relationship between transactional leadership and organizational commitment.

**Table 4.51: Moderated regression results on organizational commitment**

Model	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Regression	18.840	1	18.840	66.945	.000 <sup>a</sup>
Residual	73.452	261	.281		
Total	92.292	262			
Regression	21.931	2	10.966	40.520	.000 <sup>b</sup>
Residual	70.361	260	.271		
Total	92.292	262			
Regression	24.366	3	8.122	30.970	.000 <sup>c</sup>
Residual	67.926	259	.262		
Total	92.292	262			
$R=0.452^a$	$0.487^b$	$0.514^c$			
$R^2=0.204$	0.238	0.264			
$\Delta R^2=0.201$	0.232	0.255			

a. Predictors: (Constant),  $X_1$

b. Predictors: (Constant),  $X_1$ ,  $X_2Z$

c. Predictors: (Constant),  $X_1$ ,  $X_2Z$ ,  $X_2$

d. Dependent Variable: Y

This equation shows that standardized organization commitment (OC) will increase by 0.232 units with one unit increase in standardized transformational leadership style keeping the other variables constant. Standardized OC will increase by 0.212 units with an increase of one unit in the interaction term, keeping the other variables constant. Standardized OC will increase by 0.205 units with an increase of one unit in standardized transactional leadership, keeping the other variables constant.

Results from Table 4.50 show the coefficients for  $X_2Z$  (interaction term) as  $\beta = 0.212$ ,  $t = 3.549$ ,  $p\text{-value} < 0.001$ . Based on this, hypothesis  $H_{04}$ : there is no moderating effect of employee participation on the relationship between integrative leadership style and organizational commitment is rejected and conclude that employee participation has a moderating effect on the relationship between integrative leadership style and organizational commitment.

The resultant regression model three is reflecting significant moderating effects of employee participation as shown by the values of change in R (Table 4.51). The predictors are explaining 26.4 % of the variation in organizational commitment. The change in  $R^2$  ( $R^2 = 0.060$ ) has associated F and p values ( $F(3,259) = 30.970$ ,  $p\text{-value} < 0.001$ ). The F ratio value indicates that the moderator is significantly moderating the relationship between interactive leadership style and organizational commitment. The high residual sum of squares (67.926) indicates that the model does not explain a lot of the variation in the dependent variable as there are other factors that account for a higher proportion of the variation in the dependent variable. The low VIF values (less than 10) show there was no multicollinearity.

### **The moderating effect of employee participation on the relationship between integrative leadership style and affective commitment**

The best model with the highest number of predictors is reported in Table 4.52.



**Table 4.52: Moderated multiple regression analysis of employee participation as a predictor of affective commitment**

Model	B	Beta	t	Sig.	VIF
Constant	1.317		6.614	0.000	
Transformational leadership	0.538	0.502	9.244	0.000	1.249
Interaction term	0.103	0.204	3.750	0.000	1.249

Using standardized beta coefficient the best model was:

$$Y_1 = 0.502X_1 + 0.204X_2Z$$

Model two was found to be valid ( $F(2,260) = 81.467$ ,  $p\text{-value} < 0.001$ ) as shown in Table 4.53. Based on beta weight, transformational leadership was the most significant in the order of influence followed by the interaction term ( $X_2Z$ ). Employee participation only moderates the relationship between transactional leadership and affective commitment. This equation shows that standardized affective commitment (AC) will increase by 0.502 units with one unit increase in standardized transformational leadership style keeping the interaction term constant. Standardized AC will increase by 0.204 units with an increase of one unit in the interaction term, keeping transformational leadership constant.

The resultant regression model two is reflecting significant moderating effects of employee participation as shown by the values of change in R (Table 4.53). The predictors are explaining 38.5% of the variation in affective commitment. The change in  $R^2$  ( $R^2 = .033$ ) has associated F and p values ( $F(2,260) = 81.467$ ,  $p\text{-value} < 0.001$ ). The F ratio value indicates that the moderator is significantly moderating the relationship between integrative leadership style and affective commitment.

**Table 4.53: Moderated regression results on affective commitment**

Model	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Regression	57.696	1	57.696	141.779	.000 <sup>a</sup>
Residual	106.211	261	.407		
Total	163.907	262			
Regression	63.144	2	31.572	81.467	.000 <sup>b</sup>
Residual	100.762	260	.388		
Total	163.907	262			
R=0.593 <sup>a</sup>	0.621 <sup>b</sup>				
R <sup>2</sup> =0.352	0.385				
$\Delta R^2=0.350$	0.381				

a. Predictors: (Constant), X<sub>1</sub>

b. Predictors: (Constant), X<sub>1</sub>, X<sub>2</sub>Z

c. Dependent Variable: Y<sub>1</sub>

The high residual sum of squares (100.762) indicates that the model does not explain a lot of the variation in the dependent variable as there are other factors that account for a higher proportion of the variation in the dependent variable. Results from Table 4.52 show the coefficients for X<sub>2</sub>Z (interaction term) as  $\beta= 0.204$ ,  $t=3.750$ ,  $p\text{-value} < 0.001$ . Based on this, hypothesis H<sub>04a</sub>: there is no moderating effect of employee participation on the relationship between integrative leadership style and affective commitment is rejected and conclude that employee participation has a moderating effect on the relationship between integrative leadership style and affective commitment.

