

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND
TRANSFORMATIONAL AND TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP
STYLES IN GOVERNMENT CONTRACT EMPLOYEES

by

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Abstract

This study sought to determine if a relationship exists between leadership styles and organizational commitment in government contract employees. The psychological contract theory, expectancy theory, and transactional and transformational leadership theories framed the study purpose. The quantitative research method using the Pearson correlational statistical design was used to assess variable relationships. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and the Three-Component Model (TCM) of Commitment were used to collect data from a sample of government contract employees. The results revealed weak but no statistically significant relationship between transformational and transactional leadership styles and organizational commitment. The study also found weak but no significant relationship between laissez-faire leadership and organizational commitment. Although not significant, the weak relationships indicate opportunities to better understand of the expected employee commitment-dependent outcomes resulting from decisions involving transformational, transactional, and laissez faire leaders.

Keywords: transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, organizational commitment, government contract employees

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Section 1: Foundation of the Study

A factor in the success of many organizations is the performance and commitment of its employees. Analyzing the factors that impact employee commitment can contribute to the development of successful performance strategies. One possible impact on employee commitment is the complex relationship between employees and employers. An employee's understanding of the employee-employer relationship has a direct effect on organizational commitment and is critical to organizational performance (Jabeen, Behery, & Abu Elanain, 2015). Understanding how leadership styles directly affect employee behavior is critical to organizational commitment (Hong, Cho, Froese, & Shin, 2016). This quantitative study assessed the impact of transformational and transactional leadership styles on the level of employee commitment in government contract employees. The study is framed by the psychological contract theory, transformational leadership theory, and transactional leadership theory (Bass, 1990; Rousseau, 1990).

Background of the Problem

Organizational commitment is a multi-dimensional concept that describes an employee's attachment to an organization (Sloan, Buckham, & Lee, 2017). As a psychological construct, organizational commitment is measured by an employee's desire, need, and obligation to stay with an organization (Sloan et al., 2017). Employees who are committed to their organizations are proud to be members, support the organization's goals and values, and are higher performers (Leow, 2011). In a traditional employee-employer relationship there is a single organization to which an employee can commit (Gallagher & Sverke, 2005). In contrast, organizational commitment in employee-employer-client relationships, as found in contracting arrangements, is a complex multidimensional construct (Gallagher & Sverke, 2005).

Government contract employees. The use of contract employment is a common practice in government agencies seeking cost savings and alternative provisions (Lu, 2013). The employee-employer-client relationship in contracting involves a contracting organization and the client organization formulating a shared employer relationship which can be confusing to employees as some see the contractor as their employer while others see the client as their primary point of reference (Coyle-Shapiro & Morrow, 2006). Research conducted by Vrangbæk, Petersen, and Hjelm (2015) suggested that contract employment can lead to negative effects on employees, including poorer working conditions, reduced job satisfaction, reduced benefits, and lower salaries. The role leadership behaviors play in impacting the effects of contract employment varies by employment status, employee attitude, and is not easily generalized (Felfe & Franke, 2010).

Alternative or non-traditional employment types, such as government contract employment; change the essential nature of the psychological contracts that define employee-employer relationships; add to the complexity of organizational commitment; and vary in their correlation to commitment (Boswell et al., 2012; Coyle-Shapiro & Morrow, 2006; De Cuyper, Notelaers, & De Witte, 2009). Contract and permanent employees form different types of psychological contracts. Hughes and Palmer (2007) suggested that temporary employees develop transactional psychological contract obligations, which are based on economic exchanges, and permanent employees develop relational psychological contract obligations, based on long-term, open-ended, highly invested reciprocal relationships. Research conducted by Lapalme, Simard, and Tremblay (2011) found that temporary employees also develop relational psychological obligations that evolve independently with both their direct employer and the company the employer is supporting.

Government contract employees working on multi-year options contracts, face reduced performance satisfaction, due to the short duration in multi-year contracts, and disruptions and breaches in the psychological contract, due to job uncertainty, as a routine factor in employment (Callea, Urbini, Ingusci, & Chirumbolo, 2016; Kronenburg, Shetterly, Duan, Krishnamoorthy, & Loutzenhiser, 2013). Contractors take on what could be prohibitively high risk, including business financing and staffing risks, when doing business with the government because at any time the government could elect to end a contract (Curren, 2015). Based on organizational performance or for the convenience of the government, at each option year, the government could make the decision not to award an option year or to change contracting organizations. A decision not to extend a contract can result in employees being moved to a new employer or involuntarily terminated which negatively impacts the long-term relationship nature of relational psychological obligations developed with the government employer (Salazar-Fierro & Bayardo, 2015). Upon the conclusion of a contract, if the contracting organization is not awarded a follow-on contract or does not have another contract to which to move the employees, breaches in the psychological contract can occur as employees face disruptions in the economic exchange, long-term, open-ended, and reciprocal relationships with the contracting employer (Hughes & Palmer, 2007).

Leadership styles. An examination of organizational commitment and its relationship with leadership style provides leaders with information that could be used to better manage employee performance and overall achievement of organizational goals (Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016). Research conducted by Yahaya and Ebrahim (2016) suggested that an employee's level of organizational commitment is dependent on the characteristics of their leaders. Leadership characteristics that influence factors such as employee loyalty; motivation; acceptance; trust;

work toward a common vision; and desire to stay with an organization, closely associate leadership with influencing organizational commitment (Clinebell, Skudiene, Trijonyte, & Reardon, 2013).

Research conducted by Keskes (2014) suggested that leadership style is a determinant of the level of employee organizational commitment, but little evidence exist to explain precisely how styles impact commitment. While several researchers found a positive correlation between leadership style and organizational commitment, others found no relationship (Awan & Mahmood, 2010; Dale & Fox, 2008; Lok & Crawford, 2004; Yiing & Ahmad, 2009). As business environments constantly change, effective leaders play a critical role in the local strategies needed for organizational performance and must adopt to the leadership style needed for the context of their organization (Ghasabeh, Soosay, & Reaiche, 2015; Mauri, 2017). An understanding of how, and if, leadership style impacts organizational commitment aids in identifying effective contextual leadership behavior and action.

Problem Statement

The general problem to be addressed is that government contract employees face possible employee-employer relationship changes on an annual basis. As defined by the psychological contract, changes in the employee-employer relationship that are viewed by the employee as a breach in agreed upon promises, negatively impact organizational commitment (Salazar-Fierro & Bayardo, 2015). Research conducted by Fu and Deshpande (2014) suggested that the employee's perception of the employee-employer relationship is a predictor of organizational commitment and found a significant positive relationship between organizational commitment and employee performance. Additionally, Pradhan and Pradhan (2015) suggested significant positive relationships between both leadership style and organizational commitment and the

contextual performance that adds to organizational performance. Since organizational commitment is positively related to employee and organizational performance, negative impacts to organizational commitment could result in reductions in employee and organizational performance (Setyaningrum, Setiawan, Surachman, & Irawanto, 2017). Conversely, positive impacts to organizational commitment, resulting from leadership styles, could result in improved employee and organizational performance.

The specific problem to be addressed is that leadership style can have a direct impact on the organizational commitment of government contract employees who routinely face changes in the employee-employer relationship (Saha, 2016). Through an examination of organizational commitment and leadership style, leaders can determine how their style may be a factor impacting employee commitment. The focus of this study was to examine the relationship of leadership style and organizational commitment in government contract employees.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative correlational test was to assess the theory of transformational and transactional leadership styles, and the relationship of organizational commitment of governmental contract employees. The independent variable, transformational leadership style were generally defined as a style where the leader helps others move to a greater awareness of the group's mission and to look beyond self-interest. The second independent variable, transactional leadership style were generally defined as a style where the leader uses rewards or consequences to encourage followers to adhere to requirements. The dependent variable, employee organizational commitment generally was defined as the desire, willingness, and need to support an organization, and the control and intervening variable, remaining contract

length, will be statistically controlled in this study (Limpanitgul, Boonchoo, Kulviseachana, & Photiyarach, 2017).

Nature of the Study

Determining the research question or questions, aids in defining the scope of the research, and is critical to the design of the research because the questions drive the research (Gelling, 2015). Research questions that are best answered using numbers, benefit from the use of quantitative research, while questions best answered using words, benefit from qualitative research (Claydon, 2015). The choice between the rigorous and controlled design options in quantitative research and the narrative explanation of identified phenomenon in qualitative design options is a critical choice based primarily on the intended purpose of the research.

Discussion of method. The quantitative research method is grounded in positivism, which is a philosophical system that suggests that only one truth or reality exist, and it can be scientifically tested or mathematically proven (Claydon, 2015). Quantitative research tests variables within a theory using numerical data to analyze generalizations, or explain, predict or control a phenomenon (Gay & Airasian, 2000). The method analyzes trends and relationships and verifies the measurements made (Watson, 2015). Quantitative research is used to identify supportive or contradictory evidence (Clarke & Collier, 2015). Quantitative researchers are described as objective scientists seeking quantifiable information (Walker, 2005). Advantages of using the quantitative method include the use of a large sample population, which widens the study and improves the generalization of the findings, and summarized numerical data which allows for replication, and increases accuracy and objectivity (Clarke & Collier, 2015). Another advantage of using a quantitative method is its effectiveness in answering “what” and “how” questions by uncovering behaviors and trends (Goertzen, 2017).

