

2015

Relationship Between Leadership, Organizational Commitment, and Intent to Stay Among Junior Executives

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Walden University

College of Management and Technology

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Lorraine Anderson

has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,
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the review committee have been made.

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Walden University
2015

Abstract

Relationship Between Leadership, Organizational Commitment,
and Intent to Stay Among Junior Executives

by

Lorraine E. Anderson

MBA, Touro University International, 2004

BA, Saint Leo University, 2001

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Business Administration

Walden University

July 2015

Abstract

Executive-level attrition rates from retiring baby boomers may result in a shortage of qualified junior executives to replace the retirees. The purpose of this correlational study was to examine the efficacy of leadership style and organizational commitment in predicting intent to stay among junior executives. The Multifaceted Leadership Questionnaire, Three-Component Model (TCM) Employee Commitment Survey, and Intent to Stay Scale were administered to 147 junior executives employed in the southern region of the United States. Motivation theory served as the theoretical foundation in this study. The results of the bivariate regression were significant, $F(1, 105) = 27.82, p < .001, R^2 = .21$, suggesting that leadership style significantly predicted intent to stay. The results of the multiple linear regression were significant, $F(2, 104) = 19.42, p < .001, R^2 = .27$, suggesting that the model as a whole was able to significantly predict intent to stay. Affective commitment, $B = 0.64, p < .001$, was the only significant contributor to the model. The implications for positive social change include the potential to provide senior management with a better understanding of factors that relate to junior executive retention. The potential exists to provide senior executives with the necessary tools to increase retention. The social change implications include the potential for senior management to create a more desirable workplace, higher job satisfaction, and overall organization environment, making it more desirable to stay with the organization.

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Dedication

I dedicate this doctoral study to God, who is the head of my life; without Him, nothing is possible. I also would like to thank my family: my parents, the late Junis and Eunice Outlaw, who taught me to trust and believe in God and know that He will carry you through all things. I have often thought about these words, especially in darkest hour of the night when studying or having writer's block. To my children, Anthony H. Hyman, Jr., Alan R. Hyman, and Shanara D. Winans, no one could ask for better children who continuously checked on my wellbeing while I continued this educational journey. To my siblings, the late Horace Fair, the late Carrie Gilliam, and the late Haskell Corry; my sisters Evangelist Linda Holloman, Pamela Williams, Robin Lampkin, and Princess Jackson; my brother Anthony Corry-Outlaw; my aunt, the late Lillie Mae Fair, and the love of my life, Leonard were the earlier influences that supported my quest to complete this educational journey.

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Section 1: Foundation of the Study

Background of the Study

Retaining talented employees is an ambitious challenge for any organization (Dunnagan, Maragakis, Schneiderjohn, Turner, & Vance, 2013). American businesses face a shortage of executive talent (Oladapo, 2014). Retaining knowledgeable and experienced executives is required to respond proficiently to market challenges such as consumer satisfaction. Competent executives may leave because they must perform for uninspiring leaders. Retention intervention is a necessary strategy, specifically when qualified executives leave corporations for other opportunities.

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the attrition of executives promoted within a company. The data instrument used in this study explained the nature of the relationship that exists between the two independent variables (X_n), direct leaders' leadership styles (X_1) and junior executives' organizational commitments (X_2), and the dependent variable (Y_1), junior executives' intent to stay with the corporation. The intent of this study was to understand how junior executives' intent to stay with a company relates to leadership style and organizational commitment. Retaining the best employees of a company is vital to business success (Dunnagan et al., 2013). Business leaders need to continuously invest in retention strategies to maintain a competitive edge in the global market (Atif, Ijaz-Ur-Rehman, & Nadeem, 2011; Oladapo, 2014). Current trends in the global economy challenge human resource specialists' abilities to maintain a perceptive employee retention program.

Business leaders suffer from a shortage of skilled workers, loss of experience, and lack of knowledge for many reasons (Mohd Daud, Mohd Abdul Nassir, Nurul'Ashikin Izany, & Salwani Mohamed, 2013). The loss of executive talent creates a skills gap and a shortage of executive-level leadership (Martin & Hunt-Ahmed, 2011). Business leaders are in constant competition to recruit and retain the best talent available, offering lucrative options to candidates (George, 2015). Literature on retention shows that job satisfaction and organizational commitment can affect good junior executives' intent to stay with a company (Chen, Ployhart, Thomas, Anderson, & Bliese, 2011).

Junior executive is a title given to a novice executive training under a senior executive. Senior executives expose junior executives to the company's practices to ensure uniformity and professionalism (Pang & Yeo, 2012). Retention of junior executives provides consistent leadership experiences, teamwork, work ethics, and problem-solving skills essential in the future of a company (Chen et al., 2011). Explored in this study were the problem of junior executive retention and the relationship between direct leader's leadership style, junior executives' organizational commitment, and junior executives' intent to stay with a company.

Problem Statement

Leaders' retention is an issue, particularly at the executive level (Cappelli & Keller, 2014). As 70 million experienced and skilled baby boomers retire, American businesses face the challenge of hiring replacement personnel (Oladapo, 2014).

Information regarding the relationship between leadership styles and intent to stay is

important for company leaders who want to improve employee retention practices, lower upfront costs of training new hires, and reduce the limited job fit between an employee and the company. The general business problem was that executive-level attrition rates from the retiring baby boomer generation may result in a shortage of qualified replacement junior executives. The specific business problem was that some leaders lack understanding of the relationship between a direct leader's leadership style and junior executives' commitment and intent to stay with a company.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between a direct leader's leadership style and junior executives' commitment and intent to stay with a company. The two independent variables (X_n) were the direct leader's leadership style (X_1) and junior executives' organizational commitment (X_2). The dependent variable was junior executives' intent to stay with a company (Y_1). The targeted population consisted of business managers from state and federal government agencies located in the southeastern region (Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, and West Virginia). This study provides management with specific variables that influence junior executive retention. Executive-level attrition rates from the retiring baby boomers may result in a shortage of qualified junior executives to replace the retirees. In order to aid in creating a more desirable workplace, higher job satisfaction, improvement to the overall

organizational environment, and help in reducing the risk of company turnover and higher unemployment rates, leaders need an understanding of the relationship between a direct leader's leadership style and junior executives' organizational commitment with junior executives' intent to stay with a company.

Nature of the Study

The methodology of this study was quantitative research with a correlation design. Quantitative methods involve examining the relationship that may exist between two or more significant variables (Allwood, 2012). Shurbagi (2014) chose the quantitative method to examine the relationship among transformational leadership style, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment in a research study. The aim of this study was to examine the relationship of leadership style, organizational commitment, and intent to stay with a company and ensure alignment with the concept of quantitative research method and correlational design. This section includes a discussion of the nature of the study. I used a correlational descriptive design in this study by applying the research methodology used by Vadell (2008) and the same variables. A quantitative method with a correlation design involves examining the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable.

Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods are the three research methods used by researchers when conducting a study (Venkatesh, Brown, & Bala, 2013). The choice of a particular research method depends on the focus of the study, the type of data used, and the method used to analyze data (Venkatesh et al., 2013). A quantitative method was

the appropriate method because the focus of this study was the relationship between two independent variables (X_n), leadership style (X_l) and organizational commitment (X_2), and the dependent variable (Y_n), intent to stay (Y_l ; Venkatesh et al., 2013).

A qualitative method was not suitable for this study because the goal of a qualitative method is to understand personal experience, actions, and motivations, rather than to challenge existing theories (Hays & Wood, 2011). Qualitative studies focus on collecting and analyzing qualitative data (Elo et al., 2014). The mixed methods approach presents challenges for a researcher considering various types of data and requires a substantial amount of time (Cameron, 2011). Mayoh and Onwuegbuzie (2013) postulated that a mixed methods research study requires a researcher to gather an extensive collection of data and analyze the numerical data within a specific period.

The research method for this quantitative study was correlational relationship design. A quantitative analysis can be either experimental or survey-type research, also referred to as *correlational research* (Venkatesh et al., 2013). In an experimental study, the researcher manipulates the participants to assess the effect of a specific intervention on those participants (Venkatesh et al., 2013). A correlational research design was the appropriate method for this study to investigate relationships without any manipulations or changes to participants.

After consideration of the different research methods and related research designs, a quantitative research method with a correlation design was selected for this study. The quantitative method was the relevant research method for this study because the intent of

the study was to focus on examining the relationships between variables (Venkatesh et al., 2013). Correlational design was the appropriate quantitative design for this study to investigate the relationship between variables without manipulating participants.

Research Questions

The focus of this study was how leadership style and organizational commitment relate to a junior executive's intention to stay with a company. The two research questions that guided this study were as follows:

Research Question 1: What is the relationship between direct leaders' leadership styles and junior executives' intent to stay with a company?

Research Question 2: What is the relationship between junior executives' organizational commitment and intent to stay with a company?

Hypotheses

A set of hypotheses for each research question provided testable concepts to answer the two research questions. The two independent variables in this study were leadership style and organizational commitment. The following were the hypotheses for the two research questions. For each relationship, there was a null hypothesis ($H1_0$) and alternate hypothesis ($H1_a$). The first two hypotheses relate to Research Question 1, and last two relate to Research Question 2.

$H1_0$: Direct leaders' leadership styles do not significantly statistically correlate with junior executives' intent to stay with a company.

$H1_a$: Direct leaders' leadership styles do significantly statistically correlate with

junior executives' intent to stay with a company.

H2₀: Executives' organizational commitment does not significantly statistically correlate with junior executives' intent to stay with a company.

H2_a: Executives' organizational commitment does significantly statistically correlate with junior executives' intent to stay with a company.

Survey Questions

Clear and direct survey questions enabled the participants to choose a plausible answer from a set number of responses. To collect data for this study, I asked survey questions for each variable (see Appendix A). To comply with the agreement of consent for using the leadership measurement instrument, I used five questions for the leadership style variable.

Leadership style questions. To collect leadership style data, I asked the participants survey questions obtained from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) 5X-short form. The MLQ 5X-short form is best suited for research and organizational survey, while the long form is best suited for training, development, and feedback (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Following were the first five questions from the MLQ 5 X-short form that best suited this study. The license for using the survey authorized display of only five questions in a research paper (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

Participants evaluated former directors' leadership styles using a Likert-type scale of 0 to 4 (0 = *Not at all*, 1 = *Once in a while*, 2 = *Sometimes*, 3 = *Fairly often*, 4 = *Frequently if not always*) on each of the following statements:

1. Provided me with assistance in exchange for my efforts.
2. Reexamined critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate.
3. Failed to interfere until problems become serious.
4. Focused attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards.
5. Avoided getting involved when important issues arose.

Organizational commitment questions. To measure organizational commitment, participants marked the affective and continuance scales on the Three-Component Model (TCM) Employee Commitment Survey. The instrument used a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 to 5, with 1 being *strongly disagree* and 5 being *strongly agree*.

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
3. I do not feel a strong sense of *belonging* to my organization.
4. I do not feel *emotionally attached* to this organization.
5. I do not feel like *part of the family* at my organization.
6. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
7. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
8. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.

9. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.
10. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.
11. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.
12. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.

Intent to stay questions. To collect data for the intent to stay variable, I asked the participants to mark the intent to stay scale. The originators of the intent to stay instrument substantiated the reliability and validity of the instrument for this study. I modified Ruel's version of the intent to stay scale to fit the purpose of this study. The questions on the instrument used a 5-point Likert-type scale: 1 = *I will stay less than 2 years*, 2 = *I will stay 2 to 5 years*, 3 = *I will stay 6 to 10 years*, 4 = *I am undecided*, 5 = *I will stay until full Social Security retirement age*.

Theoretical Framework

The intent of this study was to examine the relationship between direct leaders' leadership styles, junior executives' organizational commitments, and junior executives' intent to stay with their organization. In studying these relationships, motivation theories provided a realistic method for formulating a theoretical framework. The content of motivation theories focused on specific factors that motivated an individual at work (Lampsey, Boateng, & Antwi, 2013).

Motivation refers to the initiating and guiding force of goal-oriented behaviors (Smith, 2009). In attempts to explain the concept of motivation, researchers have developed several motivation-based theories (Maslow, 1943; McClelland, 1985; Vroom, 1964). Classified as internal (intrinsic), external (extrinsic), and process theories, motivation theories attempt to explain and predict unexplained recognizable physical behaviors (Smith, 2009). No single theory covers all the drivers of motivation; each theory focuses only on specific variables of observable behaviors (Smith, 2009).

Internal (intrinsic) theory focuses on a person's internal motivation factors (Smith, 2009). Internal (intrinsic) motivation is a yearning quest to fulfill one's desire (Cho & Perry, 2012). A good example of an internal theory is Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs theory. Maslow developed a motivation theory that goes beyond physical and financial needs of an individual and includes the emotional and interpersonal needs that lead to motivation. Maslow's hierarchy of needs includes five categories of needs grouped into theory X and theory Y. Theory X includes physiological, safety, security, and security needs, while theory Y includes social, esteem, and self-actualization needs (Maslow, 1943).

External (extrinsic) theories emphasize external elements, such as consequences of behaviors and external incentives, as drivers for motivation (Smith, 2009). *Extrinsic motivation* refers to accomplishing a task for reasons that originate from outside of the self (e.g., rewards), (Achakul & Yolles, 2013). Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs has elements of both internal and external theories. McClelland's (1985) needs theory is a

good example of an external theory. McClelland's needs theory assumes that three needs—the need for achievement, need for power, and need for affiliation—are the drivers of motivation.

Process theories focus on the interactions between an individual and the environment (Smith, 2009). In developing the expectancy theory, Vroom (1964) attempted to explain motivation based on how a person valued performance. Vroom's expectancy theory is an excellent example of an external theory (Smith, 2009). Vroom's expectancy theory assumes that people expect certain rewards or consequences for their behaviors or performances and that there is a relationship between effort and achievement.

Motivation theories provide a solid foundation for understanding the relationship among leadership style, organizational commitment, and intent to stay. Understanding motivation theories can allow business leaders to understand and meet the needs of their employees (Smith, 2009). Motivation relates to all the three variables used in this study. Prewitt, Weil, and McClure (2011) described leadership as the process of motivating people toward achieving goals that are beneficial to their organization. Galletta, Portoghese, and Battistelli (2011) found positive relationships among motivation, intent to stay, leadership styles, and organizational commitment. Figure 1 illustrates the theoretical framework used in this study.