**The moderating effect of employee participation on the relationship between integrative leadership style and continuance commitment**

The best model with the highest number of predictors is reported in Table 4.54.

**Table 4.54: Moderated multiple regression analysis of employee participation as a predictor of continuance commitment**

<b>Model</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>Beta</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>	<b>VIF</b>
Constant	1.291		5.190	0.000	
Transactional leadership	.441	.336	5.772	0.000	1.000

Since the interaction term was not picked, the null hypothesis is not rejected and conclude that the interaction between employee participation and integrative leadership has no significant influence on continuance commitment. This implies that the moderation effect is not significant.

**The moderating effect of employee participation on the relationship between integrative leadership style and normative commitment**

The best model with the highest number of predictors is reported in Table 4.55.

**Table 4.55: Moderated multiple regression analysis of employee participation as a predictor of normative commitment**

<b>Model</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>Beta</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>Sig.</b>	<b>VIF</b>
Constant	1.599		5.414	0.000	
Transformational leadership	0.140	0.142	1.832	0.068	1.873
Interaction term	0.108	0.231	3.659	0.000	1.251
Transactional leadership	0.247	0.158	2.211	0.028	1.596

Using standardized beta coefficient, the best model equation was:

$$Y_3=0.142X_1+0.231X_2Z+0.158X_2$$

The model was found to be valid ( $F(3,259) = 18.045$ ,  $p\text{-value} < 0.001$ ) as shown in Table 4.56. Based on beta weight, the interaction term ( $X_2Z$ ) was the most significant in the order of influence followed by transactional leadership while the third was transformational leadership. When transactional leadership combines with employee participation ( $Z$ ), there is more influence on normative commitment than transactional leadership alone. Employee participation only moderates the relationship between transactional leadership and normative commitment.

This equation shows that standardized normative commitment (NC) will increase by 0.142 units with one unit increase in standardized transformational leadership style keeping the other variables constant. Standardized NC will increase by 0.231 units with an increase of one unit in the interaction term, keeping the other variables constant. Standardized NC will increase by 0.158 units with an increase of one unit in standardized transactional leadership, keeping the other variables constant.

**Table 4.56: Moderated regression results of transformational, transactional and interaction term on normative commitment**

Model	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Regression	16.186	1	16.186	34.396	.000 <sup>a</sup>
Residual	122.820	261	.471		
Total	139.006	262			
Regression	21.861	2	10.930	24.260	.000 <sup>b</sup>
Residual	117.145	260	.451		
Total	139.006	262			
Regression	24.031	3	8.010	18.045	.000 <sup>c</sup>
Residual	114.974	259	.444		
Total	139.006	262			
R=0.341 <sup>a</sup>	0.397 <sup>b</sup>	0.416 <sup>c</sup>			
R <sup>2</sup> =0.116	0.157	0.173			
$\Delta R^2=0.113$	0.151	0.163			

a. Predictors: (Constant), X<sub>1</sub>

b. Predictors: (Constant), X<sub>1</sub>, X<sub>2</sub>Z

c. Predictors: (Constant), X<sub>1</sub>, X<sub>2</sub>Z, X<sub>2</sub>

d. Dependent Variable: Y<sub>3</sub>

The resultant regression model three is reflecting significant moderating effects of employee participation as shown by the values of change in R<sup>2</sup> (Table 4.56). The predictors are explaining 17.3% of the variation in normative commitment. The change in R<sup>2</sup> (R<sup>2</sup>=0.057) has associated F and p values (F(3,259) = 18.045, p-value <0 .001). The F ratio value indicates that the moderator is significantly moderating

the relationship between integrative leadership style and normative commitment. The high residual sum of squares (114.974) indicates that the model does not explain a lot of the variation in the dependent variable implying that there are other factors that account for a higher proportion of the variation in the dependent variable.

Results from Table 4.55 show the coefficients for  $X_2Z$  (interaction term) as  $\beta = 0.231$ ,  $t = 3.659$ ,  $p\text{-value} < 0.001$ . Based on this, hypothesis  $H_{04c}$ : there is no moderating effect of employee participation on the relationship between integrative leadership style and normative commitment is rejected and conclude that employee participation has a moderating effect on the relationship between integrative leadership style and normative commitment.

#### **4.5.4 The moderating effect of employee participation on the relationship between independent leadership styles and organizational commitment**

Analysis was also carried out to establish the moderating effect of employee participation on the relationship between each of the three integrative leadership styles independently and organizational commitment and its three dimensions. The leadership styles are transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership. The findings showed that there was no moderating effect of employee participation on the relationship between each of the leadership styles and organizational commitment and its dimensions. This contrasts with the joint findings which showed that employee participation has a moderating effect.

#### **4.6 Qualitative responses**

Qualitative items elicited the following responses.

#### 4.6.1 Effects of employee participation methods on organizational commitment

The responses of the respondents on the effects of employee participation methods on organizational commitment are shown in Table 4.57.