The study sought to determine the truth about or existence of a relationship between organizational commitment and leadership style. Variables within supporting theories were tested to generalize and explain relationships using identified evidence collected from a large sample of numeric data. Additionally, the study research questions asked “what” relationships exist. Since the characteristics of the quantitative method coincide with the bases of the study, the quantitative method was selected.

Unlike quantitative research, qualitative research is grounded in interpretivism, which is a philosophical system that suggests that multiple truths or realities exist based on individual perspectives (Claydon, 2015). The method is understood through the exploratory and inductive collection of narrative data (Claydon, 2015). Qualitative research seeks to understand experiential influencers by exploring the personal and social experiences of humans (Gelling, 2015). The method is an inductive process that uses human experiences to convey meaning descriptively (Butina, Campbell, & Miller, 2015). Small samples of multiple forms of data is collected in natural settings and the method answers “how” and “why” research questions (Butina et al., 2015; Cleland, 2017). Since this research was not looking to understand a phenomenon from the experiences of subjects or answer “how” or “why” questions, the qualitative method was not selected.

A combination of quantitative and qualitative research is described as mixed method research (Claydon, 2015). Mixed method research takes advantage of the strengths and compensates for the weaknesses in quantitative and qualitative research to offer integrated results (Halcomb & Hickman, 2015). Mixed method should be selected when multiple research problem perspectives and numeric and experiential data collection, would add value and understanding in the results (Halcomb & Hickman, 2015). When threats of validity arise, the

method helps in the validity, richness, and meaningfulness of the results, and usefulness in answering the research questions (Wilson, 2016). While the quantitative part of mixed method applies to the scope of this research, the qualitative part was outside the scope and was not needed to add value to the results, therefore mixed method was not selected.

Discussion of design. Three categories of quantitative research include descriptive, correlational, and causal (Walker, 2005). Descriptive design seeks to discover new meaning, define the characteristics of people and situations, categorize information, and determine how often things occur (Walker, 2005). Causal-comparative design uses comparisons to determine cause-and-effect relationships (Johnson, 2001). Correlational quantitative design determines the existence of, or makes predictions about, relationships between multiple quantifiable variables but does not establish cause-and-effect linkages (Johnson, 2001). Hypotheses in the correlational method, however, can suggest the direction of variables which serve as a partial condition to establishing causality (Rumrill & Phillip, 2004). Correlational design is used to determine if changes in variables relate to changes in other variables and if so, to what degree (Sousa, Driessnack, & Mendes, 2007).

This research was not seeking to describe what exists or determine frequency in that which exists, therefore the descriptive method was not selected. The research was not seeking to manipulate variables to determine cause-and-effect, therefore the causal-comparative method was not selected. The measurement of the correlation between organizational commitment in government contract employees in relationship to transformational and transactional leadership styles, made the selection of a correlational research design appropriate for this study.

Summary of the nature of the study. The purpose of this research was to assess transformational and transactional leadership styles and their relationship to the organizational

commitment of government contract employees. Measurable data about the relationships provide evidence of the existence or non-existence and magnitude. Therefore, the quantitative research method using a correlational design was used in the study.

Research Questions

What is the relationship between organizational commitment and transformational leadership styles in government contract employees?

What is the relationship between organizational commitment and transactional leadership styles in government contract employees?

Hypotheses

H1 There is a significant relationship between organizational commitment and transformational leadership style.

H1₀: There is no significant relationship between transformational leadership style and organizational commitment.

H2: There is a significant relationship between organizational commitment and transactional leadership style.

H2₀: There is no significant relationship between transactional leadership style and organizational commitment.

H3: There is a significant relationship between organizational commitment, transactional leadership style and transformational leadership style.

H3₀: There is no significant relationship between transactional leadership style, and transformational leadership style and organizational commitment.

Potential survey tools. Two potential survey tools to evaluate leadership and organizational commitment are the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ; Bass & Avolio,

1995) and the Three-Component Model of Organizational Commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

The MLQ describes leaders who influenced the factors important to the participant and the factors that encouraged others to put the good of the group ahead of their self-interest (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999). The current version of the MLQ measures nine leadership characteristics—a laissez-faire factor, three transactional factors, and five transformational factors (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003). The OCQ measures the strength of three factors “(1) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization’s goals and values; (2) willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; and (3) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization” (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979).

Theoretical Framework

The study of leadership is not limited to the individual leader, but also includes followers, peers, environments, and cultures and is described by various models, theories, and practices (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009). Theories contributing to this research include the psychological contract theory, expectancy theory, transformational leadership theory, and transactional leadership theory (Bass, 1990; Rousseau, 1990). Psychological contracts will frame the research from the employee’s perspective, and the transformational and transactional theories will be used to frame the leader’s perspective (Bass, 1990; Rousseau, 1990). The study considers the employee perspective, represented by the psychological contract theory, and the leader’s perspective, represented by the transformational and transactional theories, to support an analysis of the relationship of organizational commitment and leadership style.

Psychological contract theory. The psychological contract theory describes the relationship and expectations between employee and employer (Rousseau, 1990). Grama (2015) referred to the psychological contract as the undocumented but implied expectations employees

and employers have of each other based on their own perception of commitments and obligations. The psychological contract specifies what an employee believes they owe their employer in exchange for what they believe the employer owes them (Jiang, Probst, & Benson, 2015). Within the established psychological contract, employees have reciprocal expectations of their employer based on what they are willing to give in the exchange (Alcover, Rico, Turnley, & Bolino, 2017). These expectations are formed based on the experiences and perspectives a person has about a given situation (Jiang et al., 2015).

Research suggests that changes in an employee's view of the obligations of employers in the psychological contract can be expected and should be managed (Payne, Culbertson, Lopez, Boswell, & Barger, 2015; Rousseau, 1990). Employees often see the contract in terms of their contributions of time, work, and commitment, in exchange for the employment, pay, and career opportunities (Wei et al., 2015). Performance can be negatively impacted when employees perceive that their employer is no longer upholding their end of the reciprocal employee-employer relationship (Vander Elst, De Cuyper, Baillien, Niesen, & De Witte, 2016). Research conducted by Chen and Wu (2017) suggested that effective leadership can improve employee's perception of the psychological contract. Leaders who have open discussions about the reciprocal obligations in the employee-employer relationship, clarify expectations, promote a higher sense of purpose, and increase shared psychological contract fulfillment (Laulié & Tekleab, 2016).

Expectancy theory. The expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964) suggests that individuals behave self-indulgently in actions they expect to result in the greatest subjective utility. Valence, instrumentality, and expectancy are the three components of the expectancy theory (Carnes & Knotts, 2018). Valence describes the individual's desired outcome. Instrumentality is the

individual's belief that the desired outcome will result from their performance. Expectancy is the probability that the individual's performance will lead to the desired outcome (Carnes & Knotts, 2018). The expectancy theory is a function of rewards for performance (Carter, 2013). Rewards that are of value to the employee serve as a motivator for employee performance (Carter, 2013).

Research conducted by Isaac, Zerbe, and Pitt (2001) suggested a direct connection between employee performance and leadership behaviors relating to the expectancy theory. The author concluded that high employee performance occurs when leaders create motivational environments that facilitate meeting expectations and employee performance above what the employee initially believed was possible. Isaac et al. (2001) also pointed out the importance of leaders understanding that the attractiveness of rewards varies amongst individuals and therefore the leader needs to determine the value of rewards to the employee.

Baciu (2017) posited that the force behind motivation is dependent on expectations about effort producing performance, performance producing rewards, and rewards having an attributable value. Baciu (2017) also suggested that expectancy is dependent on employee factors such as, self-esteem, belief in ability to complete tasks, skills, experience, and knowledge, and employer factors such as clear performance goals, support, and resources to support goals. Chen, Ellis, and Suresh (2016) further discussed factor's influencing expectancy and identified task difficulty, individual, group, and environmental factors. Factors related to task difficulty include progress and relation to goals and are associated with the employee's probability of accomplishment. Individual factors include competence and goal orientation and are associated with the employee's ability and belief in accomplishing goals. Group factors describe how the employee interacts with others and if they have positive relationships and are

associated with reducing risks and misunderstandings about goal accomplishment. Environment factors such as competition and opportunities influence an employee's willingness to invest effort to achieve the expected outcome (Chen et al., 2016).