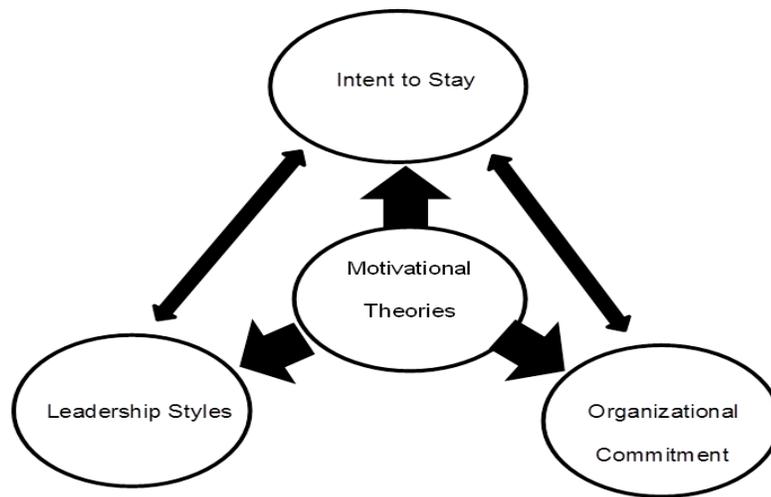


Figure 1. Motivation theory model and key components specific to leadership styles, organizational commitment, and intent to stay.

Motivation was an essential factor for measuring retention (Alarcon & Edwards, 2013). Motivation theory relates to leadership styles, organizational commitment, and intent to stay with a company. Understanding motivation theories helps leaders identify drivers of individual motivation that can promote willingness to remain with a company.

Operational Definitions

Intent to leave: Intent to leave denotes an employee's contemplation of the probability of leaving an organization in the future (Vadell, 2008).

Intent to stay: Intent to stay denotes an employee's expected plan of remaining in an organization (Vadell, 2008).

Junior executive: Junior executive is a title given to a novice executive training under a senior executive (Pang & Yeo, 2012).

Leadership: Leadership is a mutual synergy between leaders and followers (Kopperud, Martinsen, & Humborstad, 2014).

Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations

Assumptions

According to Simon (2011), assumptions are events that are out of one's control but presumed to be true. For example, if a researcher conducts a survey, the assumption is that people will answer the questionnaire truthfully. Three assumptions underlay this study. The first assumption was that the participants would respond truthfully and accurately complete the survey. The second assumption was that the participants would understand the content of the questionnaires. The third assumption was that only junior executives would participate in the survey.

Limitations

Simon (2011) defined a *limitation* as a potential weakness in a study that is out of the researcher's control. Researchers can find limitations in everything humans do. If a researcher uses a convenience sample, as opposed to a random sample, the study's results are only a suggestion without application to the general population. For example, if one is looking at a specific aspect, say achievement tests, the information is only as good as the test itself. Another limitation can be time. A study conducted during a specified period may represent a snapshot of that time and may depend on the conditions of the period (Salthouse, 2011). The researcher must explain the limitations in the study without changing the outcome of the study.

The first limitation of this study was that the results related only to junior executives. The results of this study might change when using information from individuals of lower-level management positions change when using information from individuals of lower-level management positions. The second limitation of this study was time. Because Walden University requires completion of a study within a year from Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval, the data collection for this study involved a cross-sectional or a single-point-in-time data collection strategy.

The third limitation related to the questions on the survey questionnaire. Although the questions resulted from a comprehensive evaluation of the literature review, unasked questions might have provided additional information related to executives' beliefs. These limitations present opportunities for future research.

Delimitations

Simon (2011) defined *delimitations* as those characteristics that define the boundaries and limit the scope of one's study. Delimitations are factors that are in the researcher's control. Delimiting factors include the research questions, choice of objectives, theoretical perspectives, variables of interest, and the population one chooses to investigate. The first delimitation was the problem itself. I could have chosen other related problems, but I screened off or rejected those problems. The purpose statement also includes an explicit or implicit understanding of what the study will not cover and explains the intended accomplishments of the study.

The scope of this study included only junior executives employed in the southern

region in the United States. The design of this study focused on junior executives and not all levels of management. Results of this study may not apply to other executives' intention to stay with a company.

In summary, the assumptions of this study related to the truthful responses of the participants to the survey questions, as well as the accurateness of the information provided. The limitations included the participants' willingness and availability to participate within the set period for this study. Delimitations related to the selected population of participants in the study. Integrating the factors of assumptions, limitations, and delimitations articulated the scope of this study.

Significance of the Study

The aim of this study was to examine the relationships among leadership style, organizational commitment, and intent to stay in an organization. Examination of these relationships among executives was particularly notable for understanding underlying factors of high attrition rates in this population to reduce future shortages. The results of the study may benefit businesses by adding to the field of knowledge that develops future leaders and business practices.

The outcomes of the study could prove crucial for developing a course of action to identify and reconcile concerns regarding leadership style and commitment levels among executives into long-term strategies that encourage executives to continue their commitment. Viewing how both leadership styles and commitment levels affect intent to remain in an organization may contribute to successful business practices. Implications of

the results of this research toward social change include possible reduction in training costs to an organization, employment stability in host cities, and retaining expertise and knowledge of company operations.

Value to Business and Social Impact

This doctoral research encompasses a host of information to help business leaders of organizations of all sizes. The extensive training and leadership skills executives acquire in various business industries are marketable talents desired by competitive businesses. Companies may benefit from this research in developing retention strategies to retain top talent employees, which would limit attrition cost. The recommended practices in this study might assist companies in tracking and calculating attrition levels. Gurunathan and Vijayalakshmi (2012) claimed that an organization with an 80% employee retention rate is a successful business.

Society could benefit from the results of the research. I have provided a framework to uncover vulnerability in the effectiveness of leadership style and organizational commitment. The results of this study could be of value both to business and to society, as they are interdependent. Companies are key financial contributors to society and the principal institutions of wealth, investment, and employment. Companies' decisions and actions could resonate throughout society.

Contribution to Business Practice

The results of this study could be of benefit to junior executives, business leaders, and businesses in general. Business leaders may benefit from this study by reducing the

employee attrition rate and reevaluating strategies and policies to retain valued employees (Saniewski, 2011). The outcomes of the research could increase an organization's retention strategies to improve employee retention practices, lower upfront costs of training new hires, and reduce the limited job fit between an employee and the company.

The results of the study may prompt change to incentive programs. The results could also lead to a more realistic evaluation of organizational stability. This study may be of benefit to local government, local communities, and society in supporting recognition of the significant effect that leadership style and organizational commitment have on the mission of the organization.

Implications for Social Change

The results of this study could serve as an aid in reducing organizational spending in the federal budget without compromise to national security. This cost reduction may result in benefits to stakeholders including creditors, employees, customers, and the government by changes in policies, practices, and systems of a company. The retention of qualified junior executives may allow organizations to maintain constant workforce stability and reduce the cost of retraining new hires. Retaining these junior executives could benefit society through reduced prices for products and services, which leaders could equate to cost savings in new hires and compensation benefits. Implications of the results of this research toward social change include possible reduction in organizational training costs, increases in employment stability, and tax savings to society.

In summary, the results of this study could benefit business practices as well as promote social change. The results of the study could improve business practices by increasing the awareness of business and government leaders concerning factors that affect retention of employees. These results could be a valued aid in planning and implementing retention programs. Retaining experienced and qualified junior executives could increase organizations' bottom line. This study could foster social change by serving as a resource for junior executives, business organization leaders, company stakeholders, and government agencies.

A Review of the Professional and Academic Literature

The objective of this study was to examine the relationship between leadership style, organizational commitment, and junior executives' intent to stay with a company. In the process of achieving the goal of this study, I considered the following research questions and hypotheses:

Research Question 1: What is the relationship between leadership style and intent to stay with a company?

H₁₀: Direct leaders' leadership styles do not significantly statistically correlate with junior executives' intent to stay with a company.

H_{1a}: Direct leaders' leadership styles do significantly statistically correlate with junior executives' intent to stay with a company.

Research Question 2: What is the relationship between organizational commitment and intent to stay with a company?

H2₀: Executives' organizational commitment does not significantly statistically correlate with junior executives' intent to stay with a company.

H2_a: Executives' organizational commitment does significantly statistically correlate with junior executives' intent to stay with a company.

Synopsis of the Literature Review

The EBSCOhost database served as the search engine for this literature review using the key words *leadership*, *leadership style*, *affective commitment*, *continuance commitment*, and *intent to stay*, resulting in a list of reliable sources. These sources included dissertations, books, and scholarly journal articles. The main source of the literature review articles was the online multidisciplinary research database EBSCO, which has an infrastructure that includes several databases such as Academic Search, Business Source Complete, ABI/INFORM Global, ProQuest, Google Scholar, Science Direct, ERIC, Sage Journals, PSY Info, WorldCat, and Thoreau. Additional sources for the literature review came from the University of Roanoke and the Major Hilliard Public Library.

The initial research provided a plethora of peer-reviewed articles from primary, secondary, and tertiary sources. To meet the Walden University DBA requirements, the document search focused on articles published from 2011 to 2015. To maintain academic rigor, the final study contained only peer-reviewed articles, dissertations, conference proceedings, and books. Table 1 summarizes the sources used in this literature review.

Table 1

Synopsis of Sources in the Literature Review

Reference type	Total	Less than 5 years	Greater than 5 years
Research-based peer reviewed journals	150	143	7
Dissertations	5	1	4
Seminal and contemporary books	8	4	4
Websites	2	1	1

This literature review includes relevant current and previous studies related to the relationship among leadership style, organizational commitment, and intent to stay with a company. The review starts with a section on leadership, follows with a section on organizational commitment and a section on intent to stay, and ends with a summary of the studies reviewed. Topics covered in this literature review includes the definition of leadership, leadership theories, leadership styles, leadership in businesses, drivers of organizational commitment, types of organizational commitment, organizational commitment with a company, the relationship between leadership and intent to stay, organizational commitment and intent to stay, and the factors that drive intent to stay.

Figure 2 represents the flow of the literature review.

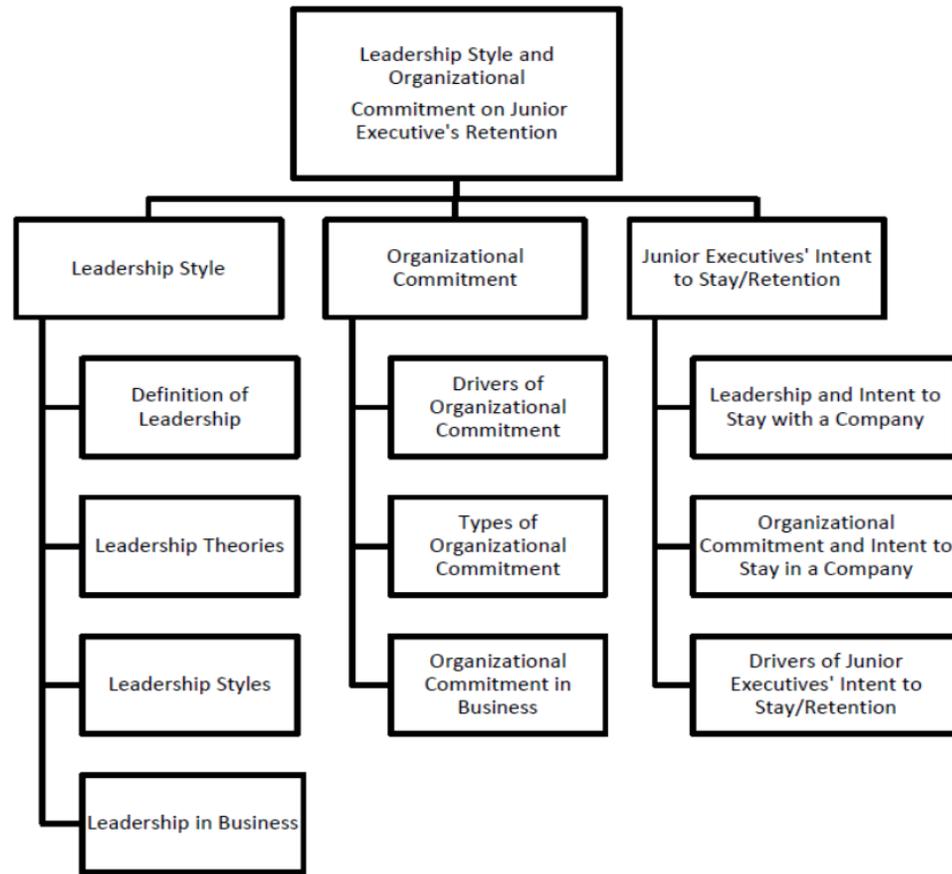


Figure 2. Literature review organization for examination of leadership styles, organizational commitment, and a junior executive's intent to stay with a company.

Leadership Style

Understanding the concept of leadership is essential in examining the relationship between leadership style and intent to stay. This section includes relevant studies related to the concept of leadership. Topics covered in this section include the definition of leadership, leadership theories, leadership styles, and leadership with a company.

Definition of leadership. Leadership is a crucial concept for any organization. The meaning of this concept varies based on the circumstances. This subsection of the literature review covers relevant studies related to the definition of the concept of leadership.

Organizations need strong leaders to inspire and maintain their employees. The concept of leadership has attracted the attention of scholars and practitioners to recognize that leaders can influence the synergy in an organization (Dinh et al., 2014). Leadership is a key factor that world leaders should evaluate to remain competitive in this economy (Arias-Bolzmann & Stough, 2013). Choi (2012) asserted that leadership is having the ability to influence individuals from diverse backgrounds to come together in harmony. Because of its pivotal role in the relationship between leaders and followers, the concept of leadership has been a riveting topic in the business world (Ruiz, Ruiz, & Martínez, 2011). Leadership plays an important role in improving organizational citizenship behavior, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, innovation, and organizational loyalty (Tsai & Su, 2011). Yammarino (2013) and Gentry and Sparks (2012) agreed that leadership stimulates the motivation of cohorts to implement change toward an organization's desired future. The success of any organization in any domain or field depends on the effectiveness of the leader of that organization (Parris & Peachey, 2013).

Despite the growing interest of scholars and practitioners in the concept of leadership, the definition of the concept remains vague. The word *leadership* suffers from

difficulty in its definition (Volckmann, 2012). The definition of leadership varies based on the source and the person who defines it (Rupprecht, Waldrop, & Grawitch, 2013). The definition of leadership may also vary based on geographical location and culture (Dunnagan et al., 2013). Knowing the different meanings associated with the word *leadership* is a relevant step in investigating the relationship between leadership styles and likelihood to stay with a company. Mohammed, Othman, and D'Silva (2012) argued that the definition of leadership is a critical element in understanding the effect of different leadership styles in a diversified workplace.