**Table 4.57: Effect of employee participation methods on organizational commitment**

	Frequency	%	Cumulative percent
Strongly disagree	14	5.3	5.3
Disagree	40	15.3	20.6
Neutral	50	19.1	39.7
Agree	124	47.3	87.0
Strongly agree	34	13.0	100.0

60.3% of the respondents reported that employee participation schemes in use in their institutions affect their organizational commitment. This is in agreement with quantitative findings which showed that employee participation explains 32.49% of the variation in organizational commitment. The employee participation schemes in frequent use are shown in Table 4.58.

**Table 4.58: Employee participation schemes frequently used in technical institutions**

	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Cumulative percent</b>
Departmental/staff meetings	1	1.2	1.2
Employee suggestion plans	23	27.0	28.2
Attitude surveys	12	14.1	42.3
Trade union membership	47	55.3	97.6
Quality circles	2	2.4	100.0

The most widely used employee participation scheme is trade union membership. This is expected as the teaching staff are either members of KNUT or KUPPET. Trade union membership is open as it is a constitutional right. So members are free to join a trade union of their choice. Robinson and Wilson (2006) found that only indirect forms of participation such as union representation offer a real voice for employees and consequently have productivity enhancing effects. KNUT and KUPPET have been very vibrant in the last few years. The two have been agitating for better terms and conditions for their members. The two unions have been calling upon their members to go on strike as way of coercing the government to look into the demands of the teachers.

Union membership is followed by employee suggestion plans. This shows in these institutions employees have an opportunity to make suggestions to the management. What may not be clear is whether these plans are implemented or not or it is a mere public relations exercise. Other schemes include attitude surveys, holding departmental/staff meetings, delegation of duties, external team building activities,



having open forums, open door policy, use of memos/circulars and formation of staff welfare associations and formation of working committees to undertake specific tasks. Similar findings have been reported in an earlier study. Gichara (2013) in his study on TTIs in Nairobi County found out that the majority of the TTIs have a specific employee involvement system with 57% of the TTIs allowing lecturers' direct involvement in management affairs of their institutions. The study also established that lecturers were directly involved through committees, task forces and suggestion schemes.

Employee participation (EP) is related to organizational commitment. It is seen as a means of increasing performance through encouraging greater commitment on the part of the workers. EP tends to increase employees' commitment and acceptance of decisions through a sense of "ownership" (having been involved in decision-making). Supporters of participation argue that it strengthens workers commitment to the firm, reduces the need for costly monitoring, and increases work effort and hence efficiency and productivity (Doucouliagos, 1995). Singh (2009) and Kingir and Mesci (2010) rightly observe that employees must be involved if they are to understand the need for creativity and if they are to be committed to changing their behaviour at work, in new and improved ways.

#### **4.6.2 Suggestions for improving employee participation**

The suggestions for improving employee participation are presented in Table 4.59.

#### 4.59: Suggestions for improving employee participation

Suggestion	Frequency	Percent
Accepting challenges and opinions	6	2.9
Allow employees share their views	8	3.9
Attitude surveys	11	5.4
Implementing resolutions made in meetings	47	23.0
Motivating employees	15	7.4
Change of governance structures BOG/PTA	1	0.5
Delegation of duties	3	1.5
Holding regular departmental/staff meetings	25	12.3
Equal opportunities for all	3	1.5
Having employees' suggestion plans	31	15.2
Improved communication	6	2.9
Team building activities	10	4.9
Regular consultation	5	2.5
Open forum/seminars for discussions	2	1.0
Flatter structure of management	1	0.5
Timely payment	2	1.0
Involvement in decision making	13	6.4
Management review meetings	1	0.5
Recognition of employees' efforts	2	1.0
Having working committees/teams	2	1.0
Formation of staff welfare association	1	0.5
Others	9	4.4

Qualitative findings showed that 23% of the teaching staff wanted resolutions passed in meetings implemented as a way of improving employee participation. It looked evident that when resolutions are passed in staff meetings, some are never implemented. This was affecting the morale of the employees. Having employee

suggestion plans was underscored. This implied that the existing employee suggestion plans were not effective. The use of suggestion boxes among others may greatly help improve the situation. According to Veluri (2010) when employees feel their suggestions are accepted, they readily accept decisions. Holding of regular departmental and staff meetings was reported as a likely panacea. The increase in frequency of these meetings would bring the management and the teaching staff together. Implementation of the outcome of such meetings would greatly boost employee participation. According to Preuss and Lautsch (2002), the incorporation of the ideas and information from employees would improve organizational flexibility, product quality and productivity.

Motivation of employees was pointed out as an improvement method. There is need to improve on the existing motivation methods. Some of the issues mentioned included timely payment of dues and having external get-together meetings/trips. The respondents also pointed out the need for greater involvement in decision making. What the management was doing was not enough. Robbins and Judge (2009) observed that underlying logic behind involvement in decision making is that if workers are involved in decisions that affect them and increase their autonomy and control over their work lives, employees will become motivated, more motivated, more committed to the organization, more productive and more satisfied with their jobs. Noah(2008) posited that the involvement of workers in decision making is considered as a tool for inducing motivation in the workers leading to positive work attitude and high productivity.

Attitude surveys would also help improve employee participation. This can periodically be done through questionnaires. Team building activities was also underscored. This can be undertaken internally and externally. Such activities would lead to greater employee participation. Allowing the employees share/air their views also featured. It looked like the lecturers are not given enough room to express their views. The management of these institutions should embrace an open door policy. They should not feel threatened by the opinions of the teaching staff.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents a summary of the findings, conclusions and the recommendations.