Transformational leadership theory. The rationale for studying transformational and transactional leadership and organizational commitment stems from research that suggests that employee organization commitment can be influenced by such leadership influencing factors as the external environment, motivation, and human needs (Bass, 1990; D'Aprile & Talò, 2015; Imran, Allil, & Mahmoud, 2017; Park, Lee, & Kabst, 2008; Silva, Dutra, Veloso, Fischer, & Trevisan, 2015). Transformational leadership theory recognizes the role leaders play in influencing followers to make sacrifices, commit to organizational objectives, and achieve more than expected (Yukl, 1999). Kovjanic, Schuh, Jonas, Quaquebeke, and Dick (2012) suggested that the fulfillment of three follower needs—autonomy, competence, and relatedness, are central to transformational leadership theory. Four dimensions of transformational leadership include charisma, motivation, consideration, and stimulation (Bass, 1990). As transformational leaders display charisma that influences followers; engage in motivational communication that energizes followers; show consideration for followers needs, and encourage independent thinking, their behavior could affect organizational commitment (Bass, 1990).

Research conducted by Effelsberg, Solga, and Gurt (2014) suggested that transformational leadership is positively related to affecting employee's willingness to display selfless pro-organizational behavior. Yukl (1999) found that transformational leadership can affect an employee's perceived level of trust, admiration, respect, loyalty, and motivation. Morton et al. (2010) suggested that transformational leadership is linked to predicting increases in employee self-efficacy, self-determination, and commitment.

Research by Andersen (2015) suggested that the effectiveness of transformational leadership is influenced by contextual variables, mediating mechanisms, and moderators. Shim, Jo, and Hoover (2015) found that while transformational leadership influenced organizational commitment, it was mediated by the organizational culture of the group. Unlike occupational culture, which focuses on shared values, norms and attitudes, organizational culture, represents the cognitive, affective and behavioral responses of employees to organizational strain (Shim et al., 2015). Chan and Mak (2014) found that the transformational leadership influence on affective and normative organizational commitment is mediated by pride in being a follower. This research studies government contract employees as a mediated factor in the influence of transformation leadership on organizational commitment.

Transactional leadership theory. Transactional leadership theory focuses on an exchange of rewards or consequences tied to performance (Bass, 1990). Transactional leadership uses external motivators to encourage commitment to achieving organizational goals (Ahmad, Bibi, & Abdul, 2016). Three characteristics of transactional leadership include the use of contingent rewards, the use of management by exception, and the use of passive as needed actions (Vito, Higgins, & Denney, 2014). The effectiveness of the various components of transactional leadership vary—some focus on increased commitment, loyalty, and satisfaction, while others focus on mistakes and communicating disapproval (Breevaart et al., 2014). As transactional leaders build leader-follower relationships and motivate followers to achieve goals, they could affect organizational commitment (Bass, 1990).

Research conducted by Ahmad et al. (2016) suggested that the effectiveness of transactional leadership style on organizational commitment can be mediated by compensation. Afshari and Gibson (2016) found that the relationship between transactional leadership and

organizational commitment can be mediated by competence and relatedness. This research studies government contract employees as a mediating factor in the influence of transactional leadership on organizational commitment.

Relationship between theories. Two types of psychological contracts include the transactional contract and the relational contract. As with transactional leadership, the transactional psychological contract focuses on exchanges of things of value between the employee and employer. Similarly, a critical leadership responsibility garnered from the expectancy theory is that leaders must understand the value different employees place on rewards. As with transformational leadership, the relational psychological contract focuses on building trust and loyalty (Jabeen et al., 2015). Whereas the psychological contract describes what employees are willing to give to their employers in exchange for how well they perceive their employers have met their expectations, transformational leadership focuses on motivating employees to transcend what they are willing to give for the benefit of their self-interest, for the interest of the organization (Yukl, 1999). Similarly, expectancy theory suggests that leaders must create motivational environments that facilitate meeting expectations and employee performance above what they initially believed was possible. Whereas the psychological contract focuses on the reciprocal exchange, transactional leadership uses an exchange between the employee and organization so that each party benefits (Ahmad et al., 2016). This study recognizes that neither transactional nor transformational leadership styles are inherently better than the other in affecting organizational commitment but rather each has similar and contributing factors to examine.

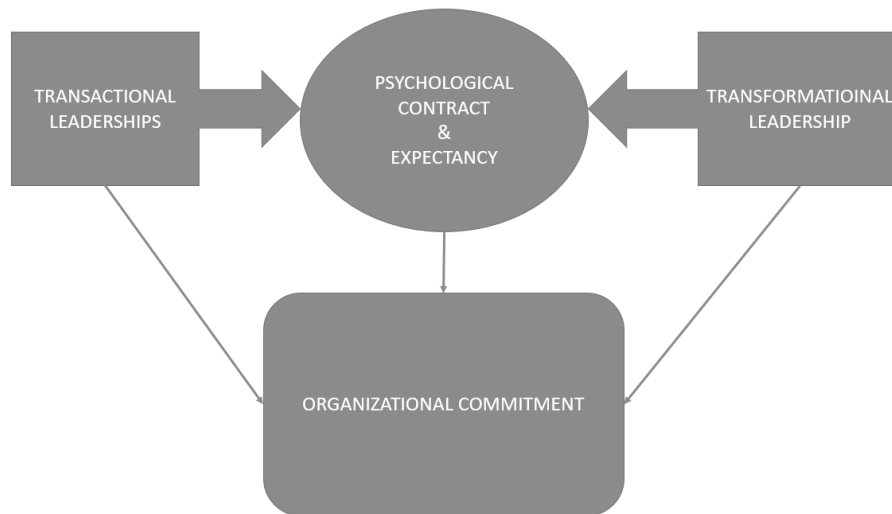


Figure 1. Theoretical Framework.

Note. From Transactional Leadership Theory and Transformational Leadership Theory (Bass, 1990), Three-Component Organizational Commitment Model (Meyer & Allen, 1991) Psychological Contract Theory (Rousseau, 1990), and Expectancy Theory (Vroom, 1964).

Definition of Terms

Follow-on contract: Follow-on contracts are noncompetitive purchase agreements with the current award contractor used to avoid discontinuation of or minor modification to a previous purchase decision (GAO, 1986).

Multi-year contracts: Multi-year contracts are agreements to purchase goods or services to meet requirements for one to five fiscal years (Lawson, 2012).

Organizational commitment: Organizational commitment is an emotional attachment involving identification and involvement in organizational goals, and loyalty (Dale & Fox, 2008; Mowday et al., 1979). The three-component model developed by Meyer and Allen (1991) describes organizational commitment as affective, normative, or continuative. Affective commitment describes an emotional belonging. Normative commitment describes the bind to an organization. Continuance commitment describes the costs or benefit of continued connection with the organization or costs of severing the connection (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Psychological contract: Psychological contracts are reciprocal obligations or promises between employees and employers related to employment relationships (Behery, Paton, & Hussain, 2012). The psychological contract relationship is a subjective belief that is revised and expanded throughout the employment term (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994).

Transactional leadership: Transactional leadership uses contingent rewards to encourage followers to meet leader commitments and negative consequences to correct followers who fail to meet leader commitments (Bass, 1999).

Transformational leadership: Transformational leadership increases awareness followers have of what is important, raises followers concern for higher-level needs, and pushes followers to go beyond self-interests for the good of others, the organization or society (Bass, 1999).

Assumptions, Limitations, Delimitation

A comprehensive study of leadership and organizational commitment is multi-dimensional and extends beyond the scope of this research study. Factors outside of research control and impacts to the generalizability of the results are identified for mitigation and application. The following assumptions, limitations, and delimitations were used to frame the study.

Assumptions. Research factors surrounding participants, potential relationships between organizational commitment and leadership styles, and collected data were assumed to be true. Risks associated with each assumption was mitigated through their identification and proper use of research methodologies. Examples of methods include properly survey delivery, objective analysis, and appropriate generalizations.

Participant responses. Several assumptions were made regarding study participants. It was assumed that participants understood the survey questions and provided responses that were

truthful and unbiased. Participants were competent in the use of electronically captured questionnaire data tools and followed the data collecting instructions. Participants answered all survey questions with their immediate supervisor in mind. Leaders and work sites within the study organizations supported a safe and confidential environment for study participants. Participants trusted the researcher to protect their anonymity. The research included survey delivery consideration to ensure participant response reliability and validity.

Organizational commitment and leadership styles. Several assumptions were made regarding organizational commitment and leadership styles. It was assumed that there could be a relationship between leadership style and organizational commitment. Any identifiable relationship between leadership styles and organizational commitment could be determined with appropriate research methods was also assumed. Objective analysis of the data determined if a relationship exists between organizational commitment and leadership styles.

Collected data. Several assumptions were made regarding the collection, measurement, and use of study data. It was assumed that an adequate number of valid data points were captured to answer the research questions and draw reasonable conclusions. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ; Bass & Avolio, 1995) and the Three-Component Model of Organizational Commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991) were assumed to provide sufficient data to assess organizational commitment and leadership styles. It was assumed that participants were representative of the subject group of contract employees. Cautious analysis of findings was taken to accurately provide generalizations and conclusions.