Several researchers have tried to explain the word *leadership* and develop theories to promote the understanding of the concept (Ruiz et al., 2011; Volckmann, 2012). In a recent publication, Kellerman (2012) identified 1,400 definitions and 44 theories of leadership. Leadership is among one of the most difficult tasks to perform (Kawar, 2012). Often, people refer to leadership as a system of social influence (Prewitt et al., 2011). Love and Singh (2011) defined leadership as the process of influencing the relationship between employees and employers.

Leadership is about influencing the attitudes and behaviors of others (Limbare, 2012). Leadership allows leaders to shape the behavior of their followers (Thomas, Martin, & Riggio, 2013). The essential core of successful leadership is setting goals and managing personal and organizational development (Kawar, 2012). Similarly, Prewitt et al. (2011) argued that leadership is the process of motivating people toward achieving goals that are beneficial to their organization. Malos (2011) supported the theory that

leadership is a social influence process through which a person can receive support from another person in achieving a common goal.

Traditional definitions of leadership have often focused on the relationship between leaders and followers (Kellerman, 2012; Love & Singh, 2011; Rupperecht et al., 2013). Because organizations withstand the demands of different external stakeholders, failing to meet the expectations of these external stakeholders can weaken the company's survival (Voegtlin, 2011). Leaders should be able to ensure the survival of their organizations (Voegtlin, 2011). Therefore, the definition of leadership should go beyond the relationship between leaders and followers and include the relationship between leaders and all stakeholders (Voegtlin, Patzer, & Scherer, 2012). Ahn and Ettner (2014) expanded the scope of the leadership definition to include humility, empathy, and dedication.

This subsection covers relevant studies related to the definition of leadership. Although there are various definitions of the term *leadership*, most of the definitions focus on the relationship between leaders and followers. Researchers have suggested recently that the definition of leadership should go beyond the relationship between leaders and followers and include the relationship between leaders and external stakeholders.

Leadership theories. Researchers in the field of leadership have developed several theories to advance the understanding of the concept of leadership. Exploring the different leadership theories provides knowledge in examining the relationship between

leadership styles and likelihood to stay with a company. This subsection of the literature review includes relevant studies related to leadership theories.

The literature contains a large and growing collection of leadership theories. The growing interest of scholars and practitioners in developing new management theories has led to the emergence of a variety of leadership theories (Zhang, Everett, Elkin, & Cone, 2012). Although more than 44 leadership theories exist (Kellerman, 2012), this literature review focuses on three prevailing theories: trait theory, behavioral theory, and situational theory.

Leadership trait theory. *Traits* refer to a number of behavioral consistencies that describe people's conduct (Chen, 2011). Formerly known as the *great man theory* (Malos, 2011), trait theory considers a person's innate specific abilities as the primary method of leadership (Stentz, Clark, & Matkin, 2012). The main assumption of this theory is that leaders have specific traits that nonleaders do not have (Malos, 2011). During the mid-20th century, some scholars opposed the trait theory and argued that there is no single set of leadership traits (Chen, 2011).

Behavioral theory. Behavioral theory emerged in the mid-20th century following the increasing popularity of Skinner's behaviorism (Adams, 2012). This theory focused on identifying and providing leaders with behaviors to follow to promote the most positive reactions from subordinates (Mujtaba & Kennedy, 2014). Looking at task-oriented behaviors, relationship oriented behaviors, and participatory leadership as key variables, behavioral theories support a relationship between subordinate satisfaction and

group processes (DeRue, Nahrgang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011). Behavioral theory is the best leadership theory to ensure that the best team members of an organization work together for increased performance (Vieito, 2012).

Situational theory. Situational theory functions with the concept that the behavior of a strong leader changes according to unpredictable demands (Ramkissoon, 2013). The main attributes of situational theory include participation, constraint, and cognition of a problem when seeking information (Kim & Grunig, 2011). Effective leaders are able to be both task-oriented and relations-oriented based on the situation and the behavior required to achieve the organization's goals (Ramkissoon, 2013). Situational leadership applies to professionals in business, those in government, and community leaders (Mujtaba & Kennedy, 2014).

Although the number of leadership theories is growing, this subsection of the literature review covers three theories: trait theory, behavioral theory, and situational theory. The difference between these theories lies in what a good leader is claimed to be. The claim of trait theory is that leaders have specific personality traits that nonleaders do not have. In behavioral theory, no one is born a leader; rather, individuals learn leadership and develop as good leaders. Trait theory and behavioral theory are similar in the sense that both theories indicate that a good leader should be able to perform well in any situation. The declaration of situational theory is that behavior of a strong leader changes according to random demands. The three leadership theories covered in this literature review are similar in that they all focus on the relationship between leaders and

followers.

Leadership styles. Leadership style is one of the two independent variables used in this study. Leaders distinguish themselves from other leaders by their leadership style. Understanding leadership styles was required to achieve the intent of this study. This subsection of the literature review covers current and previous studies related to the different leadership styles.

Since the 1980s, a large body of knowledge has been devoted to the analysis and comparison of different leadership styles (Greer & Carter, 2013). A leadership style is a behavior method used by a leader to resolve organizational issues (Imanzadeh, Esmaeilzadeh, Elyasi, & Sedaghati, 2012). The classifications of leadership help define not only the relation between the individual in the position of leadership and the organization's performance, but also leadership mechanisms of traits, behaviors, affect, and cognition, and whether the characteristics relate to the leaders, followers, or goals of the organization (Eberly, Johnson, Hernandez, & Avolio, 2013). Leaders use different leadership styles to influence their followers (Greer & Carter, 2013). No single leadership style can address all organizational issues (Malik, 2012). Each leadership style has its own set of good and challenging characteristics.

Various classifications of leadership styles exist in the literature (Imanzadeh et al., 2012; Limbare, 2012). A leader's style of leadership demonstrates the leader's values, norms, beliefs, and ideas (Iqbal, Inayat, Ijaz, & Zahid, 2012). Early studies on leadership style focused on charismatic, inspirational, and visionary leadership styles (Groves &

LaRocca, 2011). Reddin (as cited in Limbare, 2012) categorized the behavior of leaders into eight leadership styles: (a) deserter leadership, (b) missionary leadership, (c) autocratic leadership, (d) compromised leadership, (e) bureaucratic leadership, (f) developer leadership, (g) benevolent autocratic leadership, and (h) executive leadership (Limbare, 2012). Iqbal et al. (2012) identified the (a) democratic leadership style, (b) autocratic leadership style, (c) task-oriented leadership style, (d) relationship-oriented leadership style, (e) transformational leadership style, and (f) transactional leadership style. Burns (1978) initiated the idea of transactional leadership, making a distinction between transactional and transformational leadership styles.

The laissez-faire leadership style emerged later (Sahaya, 2012). Imanzadeh et al. (2012) summarized leadership styles into three main types, including transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership. The laissez-faire leadership is the newest category of the leadership styles (Imanzadeh et al., 2012; Sahaya, 2012). Transactional and transformational leadership styles are the focus of this research. Iqbal et al. (2012) argued that transformational and transactional leadership are the most influential leadership styles.

Transformational leadership. A successful leader in today's global marketplace is contingent upon a leader's ability to communicate and encourage positive changes to capture the mindset of cohorts (Fairhurst, & Connaughton, 2014). Leaders should be able to formulate and develop ideas that could increase productivity and services to promote a profitable outcome for the organization (Vaccaro, Jansen, Van Den Bosch, & Volberda,

2012). Leaders often rely on their leadership style in performing their duty.

Researchers have addressed transformational leadership in the past 3 decades (Zhu, Sosik, Riggio, & Yang, 2012). Transformational leaders develop a plan for the future and inspire followers toward achieving results beyond what would normally be expected (Nielsen & Daniels, 2012). These leaders have the ability to influence followers to go beyond requirements and surpass their own interests for the goals (Sahaya, 2012). The behaviors of a transformational leader include inspirational motivation, idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Shin, Kim, & Bian, 2012). Although very effective (Sahaya, 2012), the behaviors of transformational leaders might lead to difference processes, based on the situation and the industry (Hoffman, Bynum, Piccolo, & Sutton, 2011). A diverse leadership style may be useful in one field and ineffective in another industry (Hoffman et al., 2011).

Transactional leadership. Transactional leadership consists of rewarding followers for their performance (Sahaya, 2012). With the transactional leadership style, leaders define performance requirements and the rewards followers could receive when they achieve these performances (Zhu et al., 2012). Transactional leaders may also define compliance standards and corrective actions for followers who fail to comply with these standards (Overbey, 2013). Because it is reward-based, Sahaya (2012) argued that the effectiveness of transactional leadership might be short-term.

The literature presented different classifications of leadership styles; however, this literature review covers two popular leadership styles including transformational

leadership and transactional leadership. Although both transformational and transactional leaders focused on motivating followers toward achieving the organization's goals, these two categories of leaders are different in the way they inspire followers. While transformational leaders focused on arousing passion in their followers to motivate them, transactional leaders rely on bonuses and incentives to encourage followers (Breevaart et al., 2014).

Leadership in business. Leadership is a matter of historical interest in global business programs (Morrison, 2013). Researchers in business literature asserted the role of responsible leadership is to measure the variables of the relationships in fostering organizational success to balance the success of the business (Stone-Johnson, 2013). Ethical decisions and behavior of leaders shape the employee behaviors in the climate of the workplace (Zhang, Walumbwa, Aryee, & Chen, 2013).

Ahn and Ettner, (2014) examined other behaviors such as humility, empathy, and dedication as better shaping attributes than focusing solely on the leader position of power as a source of leadership influence. Tsai and Su (2011) suggested including employees in the decision making process to provide the employees with a sense of ownership. This approach showed effectiveness in promoting organizational citizenship behavior, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, innovation, and organizational loyalty.

This section of the literature review covered relevant studies related to the concept of leadership. Topics covered in the section include definition of leadership, leadership

theories, leadership styles, and leadership in the business. Researchers have investigated various aspects of leadership and its relationship with employees' intent to stay with a company. The concept of leadership has different definitions, several theories, and different styles.

Organizational Commitment

The type and level of organizational commitment influenced an employee's intent to stay or leave an organization. One of the goals of this study was to assess how two types of organizational commitment, continuance and affective, relate to junior executives' intent to stay with a company. For a better understanding of this relationship, it was a necessity to understand the concept of organizational commitment. This section of the literature review covers relevant studies related to organizational commitment. The section begins with a brief overview of organizational commitment and included topics such as drivers of organizational commitment, types of organizational commitment, and organizational commitment in business.

Organizational commitment is an employee's desire to belong to an organization and an employee's willingness to make extra effort for the benefit of the organization (Sani, 2013). Organizational commitment drives many workplace related behaviors and attitudes such as satisfaction, organizational citizenship, and intent to stay or leave (Taing, Granger, Groff, Jackson, & Johnson, 2011). The need for retaining employees who can add value to an organization has become a problem for business leaders

(Balassiano & Salles, 2012). The concept of organizational commitment has intrigued scholars and practitioners for many years (Morrow, 2011).

Researchers in the field of management and behavioral sciences describe organizational commitment as a major influence in the relationship between individuals and organizations (Rehman, Shareef, Mahmood, & Ishaque, 2012). Ellenbecker and Custman (2012) defined organizational commitment as a personal attachment and the desire to stay with a company for various reasons. Similarly, Dey (2012) argued that organizational commitment was the level of attachment that employees have to their employing organizations, their willingness to work on behalf of these organizations, and their likelihood to remain members of the company. All these definitions focused on the bond between employees and their employing organizations.

Drivers of organizational commitment. Many work and nonwork related factors drive an employee's organizational commitment. Understanding the drivers of organizational commitment is vital in examining the relationship between organizational commitment and intent to stay in an organization. This sub-section of the literature review covers relevant studies related to drivers of organizational commitment.

Several factors influence organizational commitment among employees (Dey, 2012). Farjad and Varnous (2013) examined the relationship between several dimensions of quality of work life and organizational commitment, using data from staff managers and deputies from a communications and an infrastructure company. From the chosen quality of work life dimensions, the results of the study indicated that the effects of

health, security, work conditions, and development of human capabilities were the highest on organizational commitment (Farjad & Varnous, 2013). A year earlier, Dey (2012) argued that a confident practice of employers increases organizational commitment. Procedural justice also affects organizational commitment (Gumusluoglu, Karakitapoğlu-Aygüna, & Hirst, 2013).

Job satisfaction is another key driver of organizational commitment (Qamar, 2012). Gallato et al. (2012) argued that leadership and organizational culture have a significant influence on job satisfaction. Understanding this relationship is likely to help employers increase organizational commitment among employees (Gallato et al., 2012). Using survey data from 247 middle level managers in private sector, Srivastava (2013) examined the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The results showed a positive relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Job stressors and emotional exhaustion can also affect organizational commitment (Kemp, Kopp, & Kemp, 2013). Kemp et al. (2013) used qualitative and quantitative data from 435 professional truck drivers to examine the relationship between job stressors, emotional exhaustion, and organizational commitment. The results indicated that a positive relationship exists between job stressors and emotional exhaustion. Kemp et al. also showed these two variables have negative effects on organizational commitment.

Leroy, Palanski, and Simons (2012) introduced authentic leadership and integrity as another set of drivers of organizational commitment. Using survey data from 49 teams

in the service industry, Leroy et al. investigated how authentic leadership and integrity relate to one another in driving organizational commitment. The results showed a positive relationship between authentic leadership and affective organizational commitment, mediated through integrity. Similarly, Khan, Hafeez, Rizvi, Hasnain, and Mariam (2012) found a relationship between leadership style and organizational commitment. Furthermore, a study by Fritz, O'Neil, Popp, Williams, and Arnett (2013) also supported the positive relationship between behavioral integrity and organizational commitment.

This subsection included a review of literature related to factors that drive an employee's organizational commitment. Tourigny, Baba, Han., & Wang (2013) and Leroy, Palanski., & Simons (2012) have found factors such as authentic leadership, integrity, job stressors, emotional exhaustion, job satisfaction, health, security, work conditions, and development of human capabilities to be the drivers of organizational commitment. Understanding how these drivers affect organizational commitment explains the role of organizational commitment as an independent variable in this study.