#### **5.2 Summary of the findings**

The results bring to the fore important findings on the relationship between integrative leadership style and organizational commitment. The findings are likely to have great implications for technical institutions in Kenya.

##### **5.2.1 The effect of integrative leadership style on organizational commitment**

The findings show integrative leadership style comprising of transformational leadership, transactional leadership and laissez-faire leadership significantly explains 23.0% of the variation in organizational commitment (Table 4.41). Integrative leadership style was found to significantly explain 35.1% of the variation in affective commitment (Table 4.43). The findings also show integrative leadership style significantly explains 12.1% of the variation in continuance commitment (Table 4.45). Integrative leadership style was found to significantly explain 12.9% of the variation in normative commitment (Table 4.47).

##### **The effect of transformational leadership style on organizational commitment**

Transformational leadership was found to significantly explain 20.16 % of variance in organizational commitment as indicated in Table 4.17. Therefore hypothesis H<sub>01</sub>: there is no significant effect of transformational leadership style on organizational commitment is rejected and conclude that transformational leadership style has a significant effect on organizational commitment.

The findings show that transformational leadership significantly explains 35.05% of the variation in affective commitment as shown in Table 4.19. Therefore hypothesis H<sub>01a</sub>: there is no significant effect of transformational leadership style on affective commitment is rejected and conclude that transformational leadership style has a significant effect on affective commitment.

Transformational leadership significantly explains 4.24 % in the variation in continuance commitment (Table 4.21). Therefore hypothesis H<sub>01b</sub>: there is no significant effect of transformational leadership style on continuance commitment is rejected and conclude that transformational leadership style has a significant effect on continuance commitment. However, when transformational leadership was regressed jointly with transactional and laissez-faire leadership against continuance commitment, transformational leadership did not have a significant effect on continuance commitment. Transformational leadership was found to significantly explain 11.35% of the variation in normative commitment (Table 4.23). Therefore hypothesis H<sub>01c</sub>: there is no significant effect of transformational leadership style on normative commitment is rejected and conclude that transformational leadership style has a significant effect on normative commitment.

### **The effect of transactional leadership style on organizational commitment**

The findings reveal that transactional leadership significantly explains 15.37 % of the variation in organizational commitment (Table 4.25). Therefore, hypothesis H<sub>02</sub>: there is no significant effect of transactional leadership style on organizational commitment is rejected and conclude that transactional leadership style has a significant effect on organizational commitment. Transactional leadership was found to significantly explain 12.96 % of the variation in affective commitment as indicated in Table 4.27. As such, hypothesis H<sub>02a</sub>: there is no significant effect of transactional leadership style on affective commitment is rejected and conclude that transactional leadership style has a significant effect on affective commitment. However, when transactional leadership was regressed jointly with transformational and laissez-faire

leadership against affective commitment, transactional leadership did not have a significant effect on affective commitment.

The findings show that transactional leadership significantly explains 11.36 % of the variation in continuance commitment (Table 4.29). Because of this, hypothesis H<sub>02b</sub>: there is no significant effect of transactional leadership style on continuance commitment is rejected and conclude that transactional leadership style has a significant effect on continuance commitment. Transactional leadership was also found to significantly explain 8.24 % of the variation in normative commitment (Table 4.31). Therefore, hypothesis H<sub>02c</sub>: there is no significant effect of transactional leadership style on normative commitment is rejected and conclude that transactional leadership style has a significant effect on normative commitment. However, when transactional leadership was regressed jointly with transformational and laissez-faire leadership against normative commitment, transactional leadership did not have a significant effect on normative commitment.

### **The effect of laissez-faire leadership style on organizational commitment**

Laissez-faire leadership significantly explains 1.93% of variation in organizational commitment (Table 4.33). Therefore, hypothesis H<sub>03</sub>: there is no significant effect of laissez-faire leadership style on organizational commitment is rejected and conclude that laissez-faire leadership style has a significant effect on organizational commitment. However, when laissez-faire leadership was regressed jointly with transformational and transactional leadership against organizational commitment, laissez-faire leadership did not have a significant effect on organizational commitment.

The findings show that laissez-faire leadership significantly explains 8.35 % of variation in affective commitment (Table 4.35). Therefore, hypothesis H<sub>03a</sub>: there is no significant effect of laissez-faire leadership style on affective commitment is rejected and conclude that laissez-faire leadership style has a significant effect on affective commitment. However, when laissez-faire leadership was regressed jointly

with transformational and transactional leadership against affective commitment, laissez-faire leadership did not have a significant effect on affective commitment. The findings reveal that laissez-faire leadership does not significantly explain the variation in continuance commitment. Therefore hypothesis H<sub>03b</sub>: there is no significant effect of laissez-faire leadership style on continuance commitment is not rejected. It is concluded that laissez-faire leadership style does not have a significant effect on continuance commitment. The findings also show that laissez-faire leadership does not significantly explain the variation in normative commitment. Therefore hypothesis H<sub>03c</sub>: there is no significant effect of laissez-faire leadership style on normative commitment is not rejected. It is concluded that laissez-faire leadership style does not have a significant effect on normative commitment.