Limitations. Limitations result in potential study weaknesses. The quantitative research method used to answer the research questions omits the exploration of possible reasons, perceptions, and experiences, found through qualitative research, that impact leadership styles or

organizational commitment. Data collection is limited to the use of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass & Avolio, 1995) and the Three-Component Model of Organizational Commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991). An analysis of factors, such as job satisfaction, salary, tenure, and personality, which contribute to organizational commitment, are not part of the research study. The study was limited to the study of government contract employees who were members of the Collaborate site of the National Contract Management Association (NCMA). Alternative employment types, such as seasonal and temporary, were not included in the study. No consideration was given to the impact of union employees, hourly versus salaried pay structures, or major organizational events that could impact employee's responses at the time of the survey. The data collected were limited to only the information captured in the survey tools, with no opportunity for clarification. The study used a Likert scale survey, which were limited by factors such as the use of numbers as opposed to labels, participants within-subject comparisons, and participant standards of comparison (Ogden & Lo, 2012).

Delimitations. The research was delimited by participant type, date, leadership style, and organizational commitment. Although employees in various demographic groups can be impacted by the study objectives, the scope of the study was restricted to only government contract employees. All data were collected using electronic surveys in 2018. The research was limited to the study of only transactional and transformational leadership styles and the impact only on organizational commitment.

Significance of Study

Changing external business environments contribute to higher demands for the human resource driven organizational productivity needed to remain competitive, and several researchers have studied the impact employee organizational commitment has on organizational

performance (Farrukh, Wei Ying, & Abdallah Ahmed, 2016; Su, Baird, & Blair, 2009; Tilleman, 2012). Employee commitment is a significant concern for overall organizational health, and no human factor has more of an impact on organizational outcomes than the commitment of employees (Valaei & Rezaei, 2016). Organization types ranging from public to private, small to large, and profit to non-profit are each concerned with the commitment of its employees (Rahman, Shahzad, Mustafa, Khan, & Qurashi, 2016). Efforts to employ committed individuals who are more likely to remain productive and supportive members of the organization lead practitioners and academics to seek to understand the factors, including the psychological processes that effect organizational commitment (Farrukh et al., 2016).

Organizational commitment is one of many employee behaviors managers are increasingly more interested in because of the positive effect on work outcomes, and researchers are increasingly more interested in understanding its causes and significance to employees (Rahman et al., 2016). A significant part of the research interest in organizational commitment is in its use as a predictor of organizational outcomes and the relationship between leadership dimensions and organizational commitment as an outcome variable (Sloan et al., 2017; Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016). Leadership dimensions and leadership styles are key factors in impacting employee behavior and have been directly connected to organizational commitment (Chai, Hwang, & Joo, 2017; Clinebell et al., 2013). Several researchers have studied the direct impact leadership styles have on an employee's commitment to an organization with varying results (Clinebell et al., 2013; Hong et al., 2016; Robinson & Parham, 2014). This study adds to the literature by combining the study of transformational and transactional leadership styles with the organizational commitment found in government contract employees.

Reduction of gaps. The study findings are expected to fill literature gaps regarding the relationship between leadership styles and employee commitment in government contract employees. Sloan et al. (2017) suggested that the impact leaders and the leader-follower relationship have on employee organizational commitment may be influenced by leader differentiation. Research conducted by Mathieu, Fabi, Lacoursiere, and Raymond (2016) suggested that further research is needed on the role transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles have on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Afshari and Gibson (2016) found that leadership style is positively related to organizational commitment but suggested that more research is needed to fully understand the impact. Wang, Ma, and Zhang (2014) concluded that leadership style, directly and indirectly, impacts organizational commitment but suggested that an examination of their results be conducted using different subjects to generalize the findings in other work conditions and organization types.

Several researchers have already conducted research in some of the needed gaps. The relationship between leadership style and organizational commitment has been tested on such diverse populations as U.S. based participants, Korean and Nigerian employees, and multinational subsidiaries (Clinebell et al., 2013; Fasola, Adeyemi, Olowe, Moradeyo, & Babalola, 2013; Hong et al., 2016). Felfe and Franke (2010) studied the impact leadership behaviors have on alternative employee types, namely temporary employees. These researchers concluded that a relationship exists between leadership and organizational commitment but recommended further study to understand what traditional and alternative employee types have in common, what differences in the level of commitment exists, and to determine if alternative employee types required different types of leadership than permanent employees (Felfe & Franke, 2010). This study adds to the literature by testing the impact of transformational and

transactional leadership styles have on the organizational commitment of government contract employees.

Implications for Biblical Integration. The psychological contract theory, which analyzes the relationship between employees and employers, forms the theoretical basis for understanding the organizational commitment of government contract employees (Rousseau, 1990). Psychological contracts represent the reciprocal relationship between an employee and an employer. Children of God also have a reciprocal relationship with God that must be fulfilled. As seen in Hebrews 8:9 which says

Not like the covenant that I made with their fathers on the day when I took them by the hand to bring them out of the land of Egypt. For they did not continue in my covenant, and so I showed no concern for them, declares the Lord.

God's children, much like organizational employees, must keep to the covenant or it will be broken. While the employee-employer relationship is important in business, the relationship between God and His children is the most important relationship for children of God. The mandate for this relationship is found in Mark 12:30 (ESV) which states "And you shall love the Lord your God with all your heart and with all your soul and with all your mind and with all your strength." A leader's use of this study should include a balance between their relationship with their employees and the relationship each has with God.

Leadership styles and the relationship to employee commitment also play key roles in this study. As seen in 1 Peter 5:3 which says, "Not domineering over those in your charge, but being examples to the flock," the bible provides leaders with style guidance. Additionally, as seen in Hebrews 13:17 which says:

Obey your leaders and submit to them, for they are keeping watch over your souls, as those who will have to give an account. Let them do this with joy and not with groaning, for that would be of no advantage to you.

We see that the bible also provides guidance and directions for followers and leadership results. Although scholarly literature on leadership has studied the lives and styles of Biblical characters, few if any, have included a look at the impact seeking God's will and following His direction has on leadership (Friedman & Friedman, 2012). This study assessed how transformational and transactional leadership styles relate to organizational commitment, but the assessment of leadership is found in an integration of God's will and direction in everything the leader does. Leaders, especially leaders who follow Christ, cannot depend solely on the standard and well-known leadership theories to guide their leadership success, they must recognize the ruling authority of Jesus Christ in all they do (Huizing, 2011).

Relationship to field of study. Within a formal group, leadership is the use of a style of social influence, which is mainly determined by the organization's culture, to organize, motivate, and direct activities to achieve goals and resolve issues (Awan & Mahmood, 2010). Leadership styles, how they influence organizational functions, and how they can be used to predict performance are important topics in the field of leadership (Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016). While there are several types of leadership influence styles, this study examined the transformational and transactional styles and the relationship to organizational commitment. Organizations, their structures, and internal and external uncertainty are changing constructs, and along with those changes, the field of leadership is changing to address the new realities (Tyssen, Wald, & Spieth, 2014). One such change is the use of alternative employee types, which impacts the way in which a leader decides which leadership behavior to display (Tyssen et al., 2014). The

conclusions of this study can be used by leaders to understand the impact they have on contract type employees and what can be expected because of that impact.

The impact organizational commitment has on work-related variables has been identified repeatedly in literature (Cohen, 2007; Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016). Two factors in the research field that have shown to influence organizational commitment are the psychological contract and the leadership style (Behery et al., 2012). Research conducted by Cassar, Bezzina, and Buttigieg (2017) suggested that the relationship between the employee and employer is crucial to organizational success and leadership's role is to support efforts that promote the quality of that relationship. This study extended the field of leadership by addressing the relationship between leadership styles and the organizational commitment that is partly defined by psychological contracts.

A Review of the Professional and Academic Literature

An employee's level of organizational commitment is a good indicator of their attitude towards the organization and their organizational behavior (Ghosh & Swamy, 2014). In the past 60 years several theories, concepts, and tools have been developed to aid in explaining the many facets of organizational commitment and how leaders can use them to understand employee commitment experiences. A review of studies on the impact leadership styles have on the organizational commitment of government contract employees also aid in the exploration of employee organizational commitment.

Historical summary of organizational commitment. Extensive scholarly research into the context of organizational commitment has been conducted using terms such as cognitive continuance, organizational involvement, organizational identification (Hall, Schneider, & Nygren, 1970; Kanter, 1968; Brown, 1969). Scholars have defined organizational commitment

in terms of a psychological bond between the individual and the organization (Buchanan, 1974). Although definitions vary with researchers intended purpose and result from a failure to differentiate between the antecedents and consequences, a central theme considers the bond and linking of employees to their organizations (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Morrow, 1983; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986).