Types of organizational commitment. As the need of retaining good employees increase, it is particularly beneficial to establish a stronger connection between these employees and their employing organizations. Based on the type of connection employees have with their employer, organizational commitment can be affective, continual, and normative (Wilson, 2014). This sub-section of the literature review covers relevant studies related to three types of organizational commitment: affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment.

Affective commitment. Affective commitment is an employees' emotional attachment to his or her organization (Leroy et al., 2012). Emotional attachment does not reflect the obligation to commit to an organization (Jussila, Byrne, & Tuominen, 2012). In an affective organizational commitment, employees commit because of good feelings, sense of belonging, and satisfaction (Lee & Kim, 2011). Jussila et al. (2012) argued that affective organizational commitment is an essential element of a sustainable and successful corporation.

Continuance commitment. Continuance commitment is the extent to which an employee commits to an organization because of the consequences related to leaving (Balassiano & Salles, 2012). Taing et al. (2011) defined two dimensions of continuance commitment including commitment due to lack of alternative employment opportunities and commitment due to the perceived sacrifice of investments related to leaving. In the continuance organizational commitment, employees commit because they need to (Balassiano & Salles, 2012). Continuance commitment represents a particular concern because it relies on social and economic costs that employees will face when they break their commitment with their employing organizations (Jaros, 2012). Ahmadi (2011) argued that it might be unethical to promote continuance commitment.

Normative commitment. Normative commitment is the extent employees commit to their employing organizations because of a moral duty (Balassiano & Salles, 2012). This type of organizational commitment deals with the moral obligations employees feel to commit to their employing organizations (Gelaidan & Ahmad, 2013). In a normative

commitment, employees commit because they feel a moral obligation to the organization (Balassiano & Salles, 2012).

Based on the reasons why employees commit to their organizations, Top, Tarcan, Tekingündüz, & Hikmet (2013) and Meyer (2012) identified three types of organizational commitment. These types include affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. Emotional attachment, consequences of leaving, and moral duty, are the drivers of affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment, respectively. The focus of this study is on affective commitment and continuance commitment.

Organizational commitment in business. Organizational commitment is a useful concept in understanding several issues in the business, including intent to stay. Understanding the issues related to organizational commitment in business is relevant for the focus of this study. This subsection covers relevant studies related to organizational commitment in business.

Business leaders need tools that allow them to increase employees' organizational commitment within a business (Al Ariss, Cascio, & Paauwe, 2014). Several factors influence organizational commitment in business (Froese & Xiao, 2012). Using data from a sample of 197 automotive employees, Froese and Xiao (2012) examined the relationships between work values, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment.

The results showed a correlation between job satisfaction and affective commitment, but work value had no effect on organizational commitment. Khasawneh,

Omari, and Abu-Tineh (2012) analyzed survey data from 340 vocational teachers and showed a positive relationship between transformational leadership of school principals and organizational commitment of vocational teachers. Using data from 150 bank employees, Akhter, Ghayas, and Adil (2012) found a positive relationship between self-efficacy and optimism and self-efficacy and organizational commitment.

This subsection covered literature related to organizational commitment to a business. The review focused on the drivers of organizational commitment in business. The literature review indicated that factors such as self-efficacy, optimism, leadership style, and job satisfaction are the drivers of organizational commitment in business.

In summary, as the need of retaining skilled employees increase, business leaders are facing the challenge to increase organizational commitment. Several factors such as job satisfaction, self-efficacy, optimism, and leadership drive organizational commitment (Albrecht, Bakker, Gruman, Macey, & Saks, 2015).

Based on these drivers, Top, Tarcan, Tekingündüz, & Hikmet (2013) and Meyer (2012) identified three types of organizational commitment including affective, continuance, and normative commitments. The desire, the need, and the obligation to commit describe affective, continuance, and normative commitments, respectively.

Intent to Stay

The relationship between leadership style, organizational commitment, and intent to stay with a company was the focus of this study. Intent to stay was the dependent variable in this study. Intent to stay is a strong predictor of turnover; therefore, factors

affecting intent to stay are likely to affect turnover as well as retention. This section of the literature review covered relevant studies related to intent to stay, retention, and turnover. The section started with a brief overview of the concept of intent to stay and covered literature related to the relationship between leadership and intent to stay; organizational commitment and intent to stay; and the factors that drove intent to stay.

Employee retention is an employer's retentive practice with an aspiration to persuade employees to remain with the organization (Sandhya & Kumar, 2011). Retaining skilled employees is a competitive challenge, particularly during the economic recovery phase, and increases global competition with its demands for skilled workers (Dunnagan et al., 2013). Employee retention has become one of the main challenges for many organizations today (Moussa, 2013). Most employees leave their hiring organizations within the first 5 years of employment (Bagga, 2013). In 2008, the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (USBLS) reported that 30% of employees leave their hiring organizations within the first 2 years of employment, and more than 50% leave within the first 5 years (Ballinger, Craig, Cross, & Gray, 2011). According to Ballinger et al. (2011), the cost associated with hiring and training an employee ranges from 25% to extrinsic awards such as salary increases and other financial benefits to retain top talent.

Leadership and intent to stay. Leaders' abilities to inspire, motivate, and satisfy their employees are significant drivers of employees' intent to stay with their organizations (Shuck & Herd, 2012). Leaders who are more effective are likely to retain their employees. Reviewing what previous studies found on the relationship between

leadership and intent to stay proved vital for this study. This sub-section of the literature review covered relevant studies related to the relationship between leadership and intent to stay.

Costs associated with employee turnover, increasing employee retention, and increasing turnover has become a prominent topic of debate in both scholars' and practitioners' perspectives (Kim & Jogaratnam, 2010). As the intent to stay is the best predictor of turnover, Brewer, Kovner, Greene, Tukov-Shuer, and Djukic (2012) factors affecting intent to stay are likely to affect turnover. This subsection of the literature review covered studies related to the relationship between leadership style and either intent to stay or to retire.

In a case study using an insurance company, Cotton and Stevenson (2008) investigated the effect of transformational leadership on employees' intent to stay with their organization during a scandal-exacerbated decline. The results showed a positive correlation between CEO's transformational leadership and employees' intentions to stay with the organization. The study by Cotton and Stevenson focused only on transformational leadership and did not include other leadership styles. The reason for using transformational leadership in the study was that Cotton and Stevenson believed that transformational leadership is the leadership style needed during a scandal-exacerbated decline.

Kim and Jogaratnam (2010) investigated how individual and organizational factors affect job satisfaction and employee intent to stay in the hotel and restaurant

industry. In their study, Kim and Jogaratnam used data from a survey of 221 hotel and restaurant employees. Direct leader leadership was one of the independent variables of the study. Direct leader leadership is a leadership style that focuses on accomplishment of tasks and welfare of subordinates (Kim & Jogaratnam, 2010). The results of Kim and Jogaratnam's study indicated that direct leader leadership does not affect job ratification, but it is a strong predictor of employees' intention to stay with the organization.

Liu, Cai, Li, Shi, and Fang (2013) have found substantial relationships between leadership styles and an employee's turnover intention. Long, Thean, Ismail, and Jusoh (2012) conducted an extensive literature review on the relationship between leadership styles, job satisfaction, and voluntary turnover intention. Long, Thean, Ismail, and Jusoh study indicated a negative relationship between transformational leadership and turnover intention, meaning that transformational leadership can increase intention to stay.

Using data from 200 volleyball and softball coaches from National Collegiate Athletic Association Division 1 in the United States, Wells and Peachey (2011) investigated the relationship between leadership styles, satisfaction, and turnover intention. Wells and Peachey used transformational leadership and transactional leadership as leadership styles variables. The results showed that both transformational leadership and transactional leadership styles are likely to reduce turnover intention.

Similarly, Furtado, Batista, and Silva (2011) investigated the relationship between managers' leadership styles and nurses' turnover intentions in Portugal. The study sample consisted of 266 participants including 244 staff nurses and 22 head nurses. The outcome

indicated that persuading leaders and sharing leaders are more likely to reduce nurses' turnover intentions in Portugal.

To understand the relationship between leadership and retention of nurses, Forest and Kleiner (2011) discussed the effects of the nursing management style, which is transactional leadership, on nurses' retention and recruitment. The outcome indicated that transactional leadership decreases nurses' moral, and increases their turnover retention. Forest and Kleiner recommended transformational leadership and argued that this leadership style is likely to empower nurses and increase their intention to stay.

This subsection covered literature related to the relationship between leadership and intent to stay. Researchers covered in this review used different leadership styles as independent variables. Several studies (Furtado, Batista, & Silva, 2011; Forest & Kleiner, 2011) indicated that leadership style is a reliable predictor of intent to stay; however, the researchers did not discuss how two or more different leadership styles could affect intent to stay.

Organizational commitment and intent to stay. One of the objectives of this study was to examine the relationship between organizational commitment and intent to stay. Reviewing previous studies related to this relationship prove vital in this study. This sub-section of the literature review covered relevant studies related to the relationship between organizational commitment and intent to stay.

Organizational commitment affects several work related outcomes including employees' intent to stay or leave their organizations (Olsen, Orr, Bell, & Stuart, 2013).

As the intent to stay is the best predictor of turnover, Brewer, Kovner, Greene, Tukov-Shuser and Djukic (2012) factors affecting intent to stay are likely to affect turnover. This sub-section of the literature review covered studies related to the relationship organizational commitment and either intent to stay or turnover intent.

To determine the reasons why employees stay with their employers, Hausknecht, Rodda, and Howard (2009) developed and tested a content model for employee retention. The study sample included 24,829 workers in the fields of hotel and leisure in China. The results indicated that organizational commitment is among one of the most mentioned factors as a reason for staying.

In a quantitative study, Rashid and Raja (2011) used data from 300 employees from six banks in Pakistan to investigate the relationship between organizational commitment and employee retention. The results showed a positive relationship between the two variables. The study of Rashid and Raja also showed that corporate culture has a mediating effect on the relationship between organizational commitment and retention.

Using survey data from 206 employees from a medical and information technology company in South Africa, van Dyk and Coetzee (2012) investigated the relationship between organizational commitment and retention. The results showed a significant and positive relationship between organizational commitment and retention. Van Dyk and Coetzee argued that factors such as gender, race, age, and tenure groups affect the relationship between these two variables.

Although all three types of organizational commitment including affective,

normative, and continuance relate positively to intent to stay, different types of organizational commitment may have different levels of relationship with intent to stay (Yücel, 2012). The results of the study showed that both affective commitment and continuance commitment correlate with turnover intention; but affective commitment and turnover intention had the strongest relationship.

Researchers have emphasized the mediating role of affective commitment on the relationship between intent to stay or leave and other organizational factors (Galletta et al., 2011; Joarder, Sharif, & Ahmmed, 2011). Joarder et al. (2011) demonstrated the mediating role affecting commitment on the negative relationship between human resource management practices and turnover intention using data from 317 faculty members of private universities. Through a cross-validation technique, Galletta et al. (2011) analyzed data from 442 nurses and showed that job autonomy and intrinsic work motivation relate negatively to turnover intention, with affective commitment as the mediator. Using data from 20 human resource managers and 1,748 employees from 93 different job groups, Gardner, Wright, and Moynihan (2011) found that affective commitment plays a critical mediating role in the negative relationship between empowerment, and skill enhancing practices and turnover intention.

This subsection covered relevant literature related to the relationship between organizational commitment and intent to stay. Studies reviewed in this subsection used affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment as independent or control variables. Although all the researchers found a positive

association between organizational commitment and intent to stay, the level of relationship indicated different for the three types of organizational commitment. Affective commitment and continuance commitment had a stronger correlation with intent to stay than normative did. Researchers also highlighted the mediating role of affective commitment in the relationship between intent to stay and other factors such as job satisfaction, job autonomy, and empowerment.

Drivers of intent to stay. In addition to leadership style and organizational commitment, several other factors drive employees' intentions to stay with their employing organizations. This sub-section of the literature review covered relevant studies addressing other factors that drive intent to stay. The review focused on the drivers of intent to stay, turnover, and retention.

G. Chen et al. (2011) found job satisfaction as an important driver of employee turnover in organizations. G. Chen et al. conducted two different studies to investigate the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention. The sample of the first study included 198 soldiers from the U.S. Army, 228 soldiers from the British Army, and 198 employees from a British consulting company. In the second study, G. Chen et al. surveyed 93 MBA students from the United States. The results of the both studies showed that job satisfaction is a powerful driver of turnover intention. Lopez, White, and Carder (2014) believed that job satisfaction affects intent to stay. Similarly, Costen and Salazar (2011) argued that job satisfaction is an important driver of an employee's intent to stay with a company.

Compensation policy is a significant driver of intent to stay (Riddell, 2011). Using employee-employer benchmarking data, Riddell (2011) examined the effect of compensation policy and employees' intentions to stay. Riddell focused on pay equality among individuals within the same hierarchy. The results showed that companies with egalitarian pay policies have higher retention rates.

Workplace justice is another driver of intent to stay (Cantor, Macdonald, & Crum, 2011). In a study involving data from 604 commercial truck drivers from two different trucking companies, Cantor et al. (2011) found a positive relationship between workplace justice and drivers' intent to stay. Cantor et al. argued that the results of their study agreed with previous studies. Similarly, using survey data from 163 employees from various organizations in Malaysia, Poon (2012) found a positive relationship between organizational justice and employee intent to stay with a company.

A. Smith, Oczkowski, and Smith (2011) found learning within an organization as a driver of intent to stay. In their study, A. Smith et al. made a distinction between short-term turnover and long-term skill retention. The study involved data from 300 Australian organizations. The results indicated that learning decreases short-term turnover and increases long-term skill retention. A. Smith et al. defined long-term skill retention as an employer's confidence in retaining skills necessary to achieve the organization's long-term goals.

This subsection covered literature related to factors that drive intent to stay. In addition to leadership style and organizational commitment, researchers have found

factors such as job satisfaction, compensation, workplace justice, and learning within an organization to be drivers of an employee's intent to stay with a company. This review reinforces the assumption that factors that influence retention and turnover also affect intent to stay or leave.

The intent to stay section of the literature review covered relevant studies related to intent to stay and its relationship with organizational commitment and leadership. The section also covered studies related to other drivers of intent to stay. Researchers who conducted previous studies found leadership to be an important driver of intent to stay; however, researchers reviewed in this section did not address how different leadership styles affect intent to stay. The outcome of studies on the relationship between organizational commitment and intent to stay showed three patterns.