### **5.2.2 The effect of employee participation on organizational commitment**

Results show that employee participation explains 32.49 % of the variation in organizational commitment. This shows that other factors outside employee participation explain 67.51% of variation in organizational commitment. Employee participation explains 38.94 % of affective commitment showing that other factors outside employee participation explain 61.06% of variation in affective commitment.

Further, results show employee participation explains 8.53 % of the variation in continuance commitment showing that other factors outside employee participation explain 91.47% of variation in continuance commitment. Finally, employee participation explains 26.32% of normative commitment showing that other factors outside employee participation explain 73.68% of variation in normative commitment.

### **5.2.3 The moderating effect of employee participation on the relationship between integrative leadership style on organizational commitment**

Results show the coefficients for X<sub>2</sub>Z (interaction term) as  $\beta = 0.212$ ,  $t = 3.549$ ,  $p\text{-value} < 0.001$  (Table 4.50). Based on this, hypothesis H<sub>04</sub>: there is no moderating

effect of employee participation on the relationship between integrative leadership style and organizational commitment is rejected and conclude that employee participation has a moderating effect on the relationship between integrative leadership style and organizational commitment. The change in  $R^2$  ( $R^2=0.060$ ) has associated F and p values ( $F(3,259) = 30.970$ , p-value  $<0 .001$ ). The F ratio value indicates that the moderator is significantly moderating the relationship between integrative leadership style and organizational commitment.

Results show the coefficients for  $X_2Z$  (interaction term) as  $\beta= 0.204$ ,  $t=3.750$ , p-value  $< 0.001$  (Table 4.52). Based on this, hypothesis  $H_{04a}$ : there is no moderating effect of employee participation on the relationship between integrative leadership style and affective commitment is rejected and conclude that employee participation has a moderating effect on the relationship between integrative leadership style and affective commitment. The change in  $R^2$  ( $R^2= 0 .033$ ) has associated F and p values ( $F(2,260) = 81.467$ , p-value  $<0 .001$ ). The F ratio value indicates that the moderator is significantly moderating the relationship between integrative leadership style and affective commitment. Findings also show that employee participation did not moderate the relationship between integrative leadership style and continuance commitment. There was no moderation as there was only one model which only picked transactional leadership. The interaction term was not picked. Therefore hypothesis  $H_{04b}$ : there is no moderating effect of employee participation on the relationship between integrative leadership style and continuance commitment is not rejected. It is concluded that employee participation does not have a moderating effect on the relationship between integrative leadership style and continuance commitment.

Results show the coefficients for  $X_2Z$  (interaction term) as  $\beta= 0.231$ ,  $t=3.659$ , p-value  $< 0.001$  (Table 4.55). Based on this, hypothesis  $H_{04c}$ : there is no moderating effect of employee participation on the relationship between integrative leadership style and normative commitment is rejected. It is concluded that employee participation has a moderating effect on the relationship between integrative



leadership style and normative commitment. The change in  $R^2$  ( $R^2=0.057$ ) has associated F and p values ( $F(3,259) = 18.045$ , p-value  $<0.001$ ). The F ratio value indicates that the moderator is significantly moderating the relationship between integrative leadership style and normative commitment. When transactional leadership combines with employee participation (Z), there is more influence on organizational, affective and normative commitment than transactional leadership alone. Employee participation only moderates the relationship between transactional leadership and organizational commitment.

#### **5.2.4 Qualitative responses**

Qualitative findings showed that the most commonly used employee participation schemes are trade union membership, employee suggestion plans, attitude surveys, holding departmental/staff meetings, delegation of duties, external team building activities, having open forums, open door policy, use of memos/circulars, formation of staff welfare associations and formation of working committees to undertake specific tasks. The main methods proposed to improve employee participation include implementing resolutions passed in meetings, having employee suggestion plans, holding of regular departmental and staff meetings, motivation of employees, greater involvement in decision making, conducting attitude surveys, team building activities and allowing the employees to freely share/air their views.

#### **5.3 Conclusions**

Integrative leadership style has a significant effect on organizational commitment and its three dimensions namely: affective, continuance and normative commitment. Transformational leadership style has a significant effect on organizational commitment and its three dimensions. However, a significant effect on continuance commitment is there only independently but not jointly.

Transactional leadership style has a significant effect on organizational commitment and its three dimensions. However, significant effects on affective and normative

commitment are there only independently but not jointly. Laissez-faire leadership style has a significant effect on organizational commitment and affective commitment independently but not jointly. Laissez-faire leadership style does not have a significant effect on continuance commitment and normative commitment both independently and jointly.

Employee participation has a moderating effect on the relationship between integrative leadership style and organizational, affective and normative commitment. However, employee participation does not have a moderating effect on the relationship between integrative leadership style and continuance commitment. Employee participation only moderates the relationship between transactional leadership and organizational commitment. The effects of integrative leadership style and employee participation are highest on affective commitment and lowest on continuance commitment.

Qualitative findings showed that there were a number of employee participation schemes in existence. However, they are not sufficient. Consequently, there is need to diversify and improve on the existing ones.