Organizational commitment's evolving definition. Definitions of organizational commitment vary and are dependent on the context of the organization and researchers perspective (Valaei & Rezaei, 2016). By the early 1960s, what is known today as organizational commitment was a construct used in both dependent and independent theoretical study variables (Swales, 2002). Becker (1960) suggested that commitment results from side bets that link interest with consistent activity. Kanter (1968) defined organizational commitment using the term cognitive-continuance commitment as a situation in which an individual finds profit in committing themselves to their organizational position and associates a cost with leaving the organization. Sheldon (1971) defined organizational commitment as a disposition that attaches an individual to the organization and results in a positive evaluation and intent to support organizational goals. Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) defined organizational commitment as the exchange and accumulation of experiences which are dependent upon the relationship between contributions and side bets in the employment system from the employee's perspective. Buchanan (1974) defined organizational commitment as consisting of three components—the adoption of the organization's goals and values, the psychological immersion into one's work activities, and loyalty to the organization. Mowday et al. (1979) defined organizational commitment as the level of an employee's identification and involvement with an organization,

characterized by their acceptance of goals and values, willingness to put forth the effort, and desire to remain a member.

Scholarly work in defining organizational commitment in the 1960s and 1970s appeared to take two distinct approaches—a psychological approach and an exchange approach. Weaknesses in the psychological approach include treating commitment as a discrete phenomenon (Baba & Jamal, 1979; Stevens, Beyer, & Trice, 1978). Neither approach considers the entire spectrum of determining factors that serve to predict, attach or detach an individual to an organization (Baba & Jamal, 1979; Stevens et al., 1978). While research in the 1960s and 1970s was more antecedent-based, subsequent research moved the study to a more process and effects-oriented research (Lieberman, 2011).

The 1980s and 1990s brought new perspectives to the study of organizational commitment. Amernic and Aranya (1983) suggested that while organizational commitment had been extensively researched definitions continued to lack precision. Reichers (1985) offered a more precise view in a reconceptualization of organizational commitment and defined it as an identification process that ties an individual to the goals of multiple organizational constituents. Reichers (1985) suggested that a reconceptualized view of organizational commitment moved scholarly study from a generalized focus on goals and values to a specific focus on whose goals and values are being served. The reconceptualization recognized the political nature of organizations, the nature of the attachment experiences of employees, and addresses an individual's conflicting commitments. O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) postulated that organizational commitment is predicated on the independent constructs of compliance, identification, and internalization and the dependent variables of prescribed behavior and prosocial acts for the benefit of the organization. Barge and Schlueter (1988) suggested that the

definition of organizational commitment includes two distinct theoretical orientations—moral and calculative. The moral orientation is measured by the attitudinal factors identification, involvement, and loyalty. The calculative orientation finds roots in Becker's (1960) side-bet theory and assumes that employees negotiate to produce an advantage balance between their costs of commitment and their reward for commitment (Barge & Schlueter, 1988).

In their three-component model, Meyer and Allen (1991) defined organizational commitment as a psychological state of mind represented by three separable components of an employee's commitment profile, which includes their desire, need, and obligation to the organization. Meyer and Allen (1991) described the components of organizational commitment as affective, normative, or continuative. Larkey and Morrill (1995) reformulated organizational commitment as a symbolic process that involves the identification of an organization's cultural symbols for affective attachment, behavioral continuance, and moral obligation. Larkey and Morrill (1995) proposed that the symbolic process interfaces that define organizational commitment are not always stable, consistent, or symmetrical, and the identities of the organizations are not the aggregate of the individual members, but rather consist of multiple structures, actors, and groups. Brown (1969) challenged the idea of types of commitments and suggested that organizational commitment reflects the dedication and support an individual has for an organization that extends beyond the specific terms of their job expectations and resulting job rewards.

Whereas earlier research viewed organizational commitment as unidimensional, scholars in the 1980s and 1990s expanded and advanced the study of organizational commitment to include multiple forms and the differential processes that lead to the development of each (Mowday, 1998). By the early 2000s, most researchers moved to a reliance on previously

identified definitions of the concept and a focus on the factors impacting and relating to organizational commitment (Chen, Tsui, & Farh, 2002; Cullen, Parboteeah, & Victor, 2003). However, Knippenberg and Sleebos (2006) suggested that a reconceptualization of organizational commitment involved more of a social identification process than the political and attachment experiences suggested by Reichers (1985). The researchers proposed that organizational commitment is an exchange-based concept that is closely related to an employee's perceived organizational support. Despite Knippenberg and Sleebos' (2006) research and challenges to its concepts, from 2004 to 2014 the three-component model proposed by Meyer and Allen (1991) offered the dominate framework for organizational commitment research and Mowday et al. (1979) who defined organizational commitment as the strength with which an individual identifies with and involves in their organization serves as the most common (Mercurio, 2015; Miarkolaei & Miarkolaei, 2014; Sen, Tozlu, Atesoglu, & Sahin, 2016; Steyrer, Schiffinger, & Lang, 2008).

The current environment, plagued with economic uncertainty, rapid change, increased globalization, aggressive competition, and changing workforce have prompted a resurgence in attention on organizational commitment (Mercurio, 2015; Nikpour, 2017). In the past five years, additional reconceptualizations of organizational commitment have been offered. Klein, Cooper, Molloy, and Swanson (2014) discussed organizational commitment in terms of overall commitment, suggesting that commitment is a purposive dedication to and responsibility for a target, regardless of the specific target. Solinger, Hofmans, and van Olffen (2015) suggested that previous research on affective, cognitive, and behavior elements of organizational commitment focused primarily on static cause and effect relationships at the expense of understanding how the elements relate over time. These researchers proposed that affect, cognition, and behavior

come together to form different within-person trajectories of organizational commitment that change over time (Solinger et al., 2015). Valaei and Rezaei (2016) offered another recent definition consideration for organizational commitment. These researchers suggested that definitions of organizational commitment are dependent on the context of the organization and therefore vary. Scholarly literature since the early 1960s attempted to narrowly define organizational commitment constructs, however rigorous debate remains as to whether prominent frameworks are valid in varying contexts and if they accurately describe commitment (Mercurio, 2015).

Organizational commitment measurement tools. Based on assumptions from the organizational commitment research proposed by Becker (1960), the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ; Mowday et al., 1979) was developed as a systematic tool to assess an individual's identification with an organization (Thakre, 2015). OCQ uses a Likert scale to measure an individual's desire to remain a member of the organization (affective commitment), costs and benefits associated with leaving or staying with an organization (continuity commitment), and an individual's view of their obligation to remain with the organization (normative commitment; Betanzos-Diaz & Rodríguez-Loredo, 2017). Also influenced by Becker (1960), Meyer and Allen (1991) incorporated the side-bet theory into the development of the continuance component in the Three-Component Model (Powell & Meyer, 2004). The Three-Component Model of Organizational Commitment suggests that organizational commitment is comprised of affective, continuance, and normative components (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Organizational Identification Questionnaire (OIC; Cheney, 1983) was developed in response to the Identification Theory (Patchen, 1970) and is used to measure how an individual perceives an organizational role's value or interests when evaluating choices

(Gautam, Dick, & Wagner, 2004). The Organizational Commitment Instrument (OCI; Cook & Wall, 1980) measures commitment by assessing identification, involvement as seen in one's willingness to invest effort, and loyalty (Barge & Schlueter, 1988). The Calculative Organizational Commitment Measure (COC; Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972) calculates the incentives required to result in a less committed individual by measuring the following inducements: pay, professional creativity freedom, status, and coworker friendliness (Barge & Schlueter, 1988).

Side-bet theory. Early research on organizational commitment includes the side-bet theory, proposed by Becker (1960) which suggested that an understanding of commitment is predicated upon an explanation of consistent human behavior. Becker used the term side bet to explain several elements of commitment. First, the decisions individuals make in one area have consequences in other areas. Second, past actions lead to current positions. Third, individuals are aware of the side bet and the outside ramifications. The Side-Bet theory suggested that commitment decisions consider the impact to other interests and outside activities, are formed from prior actions, and recognize that commitments have overlapping ramifications (Becker, 1960; Mercurio, 2015). Becker suggested that individuals not only deliberately make side bets but side bets can also be made for them by cultural expectations of what one should do and the penalties for not; by a desire to present a consistent public image; by bureaucratic arrangements that force decisions on alternatives that are outside of one's control; by becoming comfortable in the current social position; and by the individual's system of values. The side-bet theory continues to be influential through its incorporation into multi-dimensional organizational commitment models such as the three-component model proposed by Meyer and Allen (1991).

Multi-dimensional organizational commitment. The side-bet theory, and limitations of the OCQ, such as the inherent risk in using questionnaires, employee behavior, and a lack of

consensus on how commitment is defined, led to research on multi-dimensional organizational commitment models (Ghosh & Swamy, 2014; Meyer & Allen, 1991; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Research conducted by O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) studied organizational commitment from a psychological attachment perspective and identified three independent variables that represent dimensions of organizational commitment. O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) suggested that compliance to receive rewards, identification based on a desire for association, and internalization of organizational values were underlying psychological factors that determine organizational commitment.