First, all three types of organizational commitment positively affect intent to stay (Yücel, 2012). Second, affective commitment has a stronger relationship with intent to stay than continuance commitment. Finally, affective commitment plays a mediating role in the relationship between other organizational factors and intent stay. In addition to leadership style and organizational commitment, several other factors such as job, compensation policy, workplace justice, and learning within the organization affect intent to stay.

The literature review covered relevant previous and current studies related to the relationship between leadership style, organizational commitment, and intent to stay. The organization of this literature review consisted of three main sections, including a section

on leadership, a section on organizational commitment, and a section on intent to stay. Topics covered in the leadership section included a definition of leadership, leadership theories, leadership styles, and leadership in business. A thorough review of the literature revealed that the concept of leadership has various definitions, theories, and styles.

Organizational commitment included topics such as drivers of organizational commitment, types of organizational commitment, and organizational commitment in a company. Several factors such as job satisfaction, hope, health, security, emotion, and leadership drive organizational commitment. Researchers found three different types of organizational commitment including affective, continuance, and normative commitments. The desire, the need, and the obligation to commit describe affective, continuance, and normative commitments, respectively.

Topics covered in the intent to stay section included: leadership and intent to stay, organizational commitment and intent to stay, and other drivers of intent to stay. Researchers have found leadership to be an influential driver of intent to stay; however, researchers reviewed in this section did not address how different leadership styles affect intent to stay (Furtado et al., 2011; Shuck & Herd, 2012). The results of studies on the relationship between organizational commitment and intent to stay showed three patterns. First, all three types of organizational commitment positively affect intent to stay. Second, affective commitment has a stronger relationship with intent to stay than continuance commitment. Finally, affective commitment plays a mediating role in the relationship between other organizational factors and intent to stay. In addition to

leadership style and organizational commitment, several other factors such as job, compensation policy, workplace justice, and learning within the organization affect intent to stay.

A thorough review of the literature revealed that businesses present a compelling opportunity to investigate the relationship between leadership style, organizational commitment, and intent to stay. The results of the studies in this literature review indicated that leadership affects intent to stay; however, none of the authors of the reviewed studies addressed how different leadership styles affect intent to stay. This literature review revealed that affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment affect intent to stay; however, this effect is stronger with affective commitment.

Transition and Summary

The objective of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between leadership style, organizational commitment, and junior executive intent to stay with a company. Section 1 of this study contains the foundation and the background of the study. This section includes a demonstration of the worthiness of conducting this study. Topics covered included the background of the study; the problem and purpose statement; the nature of the study; the research question, hypotheses, and interview questions; the definition of terms; the assumptions, limitations, and delimitation; the significance of the study; and the literature review.

Grounded on motivation theories, this study addressed an unknown population

size of executives employed near the southern region in the United States: Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, and West Virginia. The sample of the study included 107 junior executives located in the above geographic locations. The results of the study are likely to apply only to junior executives. The results of this study may benefit businesses as well as the military by increasing the understanding of senior leaders on the factors affecting employee retention. The results may benefit social change by providing a means to increasing the retention of employees, hence, improving productivity, and profits. The study results may add to the literature by contributing to the body of knowledge related to employee retention. Section 2 of the study covers the strategy used to select participants, collect, validate, organize, and analyze data. Section 3 covers the representation of the results, the implication of the study, recommendation for action, and further research.

Section 2: The Project

Section 2 contains further description, in detail, of the facets of this study centered on predictions relating to the credible outcome of this study. Section 1 of the study included an introduction to the research, as well as the logic for conducting the study. This section includes discussions of the strategies used to collect and analyze data as well as elements such as the (a) purpose of the study, (b) role of the researcher, (c) participants, (d) research method and design, (e) population, (f) sampling, (g) concerns related to ethical research, and (h) reliability and validity.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine how a direct leader's leadership style and junior executives' organizational commitment relate to a junior executive's intent to stay with a company. The two independent variables (X_n) were the direct leader's leadership style (X_1) and junior executives' organizational commitment (X_2). The dependent variable was junior executives' intent to stay with a company (Y_1). The population addressed in this study included 100 junior executives employed in the southern region. The study results may contribute to social change by providing senior executives with tools to aid retention through prediction of attrition and possible reduction of causes of attrition. Retention methods and strategies developed using this study's findings may benefit companies in corporate America and governmental organizations. Findings may provide insight as to when to offer an incentive such as bonus pay, higher education, and other training options for retention.

Society may further benefit as experienced junior executives remain in their companies to help sustain communities.

Role of the Researcher

In a quantitative study, a researcher examines the relationship among variables (Frels & Onwuegbuzie, 2013). When conducting a quantitative research study, a researcher functions as the instrument and must remain objective about the research and remain uninvolved with human subjects (Venkatesh et al., 2013). My role as the researcher in this quantitative study was to compile, organize, analyze, and interpret data to test the hypotheses and answer the research questions. I maintained the highest ethical standard possible in every stage of the study.

In addition, I obtained the necessary permissions from the Walden University Institutional Review Board (IRB) to conduct research. In this process, informed consent is a vital component. The content of the e-mail invitation to participate/consent form educated the participants about this study before they decided to participate. Informed consent allows research participants to understand their rights (Myers & Venable, 2014). Finally, to ensure that my personal biases and opinions did not affect the study, I used preexisting surveys validated through empirical research to collect data.

In summary, as the researcher in this study with respect to the data, I followed steps to collect, compile, organize, analyze, and interpret the results. During each stage of the study, I sought to maintain the highest ethical standards. Furthermore, I ensured that my personal biases and opinions did not affect the results of the study.

Participants

This section includes a description of the process used to obtain participants and protect participants' rights. Researchers often need participants to collect data. Selecting the right participants is a decisive stage in any research. This study population consisted of individuals currently working as junior executives. For the purpose of this study, a *junior executive* is a person working as a manager or director under a chief executive officer (CEO), chief financial officer (CFO), or any senior executive. As such, I collected data using a nonprobability, purposive sampling technique. *Purposive sampling* refers to the targeting of groups based on specific inclusion criteria. Purposive sampling is a nonprobability sampling technique employed to obtain participants for a study that fit a specific demographic or other specified criterion when probability sampling cannot be used (Smith et al., 2011).

The sample size power calculation involved the usage of G*Power 3 to calculate the required sample size to find significance (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009). Using an alpha level of .05, a power of .80, and an effect size of .15, the required sample size to find significance with three predictors is 77. This sample size was not accomplishable in the allocated time for the study. The allotted timeframe to conduct the data collection was 2 weeks. Wertheimer (2015) posited that researchers must maintain ethical standards, meet legal requirements, abide by the code of conduct, and embrace social responsibility when conducting research. Conducting the survey online minimized the probability of harm to the participants of this study.

SurveyMonkey[®], an online data collection website, collected the data from the junior executives in place of me. Upon receiving Walden University IRB approval for the survey instruments as well as the informed consent form, I entered the information into the SurveyMonkey application. The application then forwarded the survey to the participants, collected the data, and returned an electronic version of the data stripped of participant identifying information to me. The data excluded participants' identification to ensure confidentiality. As part of the data collection process, an electronic signed informed consent form opened the survey.

Upon receipt of the de-identified data, I stored the data in TrueCrypt on my personal computer, where the data will remain for 5 years. TrueCrypt is a secure and encrypted electronic storage system. At the end of 5 years, I will permanently delete all data from my computer. Other researchers can obtain the data from this study upon written request.

Research Method and Design

The approach used in this study was a quantitative method and correlational research design using survey methodology to collect data from willing participants. The aim of this study was to examine the relationship among organizational commitment, leadership style, and intent to stay. A quantitative method measured the interaction among variables to answer the research question (Crede & Borrego, 2014). This section explains the rationale for why the quantitative method was the most appropriate design for this study, as opposed to a qualitative method or mixed method.

Method

Researchers have three research methods to choose from—quantitative, qualitative, and mixed method—when conducting a study (Venkatesh et al., 2013). Researchers explore the contingencies of their studies before making a decision to use a specific research method (Migiros & Magangi, 2011). The choice of a specific research method depends on the purpose of the study, type of data used, and method used to analyze data (Tsai & Su, 2011).

This study was a quantitative study. A quantitative method was appropriate rather than a qualitative or mixed method for several reasons, including the objectives of the study, type of data collected, and planned statistical tests. This section covers the justification for choosing this method over the other two research methods.

Quantitative approaches typically support ideas with deductive reasoning, whereas qualitative designs focus on the formulation of theory through inductive reasoning (Welbourne, 2012). Frels and Onwuegbuzie (2013) categorized statistical studies as quantitative and other methods as qualitative. Furthermore, Frels and Onwuegbuzie referred to mixed method as a third type of research that uses components of both qualitative and quantitative methods. Positivist researchers use quantitative research methods to predict the relationships between variables and subsequently define these relationships as research questions or hypotheses (Lunde, Heggen, & Strand, 2013).

The purpose of this study, which was to examine the relationship between two independent variables (X_n), leadership style (X_1) and organizational commitment (X_2), and

a dependent variable (Y_n), intent to stay (Y_I), aligned with the principles of a quantitative research method. Furthermore, the extraction and analysis of numerical data from surveys were empirical statistical procedure steps. Accordingly, a quantitative method was the most appropriate method for examining the relationship between variables (Venkatesh et al., 2013).

A qualitative method was not appropriate for this study because the goal of a qualitative method is to comprehend individual experiences, actions, and motivations, rather than test existing theories (Hays & Wood, 2011). A mixed methods approach may provide additional information not gleaned from statistically testing the hypotheses but does not align with a deductive reasoning approach. In addition, a mixed methods approach presented challenges when considering the time and resource constraints in this study. Mayoh and Onwuegbuzie (2013) postulated that a mixed methods approach requires a researcher to gather both qualitative and quantitative data and analyze the information via deductive and inductive methods, respectively.

The choice of a quantitative method for this study proved consistent with recent similar studies. Bressler (2010) used a quantitative research method to examine the relationship between organizational commitment and intent to stay among U.S. Army Reserve soldiers. Similarly, Stowers (2010) used a quantitative research method to examine the relationship between support and organizational commitment in the United U.S.States Army Reserve. Moreover, Vadell (2008) examined the relationship between organizational commitment and intent to stay of Air Force officers via the quantitative

method (Bressler, 2010; Stowers, 2010; Vadell, 2008).

Research Design

The aim of the research was to test the relationship between two independent variables and a dependent variable. A correlational design was an appropriate strategy given the nature of the variables. This section includes a discussion of the choice of a correlational design over an experimental design.

A quantitative study can be either experimental or survey research. Survey research is also known as correlational research (Venkatesh et al., 2013). According to Salthouse (2011), a correlation design is a type of descriptive quantitative research that involves examining possible relationships among variables. In contrast, an experimental study is appropriate when a researcher manipulates participants to examine the effect of a specific intervention on these participants (Venkatesh et al., 2013). A correlational design cannot prove that one variable causes change in another variable; rather, it tests the relationship between variables (Rowe, Raudenbush, & Goldin-Meadow, 2012). A correlational research design fit the purpose of this study because this study examined relationships without manipulations of participants. In studies similar to this, Bressler (2010), Stowers (2010), and Vadell (2008) used a correlational design in their research.

After considering the different research methods and associated research designs, I determined that a quantitative research method with a correlational design fit this study. The quantitative method was the appropriate strategy for this study because the focus of the study aligned with the objective associated with the quantitative method (i.e.,

examining the relationship between variables). Moreover, correlational design was appropriate given that the focus of the study was to examine the relationship between variables without changing the research environment or manipulating participants.

Population and Sampling

The population for this study included junior executives in various companies. The sample population included 107 junior executives. For the purpose of this study, a *junior executive* is a person working as a manager or director under a chief executive officer (CEO), chief financial officer (CFO), or any senior executive. This section covers the description of the population for this study and the strategy used to select participants.

Given time and resource constraints, it was not feasible to collect data from the entire population. To obtain a distribution similar to the one found in the population, I used a random purposive sampling method to obtain willing participants. The basic definition of criterion purposive sampling indicates that this sampling method targets a group within a population based on specific criteria from the researcher (Emmertson, Fejzic, & Tett, 2012). In support of this approach, Vadell (2008) used purposive sampling in a quantitative study examining the relationship between organizational commitment and intent to stay in the U.S. Air Force.

The data collection process for this study included sending the survey to SurveyMonkey[®]. Those junior executives who met the three conditions to participate and were willing to participate completed the survey. The data collection process aligned with the concepts of purposive sampling in that participants were required to meet three

conditions to be eligible for participation.

At the time of the study, (a) a prospective participant need to be an employed junior executive, and (b) the prospective participant needed to work in the southern region of the United States. The participation goal of the study was at least 96 junior executives. The sample size and the sampling method used in this study were consistent with similar recent studies.

Specifically, Azeem and Akhtar (2014) invited 210 employees to participate in a correlational study examining the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Similarly, Alsaraireh, Quinn Griffin, Ziehm, and Fitzpatrick (2014) invited 179 nurses in a correlational study examining the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention. Eligibility criteria for participants of this study included employment as a junior executive in the southern region of the United States at the time of the study. The population of this study included 107 junior executives employed in the south region of the United States who met the criteria to participate in the study.

Ethical Research

Researchers face ethical dilemmas at every stage of their research. Walden University's IRB compels each doctoral student to have an approved IRB application and ethical research training before data collection. This section covers the steps taken to ensure that this study met ethical requirements.

A copy of the letter of invitation to participate sent by e-mail is located in Appendix F. In this letter, I introduced myself as the researcher and a student at Walden

University pursuing a Doctorate of Business Administration. The first page of the e-mail invitation provided informed consent information. The letter contained information on the purpose behind the study, a statement that participants would receive no incentives for completion of the survey, and a statement that participants could withdraw from the study at any time without consequence.

Participants could stop the survey at any point simply by closing the survey. A participant lost the right to withdraw from the study after stopping or completing the survey because the survey program replaced identifying information with a code, making it impossible to connect the individual responses. The informed consent form stated that participants' individual identities remained confidential and that I would not collect any names or other identifying information during the survey.

The informed consent letter included a statement that there were no foreseeable risks associated with participating in this study and that completing the study might benefit companies or leadership practices. The letter also contained information about the role of Walden University's IRB and the approval process of the IRB prior to collecting data. Walden University's approval number for this study is **12-20-13-0182801**. Using the SurveyMonkey® application, I administered the survey instrument. This protected the privacy and confidentiality of the junior executives who participated in the research survey.