#### **5.4 Recommendations**

There is need for leaders to embrace integrative leadership style as it significantly affects organizational commitment. Organizational commitment has been associated with important organizational outcomes including organizational performance. Embracing of these leadership styles would by extension increase organizational performance. In order to increase organizational commitment, leaders should employ both transformational and transactional leadership styles as they are complimentary but not contradictory. It is recommended that less of laissez-faire leadership style should be embraced as it has a negative impact on organizational commitment. There is need to have more employee participation schemes employed in the technical institutions as employee participation moderates the relationship between integrative

leadership style and organizational commitment. The existing employee participation schemes should also be enhanced and strengthened.

#### **5.4.1 Future research areas**

Research should be conducted on effect of the components of transformational and transactional leadership styles on organizational commitment. The components of organizational commitment were investigated in this study whereas the components of both transformational and transactional leadership were not considered. In this study, all data gathered is based on the lecturers' and HOD's perceptions. The principals' views were not considered. This was likely to lead to an increase in the bias of the information gathered. In future studies, the involvement of the principals in data collection could minimize the bias. Future research should also be carried out on the relationship between level of education and organizational commitment. Research should also be conducted to establish why the effects of employee participation and integrative leadership are highest on affective commitment and lowest on continuance commitment.

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## APPENDICES

### Appendix i: Questionnaire for research

#### Respected Sir/Madam

I am working on my thesis for Ph.D and the title of my research is: **Effect of integrative leadership style on organizational commitment in technical institutions in Kenya.**

I request you to participate in this survey to provide the following information that will help me complete this research and eventually the findings would help improve the working environment of technical institutions in Kenya. Answer the items as well as you can based on your own experience. Do not leave any blank spaces but instead choose the box( ✓) that is as close as possible to how you feel about the statement.

Participation in this survey is voluntary and confidentiality is assured. No individual data will be reported. Please do not put your name on this questionnaire.

#### Section A: Demographic information

1. Name of institution\_\_\_\_\_

2. What is your sex?

Male

Female

3. Religion

Catholic

Protestant (Mainstream)

Protestant (Pentecostal)

Muslim

Hindu

Other

4. Marital status

Married

Single

Widowed

Divorced

5. Age

20-24

25-29

30-34

34-39

40-44

45-49

Above 50years

6. Family size (brothers and sisters) \_\_\_\_\_

7. Which is your highest level of education?



- Diploma
- Higher National Diploma
- Bachelor's degree
- Masters
- Doctorate
- Others (Please specify)

8. Which is your job title? e.g. lecturer, HOD etc \_\_\_\_\_

9. Job group \_\_\_\_\_

10. How long have you worked in this institution?

\_\_\_\_\_

11. How long have you worked under your immediate supervisor?

\_\_\_\_\_

### **Section B: Leadership style**

Answer all the questions

SD	D	N	A	SA
<b>Strongly</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly</b>
<b>Disagree</b>				<b>Agree</b>

	ITEM	SD	D	N	A	SA
	<b>My supervisor:</b>					
1	Talks about their most important values and beliefs.					
2	Frequently specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.					
3	Always considers the moral and ethical consequences of his or her decisions.					
4	Emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission and supports team spirit.					
5	Always instills pride in staff of being associated with him or her.					
6	Regularly sacrifices his or her self-interest for the good of the group.					
7	Has strong leadership skills that build my respect.					
8	Always displays a sense of power and confidence.					
9	Talks very optimistically about the future.					
10	Talks quite enthusiastically when setting goals and objectives to be accomplished.					
11	Commonly articulates a compelling vision of the future.					
12	Shows great confidence that goals will be					

	achieved.					
13	Regularly spends time teaching and coaching staff.					
14	Ever treats me as an individual rather than just a member of a group.					
15	Always considers staff's individual special needs, abilities and aspirations.					
16	Commonly helps staff to improve and develop their abilities and skills.					
17	Re-examines critical assumptions to questions whether they are appropriate.					
18	Seeks different perspectives when solving problems.					
19	Always gets staff to look at problems from different angles.					
20	Frequently suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.					
21	My supervisor is the best symbol and sign of success and accomplishment in the organization.					
22	The leadership style of my supervisor has affected my institutional commitment.					
23	My supervisor is ready to recommend others for further training.					

24	Has a strong religious conviction.					
25	Provides staff with assistance in exchange of their efforts.					
26	Discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets.					
27	Makes clear what staff can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved.					
28	Expresses satisfaction when staff meets expectations.					
29	Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions and deviations from standards.					
30	Concentrates his/her full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints and failures.					
31	Keeps track of staff's mistakes.					
32	Directs staff's attention towards failures to meet standards.					
33	Fails to interfere until problems become serious.					
34	Waits for things to go wrong before taking action.					
35	Shows that s/he is a firm believer in "if not broke, don't fix it"					
36	Demonstrates that problems become chronic before taking action.					



	institution.					
45	It means a great deal to me, personally, to work with this institution.					
46	My work with this institution always gives me a strong sense of belonging.					
47	I always feel proud when talking to others about my job.					
48	Even if I wanted, it would be very difficult for me to leave this institution.					
49	If I decided to leave this institution right now, it would be too disruptive to my life.					
50	It is as much necessity as desire that keeps me working here.					
51	I feel that if I left there would be too few job opportunities available to me.					
52	The lack of available alternatives would be one of the few negative consequences of leaving this institution.					
53	The fact that leaving this institution would require considerable personal sacrifice is one of the reasons to continue to work here.					
54	I continue to work with this institution for the many advantages I find compared with other employers.					