In another multi-dimensional study, Meyer and Allen (1991) proposed a three-component model of organizational commitment that incorporates attitudinal and behavioral approaches with their complementary relationships (Meyer & Allen, 1991). The three-component model identified three general themes—*affective commitment*, which describes one's desire for membership in the organization; *continuance commitment*, which reflects the need to commit because of costs or lack of alternatives; and *normative commitment*, which reflects a person's obligation to remain with an organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Two-dimensional organizational commitment. Limitations regarding causality, behavior, and dimension ambiguity in the models proposed by O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) and Meyer and Allen (1991) led to a two-dimensional theory consisting of the timing of commitment and bases of commitment (Cohen, 2007; Meyer & Allen, 1991; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). The timing dimension of commitment identifies a person's propensity to commit, as measured before entry into an organization, and their instrumental or affective commitment, after joining the organization (Cohen, 2007). The bases of commitment dimension identify the level of instrumental and psychological attachment to an organization (Cohen, 2007).

Studies into the conceptualization, measurement, and theoretical framework of organization commitment have varied, the most widely accepted model remains the Meyer and Allen (1991) three-component model (Kim et al., 2017; Llobet & Fito, 2013). Ghosh and Swamy (2014) suggested that the attitudinal and behavioral aspects of organizational commitment found in the various studies and influences on the level of commitment, lead to the need for organizations to dig deep into the psychological impacts and the interactions individuals have with organizations. An analysis of studies on organizational commitment is an avenue to the study of the psychological impacts and an analysis of the impact of interactions with various leadership styles further extends the organizational commitment study. A review of literature in these two areas follows.

Studies related to organizational commitment. As the most widely accepted model of organizational commitment, Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-component model is found in recent studies in organizational commitment. Studies attempted to identify the antecedents and consequences of organizational commitment to add to the academic literature. This section reviews the results of several recent studies in affective, normative, and continuance organization commitment, and provides a summary of the relationship between organization commitment and leadership style.

Affective organizational commitment. Affective organizational commitment is based on employee psychological association, participation and recognition with the organization and is defined as an individual's desire to remain associated with the organization (Rafiei, Amini, & Foroozandeh, 2014). The seminal measurement of affective commitment came in the form of the Mowday et al. (1979) Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ). It has been suggested that affective commitment is representative of an employee's commitment to the

organization overall (Jalilvand & Nasrolahi Vosta, 2015). Memili, Zellweger, and Fang (2013) reported that work experiences, employee dispositions, and organizational structures induce affective commitment. Kim, Eisenberger, and Baik (2016) and Memili et al. (2013) suggested that affective commitment is associated with predicting employee dedication, loyalty, inclination to support organizational goals, and results in increased performance, increased well-being, and reduced absenteeism and voluntary turnover. Jalilvand and Nasrolahi Vosta (2015) found that the development of affective commitment is in response to employees becoming involved in an organization, finding value in an organization, identifying with being associated with an organization, and believing that their association with satisfy their needs. Öztürk, Karagonlar, and Emirza (2017) found that the role of affective organizational commitment to be viewed as either an outcome influenced by job stress or a coping resource to mediate the impact of job stress. Jena, Bhattacharyya, and Pradhan (2017) suggested that studying affective organizational commitment antecedents, such as employee voice and engagement is critical to defining strategies to increase employee commitment. Gao-Urhahn, Biemann, and Jaros (2016) studied the development of affective organizational commitment over a six-year period and found a positive relationship between affective commitment and income level, suggesting that higher affective commitment leads to higher income over time. Moon, Hur, Ko, Kim, and Yoon (2014) found a positive association between affective commitment employee acts of compassion toward coworkers and a positive impact on affective commitment from the distributive, procedural, and interactional components of organizational justice. Affective commitment was shown to have a positive relationship to subjective and objective forms of mentoring and aid in predicting employee turnover intention (Craig, Allen, Reid, Riemenschneider, & Armstrong, 2013). Long-term exposure to work overload has been shown to negatively impact affective commitment as a

result of reductions in job dedication and a lack of employee accomplishment (Chênevert, Vandenberghe, Doucet, & Ben Ayed, 2013). In a study of predictors of affective commitment, St-Hilaire and de la Robertie (2018) found that internal motivation to continue with the organization, a stimulatingly challenging job, and manageable workload to be positively related to affective commitment. Casimir, Ng, Ooi, and Wang (2014) studied the leadership member exchange relationship and found a positive relationship to affective commitment of the fulfillment of follower's socioemotional needs, the development of favorable work environments, and follower's feelings of emotional attachment. In a study on the relationship between perceived organizational engagement and behavior, affective commitment was found to directly influence the effect perceived organizational support has on work outcomes and organizational behavior (Gupta, Agarwal, & Khatri, 2016). Organizational factors such as training, rewards, teamwork, and communication have also been found to be positively related to affective commitment and the higher an employee's perception of organizational support for these factors the higher the level of commitment (Khan, Talat, & Azar, 2015). Jayasingam, Govindasamy, and Garib Singh (2016) also studied organizational factors impacting affective commitment and found that workplace value identity, which includes compensation, training, and development, promotion of knowledge sharing, and to a lesser degree, management support where each positively related to affective commitment. Qi, Li, and Zhang (2014) suggested that job crafting, which is a process of redesigning or modifying one's job, was evidence of an employee's willingness to take the initiative in setting goals and improving performance and found that high levels of affective commitment translated into job crafting by employees. In comparison to normative and continuance commitment, research suggested by Mercurio (2015) found affective commitment to be core to overall organizational commitment and associated

more with employee behavior than normative or continuance commitment. Similarly, research conducted by Chordiya, Sabharwal, and Goodman (2017) suggested that normative and continuance organizational commitment are inconsistent with affective organizational commitment in determining whether an employee continues membership with the organization.

Normative organizational commitment. Scholarly research on normative commitment has garnered less attention on affective commitment (Çakmak-Otluglu & Ünsal-Akbiyik, 2015). Normative organizational commitment is based on an employee's perception of their obligation to the organization and is defined as a responsibility to remain with the organization (Rafiei et al., 2014). Research by Betanzos-Diaz and Rodríguez-Loredo (2017) suggested that normative commitment can be related to the identification of employee organizational values and standards, relationship reciprocity, and compliance or loyalty to duty. Studies show that career growth, organizational learning cultures, professional respect, and affective commitment have positive impacts on normative commitment (Brown, Chen, & O'Donnell, 2017; Islam, Ahmad Kassim, Ali, & Sadiq, 2014; Liu, He, & Yu, 2017). Other studies show that factors such as corporate social responsibility, perceived job insecurity, and benefits of training have minimal to no impact on normative commitment (Bashir & Long, 2015; Çakmak-Otluglu & Ünsal-Akbiyik, 2015; Mory, Wirtz, & Göttel, 2016). Factors such as job involvement, organizational environment, nature of work, availability of training, motivation to learn, co-worker support, and supervisor support of training have been found to have a positive association with normative organizational commitment (Bashir & Long, 2015; Valaei & Rezaei, 2016; Takrima & Amin, 2015; Zopiatis, Constanti, & Theocharous, 2014). Research conducted by Imer, Kabasakal, and Dastmalchian (2014) suggested that helping others, as a form of citizenship behavior, has a significant positive relationship to normative organizational commitment when strong feelings of affiliation exist

within the group. In research on job involvement and commitment, Singh and Gupta (2015) found a negative relationship between professional commitment, which is defined as a psychological attachment and identification with one's chosen profession, and normative commitment. In a study on performance, Rafiei et al. (2014) found that normative commitment had a significant positive impact on employee performance. Lopez-Cabarcos, Machado-Lopes-Sampaio-de Pinho, and Vazquez-Rodriguez (2015) studied procedural justice and found that when comparing affective, normative, and continuance components of organizational commitment, normative is influenced the most. When studying job satisfaction, Lopes-Cabarcos et al. (2014) found a stronger relationship to affective commitment than to normative but notes that the research audience may have influenced this finding. Moin (2018) studied the effect of three emotion regulating strategies—surface acting, which is simply modifying identifiable emotional signs, deep acting, which is modifying feelings to match work-related requirements, and genuine emotions. The researchers found that surface acting had a negative influence while deep acting had a positive influence on employee's normative commitment.