I provided SurveyMonkey® a written explanation for participants regarding the data collection instruments and the approximate time to complete the survey. Participants

partaking in the survey received an e-mail with an electronic link to launch the survey. The survey remained available for participants to self-administer at their convenience. Participants' confidentiality, stated on the first page of the online survey, reinforced the understanding of commitment.

The survey remained open for 2 weeks. Participants received no penalty for choosing not to complete the survey. At the end of the survey period, SurveyMonkey[®] made the data collection accessible to download in an SPSS file from a secured website.

The downloaded data collection remains stored in TrueCrypt on my personal computer for 5 years, after the publication of my doctoral study, with a plan to delete after the 5 years expires. TrueCrypt is a secured and encrypted electronic storage system. Requests for a copy of the data require a written request to me.

This section focused on my knowledge about the importance to adhere to ethical norms and the standards of conduct in research. Participation in the research study was on a voluntary basis. By design, participants reserved the right to withdraw from the study at any time without penalty. Furthermore, I retained the data collected in TrueCrypt on a password-protected computer, with deletion of all electronic files and destruction of any paper documents pertaining to the data collection.

Data Collection

Data collection is an essential factor in any field of research. This section discusses the three subtopics that unified the data collection process. A researcher must also consider what data will best answer the research questions listed in the study. The

first topic explains the choice of the instrument for this study, which is a web-based survey. The data collection technique is the second subtopic chosen to collect the data with the online survey. The concluding topic expands on the data organization techniques used to organize and secure the data throughout the study.

Instruments

The survey instruments used in this study provided a system to assess the relationship among leadership style and organizational commitment as independent variables, and the intent to stay as the dependent variable. Three different instruments formulated the survey for this study, which included the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, the Three-Component Model, the Employee Commitment Survey, and the intent to stay scale to measure leadership style, organizational commitment, and intent to stay. All the instruments used in this study received validation in previous studies; therefore, a validity test was not necessary in this study (Rahman & Post, 2012). Data collection instruments produced the same validity score when using data from different populations and samples (McCrae, Kurtz, Yamagata, & Terracciano, 2011; Rahman & Post, 2012).

Two Walden University DBA alumni who used quantitative research methods in their doctoral studies reviewed this study and provided feedback to confirm that the instruments measured the intended variable. The feedback suggested that the instruments are likely to provide accurate measure of intended variables. Based on the peer feedback, I changed the tense of the first word of each sentence in the surveys to fit the specific

context of this study. Such changes would not affect the validity of an instrument (Meyer & Allen, 2004). This section includes a separate discussion for each of the three instruments. This section includes a separate discussion for each of the three instruments.

Multifactor leadership scale (MLQ). To collect data on leadership style, I purchased the MLQ 5X-short form and its manual from Mind Garden. Based on the license for using the MLQ survey (see Appendix B), five questions were published in the final paper to ensure information propriety. Both this section and Appendix A include the five selected questions from the MLQ used to collect data for this study.

According to Bass and Avolio (2004), researchers developed surveys to measure leadership style; however, these previous surveys ignored important factors such as inspirational motivation. Bass and Avolio developed the MLQ to cover behaviors of leaders in a broader range, from laissez-faire leadership to idealized leadership, while highlighting the difference between effective and ineffective leaders. The MLQ is the most commonly used instrument to measure transformational and transactional leadership style (Sahaya, 2012). According to Bass and Avolio, researchers used the MLQ for the past 25 years to measure leadership effectiveness in various domains including military, government, correctional, healthcare, manufacturing, education, and nonprofit.

The latest version of MLQ is the Form 5X, which includes 5X-short that includes 45 items and 5X-long that includes 63 items (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Bass and Avolio (2004) alleged that the 5X-long is more useful for consultants than it is for researchers; therefore, a researcher should use the form 5X-short. Based on Bass and Avolio's

recommendation, the MLQ form 5X-short was a reliable instrument to collect data for this study. The 5X-short has two different types, including a leader form in which the leaders rate themselves, and the rater form, in which another individual rates the leaders. Because the focus of this study was on the perception of junior executives about their leaders' style, it was more appropriate to use the rater form.

The 5X-short form includes nine different scales with four items each to measure transformational, transactional, and passive avoidant leadership styles. The 5-point Likert-type scale items are *0 = Not at all*, *1 = Once in a while*, *2 = Sometimes*, *3 = Fairly often*, and *4 = Frequently, if not always*. In this study, only the six scales measured transformational and transactional leadership styles. The six scales included (a) idealized attributes, (b) idealized behavior, (c) inspirational motivation, (d) intellectual stimulation, (e) individual consideration for the measure of transformational leadership, and (f) contingent reward and management by exception for the measure of transactional leadership (Bass & Avolio, 2004). To comply with the agreement, I published five sample questions in this study; three for transformational leadership and two for transactional leadership. The sample items included:

1. Provided me with assistance in exchange for my efforts.
2. Reexamined critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate.
3. Failed to interfere until problems become serious.
4. Focused attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards.

5. Avoided getting involved when important issues arose.

Using the MLQ form 5X-short, participants rated their previous direct leaders using the scale of *1 = Not at all*, *2 = Once in a while*, *3 = Sometimes*, *4 = Fairly often*, and *5 = Frequently, if not always*. I assigned two scores to each participant based on the results of the survey. A score for transformational leadership was the average of the scores from all items measuring transformational leadership and a score for transactional leadership was the average of the scores from the items measuring transactional leadership. This score in the data analysis measured the relationship between leadership style and intent to stay.

The MLQ 5X is a valid and reliable instrument to measure transformational and transactional leadership (Bogler, Caspi, & Roccas, 2013). To test the reliability of this instrument, Bass and Avolio (2004) collected and analyzed data from 2,154 individuals; no self-ratings included. After analyzing the data, Bass and Avolio found reliabilities for the total items and for each scale ranging from 0.74 to 0.94. According to Yunus (2010), scores greater than 0.70 indicates strong internal consistency. The sample population data from 107 participants validated the instrument through the analysis of Cronbach's alpha ranging from 0.79 to 0.97. Cronbach alpha provides a means for testing the reliability of a survey instrument (Yunus, 2010).

Three-Component Model (TCM) Employee Commitment Survey. To measure organizational commitment, the affective and continuance scales, I used Meyer and Allen's (2004) revised TCM Employee Commitment Survey. The academic version of

the instrument as well as the user guide remains available as a free download on the employee commitment website. The TCM Employee Commitment Survey is a valid instrument used to measure affective, continuance, and normative commitment (Bressler, 2010). The revised TCM Employee Commitment Survey is an 18-item instrument with six items for affective commitment, six items for continuance commitment, and six items for normative commitment (Meyer & Allen, 2004). The items in this instrument are scaled using a 5-point Likert-type format ranging from 1 to 5 where 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither disagree nor agree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree (Meyer & Allen, 2004).

Because this study focused only on affective and continuance commitments, only 12 items were used to measure affective and continuance commitments. Meyer and Allen (2004) reversed some questions to force respondents to read each question carefully instead of going through them haphazardly. To align these items with the purpose of the study and stronger groupings, I used a 5-point Likert-type format ranging from 1 to 5 where 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither disagree nor agree, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree (Meyer & Allen, 2004).

Following was the list of the 12 items. This list is also available in Appendix C. Reversed scored items are marked with R:

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
3. I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization. (R)

4. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization. (R)
5. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. (R)
6. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
7. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
8. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.
9. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.
10. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.
11. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.
12. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.

The first six items measure affective commitment and the second six items measure continuance commitment (Meyer & Allen, 2004). To use the TCM Employee Commitment Survey in research, Meyer and Allen (2004) recommended grouping each participant's scores by scale. Meyer and Allen suggested averaging the score of the individual items to obtain the overall score for each scale. Based on these recommendations, each participant's score became part of the affective commitment score and a continuance commitment score.

Bressler (2010) used the organizational commitment scale to measure affective and continuance commitment of United States Army Reserve soldiers. The reliability Cronbach's alpha (α) coefficient of affective scale and continuance scale of the TCM Employee Commitment Survey are .72 and .77, respectively (Krishnaveni & Ramkumar, 2008). These are acceptable reliability scores given that they exceed .70 (Yunus, 2010). To confirm the reliability of the instrument, I gathered data from all participants of the study to compute the Cronbach Alpha (α).

Intent to stay scale. The modified version of the intent to stay scale was the instrument used to collect data for the dependent variable (Y_n), which was intent to stay (Y_I), (Price & Mueller, 1981). The intent to stay scale uses a single question to measure an employee's intention to remain with an organization. The single question was; "Which of the following statements most clearly reflects your feelings about your future in the hospital? (a) Definitely will not leave, (b) Probably will not leave, (c) Uncertain, (d) Probably will leave, (e) Definitely will leave" (Price & Mueller, 1981, p. 546). Several researchers modified the intent to stay scale to fit their purposes (Garbee, 2006; Kosmoski & Calkin, 1986; Ruel, 2009). Kosmoski and Calkin (1986) expanded the intent to stay scale to increase the reliability of the instrument. Garbee (2006) modified the scale to measure nurses' intent to stay with three questions and nurses' intent to leave with three questions. Ruel (2009) converted Garbee's three 7-points Likert-type scale items. A sample question of Ruel's intent to stay scale was "I intend to stay in my current job and present university for one year" (p. 43). I modified Ruel's version into one-item

to fit the purpose of this study. The question on the instrument used a 5 point Likert type scale, with 1 to 5; 1 = I will stay less than 2 years, 2 = I will stay 2 to 5 years, 3 = 5 to 10 years, 4 = I am undecided, 5 = I will stay until full Social Security retirement age.

The following item included:

1. When do you plan to leave the company?

The question and the intent to stay scale are available in Appendix F. The intent to stay score was the average of the scores of the question. An instrument cannot be valid without being reliable (Engberg & Berben, 2012). The intent to stay scale is a reliable instrument (Ruel, 2009). Kosmoski and Calkin (1986) showed an alpha value of 0.90 for the intent to stay scale. A 0.90 alpha value is a strong reliability score (Yunus, 2010). To confirm the reliability of the instrument in this study, I computed the Cronbach Alpha (α) using the data from all participants.

The three instruments in this study measured direct leader's leadership style, junior executive's organizational commitment, and the junior executive's intent to stay with a company. The procurement of the MLQ survey and authorization for use are in Appendix B. The TCM employee commitment and intent to stay scale are free for academic use and do not require permission to use. Each participant had five different scores including two scores for the leadership style (transformational and transactional), two scores for organizational commitment (affective and continuance), and one score for intent to stay. Five scores per participant provided data to examine the relationship between leadership style, organizational commitment, and intent to stay.

Data Collection Technique

In a quantitative study, data are in number or numerical form. Data collection techniques vary among research methods and designs. This section covers the steps used to collect data for this study. The data collection for this study required the approval of Walden University's IRB.

A cross-sectional survey allows a researcher to collect data at one particular point in time (Francesconi, Sutherland, & Zantomio, 2011). This survey method is popular because of its rapid turnaround in data collection and the economy of design (Francesconi et al., 2011). Given the current growth in the use of Internet, an online survey is a rapid and convenient way to reach a large number of participants in less time. Because of its low cost and the high speed, an online survey is one of the most popular methods for quantitative data collection (Vu & Hoffmann, 2011).

SurveyMonkey[®] automatically created an e-mail invitation from an electronic roster with access to the survey link to each participant. Each invitation e-mail sent to participants contained a survey link for participants to click to start the survey. The participants had to acknowledge informed consent to start the survey. Participants could withdraw from the survey at any time by closing their web browser.

The survey remained available online 1 week after reaching the minimum number of responses. After the completion of the survey, SurveyMonkey[®] stores the data for 5 years behind a secured firewall in a data storage system. Survey data are available by written request to me.

After receiving collected data from SurveyMonkey®, I stored electronic data on a private, encrypted electronic file storage system on my personal computer for 5 years. The online survey served as the instrument used in this study to collect data from a purposive sample of 107 junior executives employed in the South Census region in the United States: Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, and West Virginia. SurveyMonkey® collected the data using the survey instruments and supplied an electronic file of the data results. SurveyMonkey® stored the data and I stored the data in TrueCrypt for 5 years until time of deletion and destruction.

Data Organization Techniques

After collecting data, I organized and prepared the data for analysis. This process included coding and transforming data in an analyzable format. This section covers the steps used to prepare and organize the data collected for analysis in this study. The process of coding and organization of the data began after receiving data from SurveyMonkey®.

The scores from the MLQ questions provided data to compute the scores for transformational leadership and transaction leadership constructs. The scores from the TCM Employee Commitment Survey questions section applied to the affective and continuance commitment constructs. Finally, the intent to stay score provided the data for the scores of the questions using the intent to stay scale. The process of data organization

followed the computation. The data did not include any personal information about participants. To avoid confusion in the data, I coded the data for each participant by a four-digit alphanumeric code ranging from P001 to PXXX. In this coding, XXX represented the number of participants, assuming the study had less than 1,000 participants.

For study variables, I coded each question within each instrument by a three-digit alphanumeric code ranging from Q01 to QXX, with XX representing the number of questions within a specific data collection instrument. For example, the first and second questions of the MLQ were Q01 and Q02, respectively. I grouped the coded questions according to instrument and by scale. The organizational commitment and leadership style variables included two scales each and the intent to stay includes one scale. Each participant had a score in each of the five scales; these five scales represented the variables used in the data analysis. The score of each variable was the average of the scores of the questions within that variable.

In this study, I coded data for each leadership style, two organization commitment variables, and the intent to stay variable. The six columns included one column for participant identification (P001 to PXXX), one column for each of the leadership style variables, one column for each of the two organizational commitment variables, and one column for the intent to stay variable. After coding the data and computing the scores for each variable, I organized the transformed data into six columns in SPSS version 20.

To conduct the data analysis, I used a six-column table. Electronic data remains

stored in TrueCrypt and hard copies stored in a locked container for 5 years.

At the end of 5 years, after the publication of my doctoral study, I will destroy all hard copies including backup copies of data using a shredding device and permanently delete all data from my password-protected computer.

After receiving the data from SurveyMonkey[®], I coded the data and computed scores for each variable. Following computing the scores, I organized the data into a six-column SPSS table for data analysis. The data remain stored in TrueCrypt for 5 years after the publication of my doctoral study, and deleted afterward.

Data Analysis Technique

The data analysis process for this study focused on testing the hypotheses to answer two research questions:

1. What is the relationship between leadership style and intent to stay with a company?
2. What is the relationship between organizational commitment and intent to stay with a company?