55	I always feel obliged to remain working here.					
56	I don't feel it would be right for me to leave my work place now, even if it were to my advantage to do so.					
57	If I left my job now, I will feel quite guilty.					
58	I feel this institution deserves all my commitment.					
59	I believe I will still be working for this institution in the next one year.					
60	I believe I will still be working for this institution in the next five years.					
61	I believe I will still be working for this institution in the next ten years.					

**Part B**

Do you feel you would want to continue working in your current institution? Give reasons for your answer.

**Section D: Employee participation**

**Part A**

Answer all items.

SD            D            N            A            SA  
 Strongly    Disagree    Neutral    Agree    Strongly

Disagree

Agree

	ITEM	SD	D	N	A	SA
62	The management always tells me what needs to be done and how it should be accomplished.					
63	The management in my institution regularly tries to eliminate situations that can lead to disagreement.					
64	Difference in opinions on how work should be done makes management very angry.					
65	When changes in rules and procedures must be made, the ideas are gradually introduced so that employees do not get upset.					
66	The management finds it very difficult to understand why employees resist every change.					
67	When I am in a supervisory role, I know I must not change my opinion on a significant work situation.					
68	The management listens carefully to each person in my department group when any					



	significant change is being made.					
69	I am well able to influence decisions that affect my work.					
70	I am fully satisfied with the level of employee representation on the board of management/union.					
71	I fully am satisfied with the level of employee participation in this institution's decision-making process.					
72	The management communicates all the information that concerns me regularly.					
73	I play a significant role in the policies of this organization.					
74	I am fully involved in solving problems that fall within my docket.					
75	My institution has specific objectives in relation to employee participation					
76	My institution has a culture of involving staff in decisions on issues that affect them					

## **Part B**

a. Which of the following employee participation methods/schemes are used in your institution?

- Holding departmental/staff meetings
- Employee suggestion plans
- Attitude surveys
- Trade union membership e.g. KUPPET,KNUT
- Quality circles

b. Are there other employee participation methods used in your institution? If yes, please mention them.

c. How can employee participation be improved in your institution?

**Thank you.**

## Appendix ii: Excluded variables

**Table 4.60: Excluded variables**

Model	Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial correlation	Collinearity Statistics			
					Tolerance	VIF	Minimum Tolerance	
1	X <sub>2</sub>	.196 <sup>a</sup>	2.848	.005	.174	.628	1.593	.628
	X <sub>3</sub>	.124 <sup>a</sup>	1.929	.055	.119	.735	1.360	.735
	Z	.184 <sup>a</sup>	3.075	.002	.187	.823	1.215	.823
	X <sub>1</sub> Z	.194 <sup>a</sup>	3.134	.002	.191	.766	1.305	.766
	X <sub>2</sub> Z	.205 <sup>a</sup>	3.380	.001	.205	.801	1.249	.801
	X <sub>3</sub> Z	.171 <sup>a</sup>	3.014	.003	.184	.914	1.094	.914
2	X <sub>2</sub>	.205 <sup>b</sup>	3.047	.003	.186	.627	1.596	.534
	X <sub>3</sub>	.146 <sup>b</sup>	2.319	.021	.143	.728	1.374	.643
	Z	.583 <sup>b</sup>	-1.567	.118	-.097	.021	47.509	.020
	X <sub>1</sub> Z	.399 <sup>b</sup>	-1.099	.273	-.068	.022	44.899	.022
	X <sub>3</sub> Z	.004 <sup>b</sup>	.030	.976	.002	.187	5.336	.164
3	X <sub>3</sub>	.104 <sup>c</sup>	1.621	.106	.100	.681	1.468	.403
	Z	.066 <sup>c</sup>	-.157	.875	-.010	.016	61.375	.016
	X <sub>1</sub> Z	.156 <sup>c</sup>	.383	.702	.024	.017	58.130	.017
	X <sub>3</sub> Z	.013 <sup>c</sup>	.109	.913	.007	.187	5.339	.164

a. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), X<sub>1</sub>

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), X<sub>1</sub>, X<sub>2</sub>Z

c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), X<sub>1</sub>, X<sub>2</sub>Z, X<sub>2</sub>

d. Dependent Variable: Y

### Appendix iii: Letter of authorization



#### NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY AND INNOVATION

Telephone: +254-20-2213471,  
2241349, 310571, 2219420  
Fax: +254-20-318245, 318249  
Email: secretary@nacosti.go.ke  
Website: www.nacosti.go.ke  
When replying please quote

9<sup>th</sup> Floor, Utalii House  
Uhuru Highway  
P.O. Box 30623-00100  
NAIROBI-KENYA

Ref: No.

Date:

**NACOSTI/P/14/3162/2346**

**24<sup>th</sup> July, 2014**

David Irungu Njoroge  
Jomo Kenyatta University of  
Agriculture and Technology  
P.O.Box 62000-00200  
**NAIROBI.**

#### **RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION**

Following your application for authority to carry out research on *“The effect of integrative leadership style on organizational commitment in Technical Institutions in Kenya,”* I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in **all Counties** for a period ending **18<sup>th</sup> September, 2014.**

You are advised to report to **the County Commissioners and the County Directors of Education, all Counties** before embarking on the research project.