Continuance organizational commitment. Continuance organizational commitment is based on employee investments and is defined as an individual's link to an organization because better alternatives do not exist, or the cost of leaving is prohibitive (Rafiei et al., 2014). Garland, Lambert, Hogan, Kim, and Kelley (2014) suggested that continuance organizational commitment is entrenched in Becker's (1960) side-bet theory and results from employees wanting to keep the benefits gained from their investments in the organization regardless of how they feel about the organization. Employee investments of their time and energy to organization-specific results are bets that can only be won with continued employment and therefore continued employment is positively related to the associated investments (Kuok & Taormina, 2015). Lambert, Kim,

Hogan, Kelley, and Garland (2017) described continuance commitment as a behavioral bond created by the lost sunk cost associated with leaving an organization. Sunk cost induced bonds are created out of necessity and form feelings of involuntary ties that result in reductions in positive organizational behaviors (Lambert et al., 2017). Continuance committed employees are committed to the organization because they believe they must, not because they choose to (Lambert, Hogan, Kelley, Kim, & Garland, 2014). Devece, Palacios-Marqués, and Pilar Alguacil (2016) described continuance commitment as calculative and two-dimensional. In one dimension, employees make sacrifices to stay with an organization and in the other dimension, represents the employee's employment alternatives. The exchange mechanism between employees and employers is the foundation of continuance commitment and any factor that increases an employee's cost of disassociation can be considered a predictor of continuance commitment (Moin, 2018). Abreu, Cunha, and Rebouças (2013) suggested that direct factors such as limited transferable skills and education, few alternative job opportunities, and pension plans, and indirect time-based factors such as age and tenure, are antecedents of continuance commitment.

Research in the mediating role of continuance commitment reveals various considerations in the understanding of continuance commitment. Panaccio, Vandenberghe, and Ben Ayed (2014) researched pay satisfaction and voluntary turnover and concluded that continuance commitment is a mediator of the negative pay satisfaction to turnover relationship. Takrima and Amin (2015) studied the organizational environment to determine if there is a relationship between continuance organizational commitment and employee's perception and characterization of an organization. The researchers grouped organizational environment into four subscales—consideration, intimacy, disengagement, and production emphasis—and found a

low positive relationship to continuance commitment. Studies in human resource development practices such as employee selection, training, performance development, compensation, incentives, and career development show positive relationships to continuance commitment (Uraon, 2018). However, an employee's intention to stay with an organization was shown to be unrelated (Uraon, 2018). Freund (2017) studied the impact of gender on the relationship between job involvement and continuance commitment and found no relationship in women or men. Ranaweera and Menon (2013) studied positive and negative word of mouth comments in customer relationships and found that continuance commitment increases negative comments in employees, and results in increased negative comments in dissatisfied customers, but has no impact on positive comments in satisfied customers.

Organizational commitment and leadership styles. A critical component in creating and maintaining environments that promote high employee performance is understanding how leadership style affects employee behavior (Hong et al., 2016). Research conducted by Yahaya and Ebrahim (2016) suggested that a leader's style may be an antecedent to organizational commitment. Yousef (2000) found that employees were more committed to the organization when they perceived their leaders as having a consultative or participative leadership style. Yiing and Ahmad (2009) suggested a positive relationship between organizational commitment and leader's employing directive, participative and supportive styles. Research conducted by Lok and Crawford (1999) suggested that a consideration leadership style had a strong influence on an employee's organizational commitment. Dale and Fox (2008) studied the initiating structure and consideration leadership styles and found direct positive relationships to organizational commitment. Not all researchers suggest a positive relationship between leadership style and organizational commitment. Research conducted by Rafiq Awan and

Mahmood (2010) on employee commitment in university libraries found no direct relationship to the leader's style. Rafiq Awan and Mahmood's (2010) conclusion might suggest that under other specific situations a direct relationship between organizational commitment and leadership style might also not exist. Research conducted by Choi, Tran, and Park (2015) found that by addressing follower's needs, leadership style promotes high levels of motivation and engagement in the workforce.

Organizational commitment and leadership style studies using MLQ. Research conducted by Pierro, Raven, Amato, and Bélanger (2013) used a subset of the MLQ (Bass & Avolio, 1995) and a six-item affective organizational commitment subscale to measure transformational leadership and affective commitment. The researchers concluded that transformational leadership was positively and significantly related to affective organizational commitment and suggested that the findings highlight the importance of transformational leadership to increased organizational commitment (Pierro et al., 2013). Asiri, Rohrer, Al-Surimi, Da'ar, and Ahmed (2016) studied leadership style and organizational commitment using the MLQ (Bass & Avolio, 1995), the Psychological Empowerment Scale (Spreitzer, 1995), and the Three-Component Organizational Commitment Model (Meyer & Allen, 1991). The researchers concluded that transformational leadership was moderately positively associated with continuance and normative organizational commitment (Asiri et al., 2016). The researchers also found a positive association between transactional leadership and organizational commitment mediated by empowerment and decision-making participation (Asiri et al., 2016). A study conducted by Wei, Lee, and Kwan (2016) considered transactional leadership as a subset of transformational leadership and grouped its contingent reward and active management by exception components with transformational leadership. The passive component of transactional

leadership was grouped with the laissez-faire form of leadership in the study. Using the MLQ (Bass & Avolio, 1995) and an eight-item affective commitment questionnaire adopted from Meyer and Allen, the researchers found a more positive relationship to higher organizational commitment in the transformational-contingent reward-active management leadership style group than in the other group (Wei et al., 2016).

Organizational commitment and leadership style studies using MLQ and OCQ.

Smothers and Lawton (2017) used the MLQ (Bass & Avolio, 1995) and the OCQ (Mowday et al., 1979) to conduct research on the organizational commitment of employees in a local municipality. The researchers found that the inspirational component of transformation leadership contributed the most to a higher number of test subjects being committed and the individualized component contributing the least, even lower than scores for the transactional leadership style (Smothers & Lawton, 2017). In a study of the effect of leadership style on job satisfaction and organizational commitment in Iranian teachers, researcher Sayadi (2016) used the MLQ (Bass & Avolio, 1995) and OCQ (Mowday et al., 1979) and determined that transformational leadership and to a lesser degree, transactional leadership styles, were positively related to higher job satisfaction, value commitment, and commitment to stay with the organization. Garg and Ramjee (2013) conducted a study on leadership styles and employee commitment using the MLQ (Bass & Avolio, 1995) and OCQ (Mowday et al., 1979) in a South African parastatal company. The researchers found a weak positive relationship between transactional leadership and normative commitment and a weak positive relationship between transformation leadership and affective, normative, and continuance commitment (Garg & Ramjee, 2013). Limsila and Ogunlana (2018) studied the leadership styles of project managers and commitment of their employees using the MLQ (Bass & Avolio, 1995) and OCQ (Mowday

et al., 1979) to determine effects on work performance and leadership outcomes. These researchers concluded that transformational leadership is likely to promote employee commitment, while transactional leadership styles will not. Limsila and Ogunlana (2018) postulated that the study results provide knowledge needed to understand the leadership style preferred by professional level employees to improve organizational commitment.

Studies related to leadership style. Today's leaders are strategic thinkers who must assess external and internal conditions to formulate appropriate responses daily and long-term (Rowold, 2014). A leader's choice between transformation or transaction leadership style is dependent on organizational and environmental factors (Baškarada, Watson, & Cromarty, 2017). The transformational and transactional study summary that follows looks at some of those impacting factors.

Transformational leadership. The transformational leadership style is defined by leader-follower relationships and the organizational results, and higher morality and motivation they achieve (Thomson, Rawson, Slade, & Bledsoe, 2016). Research conducted by Thomson et al. (2016) associated transformational leadership with organizational increases in citizenship, culture, vision, and employee increases in empowerment, satisfaction, trust, self-efficiency, beliefs, motivation, and decreases in voluntary turnover. Mathew and Gupta (2015) also focused on the relationship factor in describing the transformational leadership style as one that drives the emotions of followers and influences them to go about expectations. McCaffrey and Reinoso (2017) suggested that transformational leadership motivates people to the desired change using a strong vision, inspirational guidance, and intellectual stimulation. The authors associated transformational leaders with new idea creation, fundamental change in complex situations, and conflict resolution (McCaffrey & Reinoso, 2017).

When studying the relationship between transformational leadership style and emotional intelligence, Mathew and Gupta (2015) confirmed that transformational leadership is related to the awareness of emotions in self and others, the ability to manage emotions, self-motivation, and empathy, found in emotional intelligence. In a study on psychological empowerment, which is the intrinsic motivation that enhances self-efficacy, drives work meaning, and a desire to have an impact, Rabindra, Madhusmita, and Lalatendu (2017) found a positive relationship to the transformational leadership style. Chen, Wang, and Lee (2018) also found that transformational leadership promotes meaningfulness in work and intrinsic motivation. Additionally, Chen et al. (2018) found that transformational leadership results in increased employee voice behaviors, which are the source of innovative ideas, can inhibit negative organizational consequences, and can result in improved performance and organizational benefits. The direct impact and relationship of the transformational leader style has been widely researched and additional factors such as employee voluntary turnover, social entrepreneurs, corporate entrepreneurship, self-esteem, and organizational growth, have been revealed (Chang, Chang, & Chen, 2017; Katou, 2015; Matzler, Bauer, & Mooradian, 2015; Muralidharan & Pathak, 2018; Sahu, Pathardikar, & Kumar, 2018).