This section covers the process used to analyze the data for this study. After coding and transforming the data into a five-column table as described in the previous sub-section, the data were loaded into SPSS version 20 for data analysis. SPSS is a menu driven user interface statistical software package suited for academic research (Yunus, 2010). All statistical analysis tools have strengths and weaknesses depending on the circumstances (Sherman & Serfass, in press).

The choice of SPSS for the data analysis of this study relates to my academic experience with the software. SPSS is a well-documented and easy to learn statistical analysis program. Learning SPSS and passing the quantitative research class were part of the requirements for completing Walden University's DBA program.

Reliability Testing

Researchers found sufficient reliability of all the three survey instruments used in this study. The reliability of each instrument depends on the data collection from each willing participant. To confirm the reliability of the instruments, I used data from all participants to compute Cronbach's alpha (α). The transformational leadership questions tested at .97, the transactional leadership questions tested at .81, affective commitment questions tested .88, and the final set of questions about continuance commitment tested at .79. Cronbach's alpha allows for testing the reliability of a survey instrument (Yunus, 2010). Scholars such as AbuAlRub and Alghamdi (2012) and Vadell (2008) used Cronbach's alpha to test the reliability of instruments they used to measure the same variables used in this study.

Descriptive Analysis

In the data analysis process, descriptive analysis followed reliability testing. Descriptive statistics allows for describing quantitative variables within levels of qualitative variables (Yunus, 2010). I coded the descriptive statistics to examine the distribution of data. Some of the measures included the standard deviation, mean, and variance.

Hypotheses Testing

The focus of this study was to examine the relationship between leadership style, organizational commitment, and intent to stay. Following were the research questions and hypotheses considered in this study.

Research Question 1: What is the relationship between leadership style and intent to stay with a company?

H1₀: Leadership style does not correlate with intent to stay with a company.

H1_a: Leadership style correlates with intent to stay with a company.

Research Question 2: What is the relationship between organizational commitment and intent to stay with a company?

H2₀: Organizational commitment does not correlate with intent to stay with a company.

H2_a: Organizational commitment correlates with intent to stay with a company.

Multiple linear regressions were the omnibus analysis in this study. In the process of the regression analysis, I assessed bivariate correlations between each independent variable and the dependent variable. Bivariate correlation is a statistical analysis method used to assess the degree of linear relationship between variables in a sample (Yunus, 2010). The correlation between two variables is high when points of the two variables converge toward a straight line called a regression line (Cho & Fryzlewicz, 2012). The index for bivariate correlation ranges from -1 to +1, indicating the degree of relationship (Yunus, 2010). A required p value of less than 0.05 controlled for type 1 errors. This

analysis allowed me to reject or accept the null hypotheses $H1_0$ and $H2_0$, and answer the two research questions of the study.

The choice of multiple linear regressions for this study tested consistent with recent similar studies. Using data from Saudi Arabian hospital, AbuAlRub and Alghamdi (2012) used multiple linear regressions to examine the relationship between leadership style, nurse satisfaction, and intent to stay. Similarly, Bressler (2010) used multiple linear regressions to examine the relationship between hope, organizational commitment, and intent to stay of United States Army Reserve soldiers.

SPSS version 20 served as the data analysis tool in this study. The multiple linear regressions were the omnibus analysis in this study. In the process of the regression analysis, I assessed bivariate correlations between each independent variable and the dependent variable. The results of these statistical tests allowed me to reject or accept the null hypotheses, hence answering the research questions.

Reliability and Validity

This section contains a discussion on reliability and validity of the instruments used in the study. Researchers employ reliability and validity in quantitative research to measure the internal consistency of an instrument and measure continuity of the construct, (i.e., validity). This section contains an outline of the steps implemented to ensure reliability and validity.

Reliability

In a quantitative study, reliability depends on the instrument used to collect data

(McCrae et al., 2011; Rahman & Post, 2012). Researchers have found support for the reliability of the instruments used in this study (Bass & Avolio, 2004; Kosmoski & Calkin, 1986; Krishnaveni & Ramkumar, 2008). To test reliability of the MLQ instrument, Bass and Avolio (2004) collected and analyzed data from 2,154 individuals; no self-ratings were included.

After analyzing the data, Bass and Avolio (2004) found reliabilities for all items and for each leadership factor scale ranging from 0.74 to 0.94. Reliability for the affective scale and continuance scale is acceptable, with a Cronbach's alpha coefficient (α) of 0.716 and 0.767, respectively (Krishnaveni & Ramkumar, 2008). Kosmoski and Calkin (1986) showed an alpha value of 0.90 for the intent to stay scale.

Although the instruments in this study tested as reliable instruments, another reliability test occurred to confirm the reliability of each instrument to ensure the data reflected internal consistency. To confirm the reliability of the instruments, I gathered data from all participants to compute the Cronbach's alpha (α). The reliability and validity of the instruments were a crucial component of research quality.

The reliability and validity of the instruments were a crucial component of research quality.

Validity

Threats to validity in the study can come from both internal and external sources (Ronau et al., 2014). Internal validity is often associated with validity of instruments used in the study. A valid instrument means that the questions provide an accurate measure of

the relevant constructs. External validity is often associated with generalization of the results to the population of study. This section covers steps used to establish the internal and external validity of this study.

Internal validity. Instrument validity affects the internal validity of a study. When an instrument is not valid, the study may not have sufficient internal validity. Instrument validity means that the questions in an instrument accurately measure the defined construct (Evans, Hartshorn, Cox, & De Jel, 2014). This correlation design is a nonexperimental design and threats to internal validity are not applicable. Threats to internal validity apply to experimental studies only (Rahman & Post, 2012); therefore, threats for internal validity do not affect this study.

External validity. External validity relates to the ability of the sample to be representative of the population (Olsen, Orr, Bell, & Stuart, 2013). Rahman and Post (2012) argued that when calculating the mean of a score, outliers could have a negative effect, especially for a small sample. A representative sample size reduced the threat related to external validity. Because of the unknown population size, I left blank the estimated population size in the G*Power 3 calculator to compute the required sample size to find significance (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009). Using an alpha level of .05, a power of .80, and an effect size of .15, the required sample size to find significance with three predictors is 77. An alternative for increasing external validity is to eliminate outliers. Outliers are data that exist outside of the scope. The observation of outliers is a concern when raw scores converts to z-scores and evaluated to determine if

any score exceed ± 3.29 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). In cases where scores that exceed this value, they were eliminated from the analysis provided they were true outliers.

The reliability and validity section covered steps necessary to establish reliability, internal validity, and external validity of this study. In the process of establishing reliability, data from all participants of the study provided statistics to compute Cronbach's alpha (α) for each survey instrument. The internal validity of the study included a peer review of the survey instruments. The minimum sample size for the study was not large enough to establish external validity.

Transition and Summary

Section 2 describes the process used in the approach of this study. The discussion of the research method and design revealed the purpose of the study, which aligns with a quantitative method and correlational design. A purposive sample of junior executives proved necessary to achieve at least a 95% probability of finding a relationship if one exists in the population. SurveyMonkey[®] was the research site with an online survey system. The data collection instrument used in this study had tested reliably in previous studies. Using SPSS version 20, I run and analyzed the necessary statistical tests on the data. The data analysis included reliability testing, descriptive analysis, and multiple linear regression analysis. Based on the results of the data analysis, I can either reject or accept the null hypotheses, and answer the research questions. Section 3 includes the presentation and discussion of the results of the study, as well as the application of these results to business practice and social change.

Section 3: Application to Professional Practice and Implications for Change

This research study is presented in three sections. In Section 1, the research paradigm provided the underpinning of the study to include the subheading of descriptive contexts that focused on the business problem. Section 2 contained an outline of the strategic plan to investigate the specific business problem. The literature review presented an objective account of several research theories from scholarly resources to develop the theoretical framework for this study. Section 3 provides a detailed explanation of the evidence that relates to the research questions and substantiates the findings and conclusions of the study.

Overview of Study

The purpose of this correlational study was to determine the relationship among the direct leader's leadership style, junior executives' organizational commitment, and junior executives' intent to stay with a company. In an effort to provide senior executives with an increased understanding of factors that affect junior executives, I used a 52-question survey instrument to collect data to test the reliability and validity of the survey instrument in this study. The two research questions that guided this study were as follows:

Research Question 1: What is the relationship between direct leaders' leadership style and junior executives' intent to stay with a company?

Research Question 2: What is the relationship between junior executives' organizational commitment and intent to stay with a company?

The hypotheses to address the research questions of this study were as follows:

H1₀: Direct leaders' leadership styles do not significantly statistically correlate with junior executives' intent to stay with a company.

H1_a: Direct leaders' leadership styles do significantly statistically correlate with junior executives' intent to stay with a company.

Research Question 2: What is the relationship between organizational commitment and intent to stay with a company?

H2₀: Executives' organizational commitment does not significantly statistically correlate with junior executives' intent to stay with a company.

H2_a: Executives' organizational commitment does significantly statistically correlate with junior executives' intent to stay with a company.

Presentation of the Findings

This subsection of the study presents the conclusions from the findings of this quantitative study that answer the research questions and address the hypotheses. The data collected from the 52-question survey answered by the participants provided the results findings as well as the relationship between the two independent variables (X_n) and dependent variable (Y_n). In addition, this subset includes information on how the findings substantiate the theoretical frameworks for this study and correlates to the prevailing body of knowledge on effective business practice.

I collected data purposefully from selected junior executives in the southern region of United States using SurveyMonkey[®]. Data were downloaded for 183

participants directly from SurveyMonkey® as an SPSS data file. The exclusion of 43 participants occurred because they did not complete the survey. I deleted an additional 34 participants for not being self-identified junior executives. I reverse-coded questions as appropriate and created composite scores. I conducted multiple linear regressions to address the research questions.

Descriptive Statistics

Data analysis proceeded with 107 junior executive participants. The majority of these participants were women (61, 57%). Forty (37%) participants were between 40 and 49 years of age. Most of the participants had been with their company either for 1 to 2 years (41, 38%) or for more than 5 years (44, 41%). Intent to stay within the company varied heavily for the participants. Table 2 presents frequencies and percentages for participant demographics.

Table 2

Frequencies and Percentages for Participant Demographics

Demographic	<i>N</i>	%
Gender		
Female	61	57
Male	46	43
Age		
21-29	6	6
30-39	25	23
40-49	40	37
50-59	29	27
60 or older	7	7
Length of time at company		
1-2 years	41	38
3-5 years	22	21
More than 5 years	44	41
Intent to stay		
Stay less than 2 years	29	27
Stay 2 to 5 years	20	19
Stay 6 to 10 years	13	12
Undecided	30	28
Stay until full Social Security retirement age	15	14

I created four composite scores for the study: transformational leadership, transactional leadership, affective commitment, and continuance commitment. The appropriate responses to affective commitment were reverse-coded. When calculating the transactional leadership score, three of the questions did not exist on the survey (Questions 22, 24, and 27 from the MLQ). Therefore, I proceeded with caution in the interpretation of results concerning transactional leadership.

Cronbach's alpha reliability testing provided the subscales to assess the internal reliability of the sample. George and Mallery's (2014) guidelines for alpha levels

explained how to assess the reliability of the scales. Excellent reliability ($> .90$) tested for transformational leadership (.97). Good reliability ($> .80$) tested for transactional leadership (.81) and affective commitment (.88). Acceptable reliability ($> .70$) tested for continuance commitment (.79). Table 3 presents Cronbach's alpha reliability statistics and descriptive statistics for the subscales.

Table 3

Cronbach's Alpha Reliability for Subscales

Subscale	α	No. of items	M	SD
Transformational leadership	.97	20	2.34	1.15
Transactional leadership	.81	5	2.36	1.06
Affective commitment	.88	6	3.26	1.13
Continuance commitment	.79	6	2.89	0.95

Preliminary Correlations

A Pearson correlation matrix measured the strength of linear relationship among intent to stay, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, affective commitment, and continuance commitment. Intent to stay significantly positively correlated with transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and affective commitment. Transformational leadership significantly positively correlated with transactional leadership and affective commitment.

Transactional leadership significantly positively correlated with affective commitment. The correlation between transactional leadership and transformational leadership indicated very strong (.89). Because of the strong correlation between the two

independent variables (thus the presence of multicollinearity), they were combined into a single *leadership* variable; therefore, a bivariate regression analysis was conducted. Table 4 shows the full correlation matrix.

Table 4

Correlation Matrix Among Intent, Transformational, Transactional, Affective, and Continuance

	1	2	3	4
1. Intent to stay	-			
2. Transformational leadership	.46**	-		
3. Transactional leadership	.43**	.89**	-	
4. Affective commitment	.50**	.63**	.55**	-
5. Continuance commitment	.14	.13	.17	.00

* $p \leq .05$. ** $p \leq .01$.

Research Question 1

A bivariate regression analysis was conducted to assess whether leadership scores significantly predicted intent to stay. The predictor variable was leadership style. The dependent variable was intent to stay. Transformational and transactional leadership styles combined into a single leadership style score due to multicollinearity between the two variables. I assessed the assumptions of normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and standardized residuals of the residuals by viewing the normal probability (P-P) plot (Figure 3) and scatterplot of the standardized residuals (Figure 4). One or more of the assumptions were in violation. The existence of a systematic pattern in the scatterplot of the standardized residuals (Figure 4) supports the tenability of the assumptions not being met. Thus, the reader should view the results with caution.

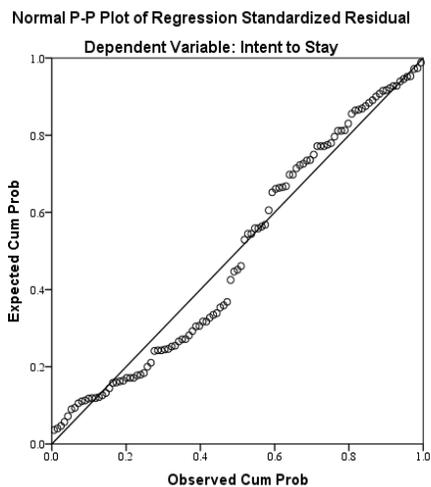


Figure 3. Normality P-P scatterplot for leadership predicting intent to stay.