On completion of the research, you are expected to submit **two hard copies and one soft copy in pdf** of the research report/thesis to our office.

  
**DR. S. K. LANGAT, OGW**  
**FOR: SECRETARY/CEO**

Copy to:

The County Commissioners  
The County Directors of Education  
All Counties.

*National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation is ISO 9001:2008 Certified*

## Appendix iv: Letter of introduction



**Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology  
School for Human Resource Development  
Entrepreneurship & Procurement Department**

Telegrams "Thika"  
Telephone: 067 52711 ext 2239  
Fax: 067 52164

Office of the Chairman  
P.O. Box 62000  
NAIROBI

Date: 12/06/2014

Ref: JKU/SHRD/EPD/Phd/14(04)

**To whom it may concern:**

Dear Sir/Madam,

**RE: PhD RESEARCH PROJECT FOR: MR. NJOROGE DAVID IRUNGU (HD412-2787/2011)**

This is to introduce to you **Mr. Irungu who** is a student pursuing Doctor of Philosophy degree in Human Resource in the Department of Entrepreneurship and Procurement in the School of Human Resource Development at Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology.

The student is currently undertaking a research proposal on: "**The effect of Integrative Leadership Style on Organizational Commitment in Technical Institutions in Kenya.**" in partial fulfilment of the requirement for the programme.

The purpose of this letter is to request you to give the student the necessary support and assistance to enable him obtain the necessary data for the research. Please note that the information given is purely for academic purposes and will be treated with strict confidence.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

**DR. E. WAIGANO**  
**Ag. CHAIRMAN, ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND PROCUREMENT DEPARTMENT**



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Setting Trends in Higher Education, Research and Innovation

### Appendix v: Work plan

MONTH/YEAR	ACTIVITY
SEPTEMBER–OCTOBER 2012	Reading and problem identification
NOVEMBER –DECEMBER 2012	Background to the study, statement of the problem and literature review, research methodology
JANUARY-FEBRUARY 2013	Draft proposal refinement (1 <sup>st</sup> )
MARCH-APRIL 2013	Draft proposal refinement (2 <sup>nd</sup> )
MAY – JUNE 2013	Draft proposal refinement (3 <sup>rd</sup> )
SEPTEMBER 2013	Defense
April 2014	Seminar presentation
JUNE – AUGUST 2014	Data collection and analysis
SEPTEMBER-OCTOBER 2014	Writing chapter four and five
NOVEMBER-JANUARY 2015	Refining thesis and sending articles for publication
FEBRUARY 2015	Submission of thesis for examination
OCTOBER 2015	Defense
OCTOBER 2015	Making corrections and submission of corrected thesis

### Appendix vi: Budget

<b>Item</b>	<b>Cost(Ksh.)</b>
Stationery	25,000
Travelling expenses	40,000
Typing, printing, photocopying and binding services	50,000
Telephone costs	10,000
Research permit	3,000
Accessing research materials and literature	40,000
Hiring and payment of research assistants	100,000
Data analysis	30,000
Publishing	30,000
<b>Grand total</b>	<b>328,000</b>

## **Appendix VII: List of technical institutions in Kenya**

1. Coast Institute of Technology
2. Bumbe Technical Training Institute
3. Bushiangala Technical Training Institute
4. Eldoret Technical Training Institute
5. Eldoret Polytechnic
6. Friends College-Kaimosi
7. Gusii Institute of Technology
8. Kabete Technical Training Institute
9. Kaiboi Technical Training Institute
10. Karen Technical Training Institute for the Deaf
11. Katine Technical Training Institute
12. Kenya Industrial Training Institute
13. Kenya Technical Teachers College
14. Kiambu Institute of Science and Technology
15. Kiirua Technical Training Institute
16. Kisumu Polytechnic
17. Kisiwa Technical Training Institute
18. Kitale Technical Training Institute
19. Maasai Technical Training Institute
20. Mathenge Technical Training Institute
21. Matili Technical Training Institute
22. Mawego Technical Training Institute
23. Meru Technical Training Institute
24. Michuki Technical Training Institute
25. Moi Institute of Technology
26. Mombasa Technical Training Institute
27. Mukurweini Technical Training Institute
28. Nairobi Technical Training Institute
29. N'kabune Technical Training Institute
30. North Eastern Province Technical Training Institute
31. Nyandarua Institute of Science and Technology
32. Nyeri Technical Training Institute
33. NYS Technical Training College-Mombasa
34. NYS Technical Training College-Naivasha
35. OI'lessos Technical Institute
36. PC Kinyanjui Technical Training Institute
37. Ramogi Institute of Advanced Technology
38. Rift Valley Institute of Science and Technology
39. Rift Valley Technical Training Institute
40. Rukira Technical Training Institute
41. Rwika Technical Training Institute
42. Sang'alo Institute of Science and Technology
43. Shamberere Technical Training Institute
44. Siaya Technical Training Institute
45. Sigalagala Technical Training Institute
46. Thika Technical Training Institute
47. Wote Technical Training Institute