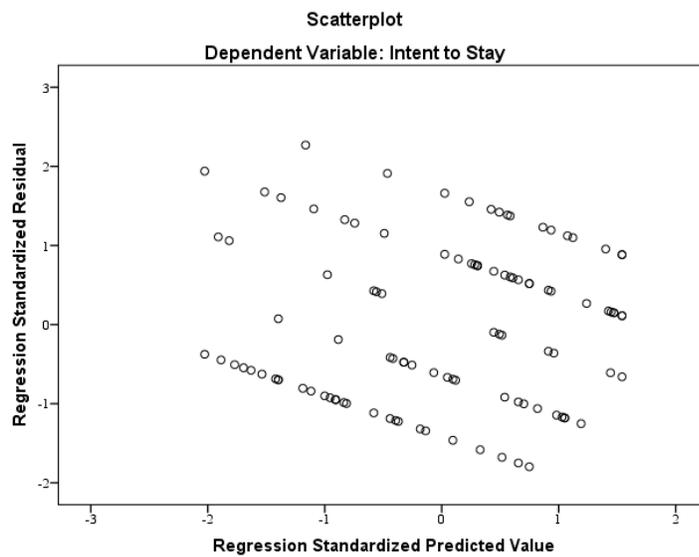


Figure 4. Scatterplot for leadership predicting intent to stay.

The results of the bivariate regression were significant, $F(1, 105) = 27.82, p < .001, R^2 = .21$, suggesting that leadership style significantly predicted intent to stay. The R^2 value indicated that approximately 21% of variations in intent to stay are accounted for by leadership score. The positive slope for leadership ($B = 0.62$) indicated that for every one unit increase in leadership score, intent to stay increased by 0.62 units. The higher a person's leadership score, the more likely the person's intent to stay. The null hypothesis was rejected, and the alternative hypothesis was accepted. Table 5 presents the results of the simple linear regression.

Table 5

Bivariate Linear Regression for Leadership Score Predicting Intent to Stay

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Leadership	0.62	0.12	.46	5.27	.001

Research Question 2

Multiple linear regression analysis was conducted to assess whether affective commitment and continuance commitment significantly predicted intent to stay. The predictor variables were affective commitment and continuance commitment. The dependent variable was intent to stay. I assessed the assumptions of normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and standardized residuals of the residuals by viewing the normal probability (P-P) plot (Figure 5) and scatterplot of the standardized residuals (Figure 6). One or more of the assumptions were in violation. The existence of a systematic pattern in the scatterplot of the standardized residuals (Figure 6) supports the tenability of the

assumptions not being met. Thus, the reader should view the results with caution.

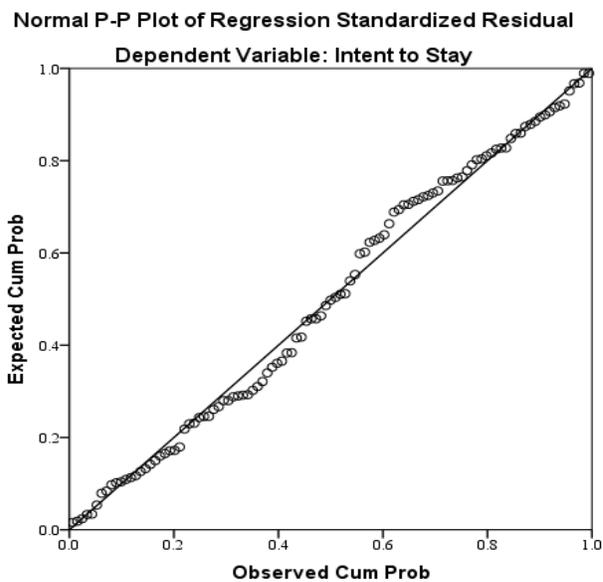


Figure 5. Normality P-P scatterplot for organizational commitment predicting intent to stay.

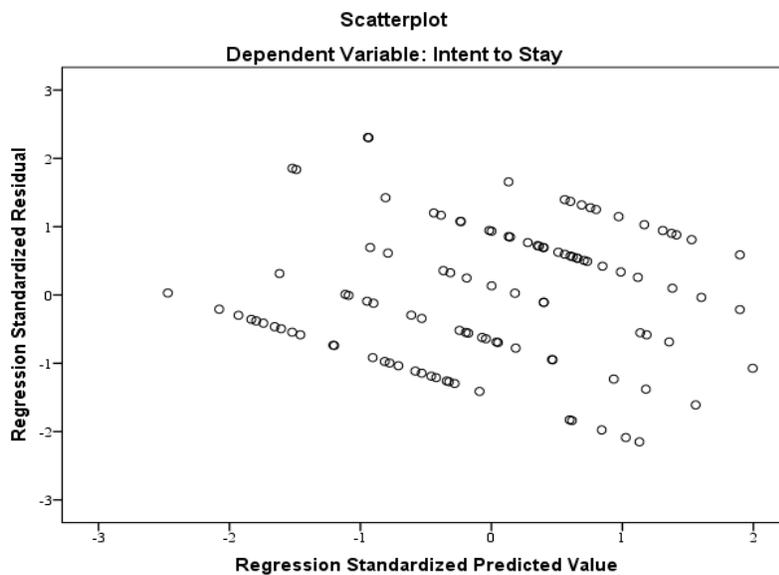


Figure 6. Scatterplot for organizational commitment predicting intent to stay.

The results of the multiple linear regression were significant, $F(2, 104) = 19.42, p < .001, R^2 = .27$, suggesting that the model as a whole was able to significantly predict intent to stay. Affective commitment, $B = 0.64, p < .001$ was the only significant contributor to the model. Continuance commitment was not a significant predictor, $B = 0.22, p = .08$. The positive slope for affective commitment ($B = 0.64$) indicated that for every one-unit increase in the affective commitment score, intent to stay increased by 0.64 units. In other words, as a person's affective commitment increased, the more likely the person's intent to stay. The null hypothesis was rejected, and the alternative hypothesis was accepted. Table 6 presents the results of the multiple linear regression.

Table 6

Multiple Linear Regressions for Organizational Commitment Score Predicting Intent to Stay

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	B	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>
Affective commitment	0.64	0.11	.50	5.99	.001
Continuance	0.22	0.13	.15	1.74	.084

Applications to Professional Practice

The study results present senior executives of companies with information on how leadership style and organizational commitment can affect junior executives' intent to stay with a company. The results of this study may add to the body of knowledge concerning the relationship among leadership style, organizational commitment, and intent to stay with a company. The costs of employee turnover are evident in the sustainability of companies. The results of this study offer statistical data and

recommendations to senior executives of companies to review, analyze outcomes, and focus on strategic planning efforts for employee retention.

Implications for Social Change

The implications for positive social change include the potential to provide senior management with a better understanding of factors that relate to junior executive retention. The potential exists to provide senior executives with the necessary tools to increase retention through prediction of attrition and possible reduction of causes of attrition. The social change implications include the potential to create a more desirable workplace, higher job satisfaction, and overall organization environment; making it more desirable to stay with the organization.

Society may benefit, as experienced executives remain in their organization to reduce the risk of company turnover and higher unemployment rates. Businesses and governmental agencies may be able to developing better retention methods and strategies. Business leaders may better understand when to offer an incentive, such as bonus pays, higher education, and other training options for retention. Society may further benefit as experienced junior executives remain with a company to help sustain communities.

Recommendations for Action

Company leaders may use the data from this study as an analytical tool to predict turnover risk among employees. Senior executives should pay attention to the results of this study, as well as evaluate which leadership style positively correlates with organizational commitment among company employees. Senior executives should work

toward implementing new strategies to address the challenges that will retain employees. Senior leaders should ensure these strategies are visible to share with employees.

Recommendations for Further Study

This study expands the option for future researchers to examine mid-level management in the business industry and branches of the military that have the rank of equivalent to junior executives. Using the instruments from this study with a larger sample size could substantiate the results of this study on a wider scale range. A similar study inclusive of a census area or even several census areas with higher populations of junior executives would yield a large enough sample to provide generalizability to the junior executive populations in organizations. Stratification, as it affects test results of those affected, suggest a need for further study. In addition, future researchers may wish to use a qualitative model to code junior executives' perceptions towards leadership styles and intent to stay. A longitudinal study following junior executives' employment from start to finish at a company suggests a need to determine junior executives' perceptions of leadership styles, and the effects of those leadership styles on intent to stay.

Reflection

After retiring from years of serving as a leader within the military, I understand how leadership styles and organizational commitments influence many factors for individuals. The origin of this research stems from the leadership direction of the committee members appointed to guide me through the process of this study. The

continuous feedback from committee members and making revisions of the study strengthened the scholarly writing in this research. Following the guidelines of the DBA rubric was an essential task that benchmarked and measured the progress of the study.

Developing the survey in Survey Monkey[®] proved beneficial in protecting the participants and collecting the data; however, in analyzing the data, I still had unyielding concepts of the results based on previous research finding and personal experience in the military. However, these biased notions were not an influential factor in the data collection process, because I had no contact with the participants of the survey and the data excluded participant's identification to ensure confidentiality of answers.

Summary and Study Conclusions

The attrition of junior executives who are promoted within the company and the understanding how junior executives' intent to stay with a company relates to leadership style and organizational commitment was the purpose of this quantitative correlational study. This study results compared the independent variables of leadership styles and organizational commitment with a dependent variable and intent to stay.

This study consisted of 107 participants employed as junior executives in the southern region of the United States (which includes Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, and West Virginia). The random assignment of 107 participants occurred using the G*Power 3 Calculator (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009).

The assessed participants in this study were junior executives with concerns of existing leadership practices and their relationships between leadership styles, organizational commitment, and intent to stay in the organization to identify the potential weakness of employee retention. Section 3 provided an in-depth description of statistical results regarding the quantitative correlation design study directed on the relationship between leadership style, organizational commitment, and intent to stay in the organization. The research findings reflected junior executives' responses to the 52-question survey. Senior executives should view the results of this study as a catalyst for assessing existing leadership practices and using the data generated from the study to identify the potential weakness of employee retention.

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Appendix A: Sample of Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) 5X-Short Form

This questionnaire asks how you would rate the leadership style of your previous direct leader from your perspective. Your responses are strictly confidential and anonymous. Using the rating scale below, judge how frequently each statement the person you are rating. Please select one answer for each question about your direct leader (direct leader/manager. The word “others” may refer your peers or other individual that you may come in contact with while performing your duties or a team task.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently/if not always
0	1	2	3	4

- _____ 1. Provided others with assistance in exchange for my efforts.
- _____ 2. Re-examined critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate.
- _____ 3. Failed to interfere until problems become serious.
- _____ 4. Focused attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards.
- _____ 5. Avoided getting involved when important issues arise.

Appendix B: Permission to Use MLQ

For use by Lorraine Anderson only. Received from Mind Garden, Inc. on June 24, 2014

**Permission for Lorraine Anderson to reproduce 1 copy
within one year of June 24, 2014**



www.mindgarden.com

To whom it may concern,

This letter is to grant permission for the above named person to use the following copyright material for his/her research:

Instrument: *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*

Authors: *Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass*

Copyright: *1995 by Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass*

Five sample items from this instrument may be reproduced for inclusion in a proposal, thesis, or dissertation.

The entire instrument may not be included or reproduced at any time in any published material.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Robert Most", with a long horizontal line extending to the right.

Robert Most
Mind Garden, Inc.
www.mindgarden.com

Appendix C: Organizational Commitment Questionnaire

Listed below is a series of statements that represent feelings and career intentions that you may have about your company. Please indicate the level of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by selecting a response to each question. Scale of 1 to 5, with 1 - being strongly disagree, and 5 - being strongly agree.

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
3. I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization.
4. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization.
5. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization.
6. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
7. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
8. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.
9. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.
10. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.
11. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.
12. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be

the scarcity of available alternatives.

Appendix D: Permission to Use TCM Employee Commitment Survey

Subject:	TCM Employee Commitment Survey Academic Download
Date :	Sun, Jun 02, 2013 10:58 AM CDT
From :	meyer@uwo.ca
To :	lorraine.anderson@waldenu.edu
Reply To :	<u>meyer@uwo.ca</u>

TCM Employee Commitment Survey | Academic Download

Name: Lorraine Elizabeth Anderson

Email: lorraine.anderson@waldenu.edu

To download a copy of the TCM Employee Commitment Survey - Academic Package, please click the following link:

<http://employeecommitment.com/TCM-Employee-Commitment-Survey-Academic-Package-2004.pdf>

Appendix E: Intent to Stay Questions

Instructions:

Listed below is a question that evaluates your career intentions with your company. Please answer the question by selecting a response. Scale of 1 to 5; 1 = I will stay less than 2 years, 2 = I will stay 2 to 5 years, 3 = 5 to 10 years, 4 = I am undecided, 5 = I will stay until full Social Security retirement age.

The following item include:

1. When do you plan to leave the company?

Appendix F: Invitation to Participate/Consent Form

You are invited to participate in the research study “Examining Relationship of Variables that Contribute to the Retention of Junior Executives”. The researcher is inviting individual working as a manager or director under a chief executive or (CEO) or chief financial (CFO) or any senior executive level position to be a part of this research.

Informed consent is a vital part of the research process. By reviewing this form helps you to understand this study before deciding whether to take part. Lorraine E. Anderson, who is seeking a Doctorate of Business Administration with specialization Leadership at Walden University, is conducting this research to support the doctorate requirements.

The purpose of this study is to examine how a direct leader’s leadership style and junior executives’ organizational commitment relates to a junior executive’s intent to stay in with a company.

Procedures:

- Complete a four-part survey on an internet survey website, Survey Monkey.
- This online survey will take approximately 15-20 minutes to complete.
- Data from each participant will be collected at one time.

Voluntary Nature of the Study:

- Your participation is voluntary. You can stop the survey at any time.

Risks and Benefits of Being in the Study:

Participating in this research has no foreseeable risks to you. Your participation will also help to expand the body of knowledge of employee retention.

Incentives

No incentive will be offered for participating in this study.

Confidentiality:

Any information you provide is confidential. The researcher will not use your responses for any purposes outside of this research. To protect your privacy, signatures are not being collected and your completion of the survey would indicate your consent, if you choose to participate.

Contacts and Questions:

If you have any questions, you may contact the researcher at Lorraine.anderson@waldenu.edu. If you want to speak privately about your rights as a participant, you can call Dr. Leilani Endicott. She is the Walden University representative who can discuss this with you. Her phone number is 1-800-925-3368, extension 1210. Walden University's approval number for this study is **12-20-13-0182801** and it expires on **December 19, 2014**.

Please save or print this consent form for your records.

Statement of Consent:

I have read the above information and I understand the contents of this letter well enough to agree to participate in this study. By clicking the link below, I understand that I am agreeing to the terms described above.