The style has been segmented into four dimensions—idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and empowerment (Ghadi, Fernando, & Caputi, 2013). While some researchers have found a significant positive relationship between the segments of transformational leadership and organizational commitment, others have found only a partial relationship (Ibrahim, Ghavifekr, Ling, Siraj, & Azeez, 2014; Joo & Lim, 2013; Mehar, Sarwar, Rauf, & Asif, 2015; Rana, Malik, & Hussain, 2016).

Idealized influence. The idealized influence segment describes the reliability and strong model leaders display that result in followers revering the leader as they direct them toward the organizations vision and mission (Teymournejad & Elghaei, 2017). Leaders set self-interest aside to build follower loyalty, devotion, and identification in the idealized segment (Ghadi et al., 2013). This segment describes the extent of trust, respect, and how much followers identify with the leader (Prasad & Junni, 2016). Idealized influence has been associated with increased sense of connectedness with others (Zdaniuk & Bobocel, 2015). Feizi, Ebrahimi, and Beheshti (2014) suggested that idealized influence corresponds to the leader's charisma and the impression followers have about the leader's abilities. In the idealized influence segment leaders model the achievement, values, and behavior that followers perceive as having the potential to aid advancing the follower's career (Joo & Lim, 2013). Research conducted by Dartey-Baah and Addo (2018) suggested that the idealized influence segment provides meaning for the other three transformational leadership segments and without it the others are less effective. In research on organizational commitment, Feizi et al. (2014) found that of the four transformational leadership segments, idealized influence had the greatest impact. Stempel, Rigotti, and Mohr (2015) posited that the factors of idealized influence have more to do with the impression followers have than on any characteristic of the leader themselves. Jyoti and Dev (2015) suggested that leaders demonstrating the idealized influence segment focus on how the leader's values, beliefs and mission shape the decisions he or she makes and the actions they take.

Research conducted by Rana et al. (2016) suggested that the subfactors of transformational and transactional leadership are positively related to job involvement. The researchers specifically identified the positive relationship between idealized influence and predicting job involvement, correlating to motivation and positive attitudes about achieving

organizational goals, job satisfaction (Rana et al., 2016). Mehar et al. (2015) suggested a significant positive relationship between idealized influence and organizational commitment. Research conducted by Joo and Lim (2013) concluded that idealized influence is positively related to career satisfaction. In a study in the organizational commitment of teachers, Feizi et al. (2014) found a significant relationship between idealized influence and organizational commitment.

Inspirational motivation. The inspirational motivation segment describes the increased motivation leaders inspire in followers by focusing on the follower's emotions as opposed to daily interactions (Teymournejad & Elghaei, 2017). Inspirational motivation promotes follower participation in the organization by creating an appealing vision (Ghadi et al., 2013). In inspirational motivation leaders use discussions and negotiations, and they emphasize the positive perspective of the future, versus the current state, to encourage followers to support a common vision (Feizi et al., 2014). Through optimism and excitement, leaders displaying inspirational motivation lead followers toward the goals of the organization and give followers a reason to reach for higher performance (Prasad & Junni, 2016). Inspirational motivation relays extraordinary expectations about performance resulting in the acceptance of the important role employees play in contributing to the organizational and to achieving their own career goals (Joo & Lim, 2013). Inspirational motivation leaders serve as a model for followers to achieve goals and they clearly and confidently communicate vision optimistically and with enthusiasm (Jyoti & Dev, 2015). Mehar et al. (2015) suggested a positive relationship between inspirational motivation and commitment. When compared to the other three segments of transformational leadership, Ibrahim et al. (2014) found inspirational motivation to have the weakest correlation to organizational commitment. Eliophotou-Menon and Ioannouz (2016) found a positive

relationship between inspirational motivation and commitment in a study of the impact leadership style has on commitment.

Intellectual stimulation. Leaders who encourage employees to question assumptions, think non-traditionally, innovate, and be risk-takers, display the intellectual stimulation segment (Ghadi et al., 2013). Intellectual stimulation leaders encourage followers to question the values, way of thinking, and belief of both themselves and their leader (Jyoti & Dev, 2015). In intellectual stimulation, leaders encourage followers to consider different perspectives, be creative, and innovative when looking at problems and (Feizi et al., 2014; Prasad & Junni, 2016). Joo and Lim (2013) suggested that intellectual stimulation behaviors motivate employees to seek out demanding assignments, new knowledge, skills, abilities, and balance in their personal and professional lives. Mehar et al. (2015) suggested a positive relationship between intellectual motivation and commitment. Research conducted by Joo and Lim (2013) concluded that intellectual stimulation is positively related to career satisfaction.

Empowerment. In the empowerment segment, which is also known as individualized consideration, leaders recognize the differences in followers and provide individualized attention that motivates followers to exercise authority in decision making (Ghadi et al., 2013; Teymournejad & Elghaei, 2017). In this segment the leader recognizes followers as individuals, attend to their needs, show concern for their feelings, and motivates followers to take responsibility for developing themselves (Jyoti & Dev, 2015; Prasad & Junni, 2016; Teymournejad & Elghaei, 2017). In individualized consideration, leaders provide practice, education, and training opportunities to followers to allow them to discover their capabilities and potential (Feizi et al., 2014). Joo and Lim (2013) suggested that in this segment the attention leaders give to their employees, encourage them to find value in learning and increase career

success expectations. Mehar et al. (2015) suggested a positive relationship between individual consideration and commitment. When compared to the other three segments of transformational leadership, Ibrahim et al. (2014) found individualized consideration to have the strongest correlation to commitment.

Transformational leadership style and organizational commitment. Researchers have studied the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment in various mediating situations (Chai et al., 2017; Chan & Mak, 2014; Gillet & Vandenberghe, 2014; Wang, Ma, & Zhang, 2014). Chan and Mak (2014) found a positive relationship between transformational leadership and commitment when mediated by the follower's pride in following the leader. Chai et al. (2017) suggested that shared team vision positively mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment. Gillet and Vandenberghe (2014) posited that job characteristic perceptions partially mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment. Research conducted by Wang et al. (2014) supported a direct and indirect relationship between transformational leaders and organizational commitment when mediated by perceived organizational justice and job characteristics. Triana, Richard, and Yücel (2017) studied status congruence, specifically age, education, experience, and tenure, and found a less than positive relationship between transformation leadership and organizational commitment when status incongruence is high. When mediated by job autonomy, Jain and Duggal (2018) concluded that transformational leader is positively related to organizational commitment and that emotional intelligence improves the relationship with transformational leadership and organizational commitment. Research conducted by Caillier (2015) investigated the relationship between transformational leadership and whistle-blowing and the mediating role of organizational commitment. The authors posited

that the openness, individualized consideration, and the acceptable dissent encouraged by transformational leaders result in a greater likelihood for employees to feel comfortable being whistle blowers who disclose wrongdoing. The researcher concluded that the relationship between transformational leadership and whistle-blowing was mediated by organizational commitment. Caillier (2015) suggested that increased commitment resulting from transformational leadership increases employee demonstration of their commitment to protect the organization.

Keskes, Sallan, Simo, and Fernandez (2018) conducted a study of the relationship between transformational leadership and dimensions of organizational commitment. Keskes et al. (2018) suggested that transformational leadership using intellectual stimulation was positively related to affective commitment when the leader held a professional role. Continuance commitment was enhanced by the value and praise offered by transformation leaders and normative commitment was enhanced by the support and concern displayed to followers by transformational leaders (Keskes et al., 2018). Contrary to Keskes et al. (2018), Baek, Byers, and Vito (2018) concluded that although they could not rule out an influence, the segments of transformational leadership had no statistically significant influence on the dimensions organizational commitment. Franke and Felfe (2011) conducted a study of the impact transformational leadership has on perceived physical strain when moderated by effective organizational commitment. The researchers suggested that individualized consideration and idealized influence segments of transformational leadership were negatively related to perceived occupational strain, but intellectual stimulation and inspirational motivation were not (Franke & Felfe, 2011). In a study on the mediating role of perceived corporate social responsibility and organizational identification, Allen, Attoh, and Gong (2017) concluded that there is a positive

mediating relationship to transformational leadership and affective organizational commitment. The researchers suggested that followers of transformational leaders, have higher levels of perceived corporate social responsibility, have increased feelings of organizational identification, and have stronger affective organizational commitment (Allen et al., 2017).

Transactional leadership. The transactional leadership style offers a contingent reward and management by exception approach to leadership (Antonakis & House, 2014). Research by Antonakis and House (2014) suggested that the effectiveness of transformational leadership in vision strategies and follower energy is predicated on a solid transactional leadership foundation. In addition to contingent rewards, Jensen et al. (2016) reconceptualized transactional leadership as using three forms of performance-effort contingent behaviors—nonpecuniary, pecuniary, and contingent sanctions and developed a model focused on behavior, and a distinction between types of rewards and sanctions. Dartey-Baah (2015) summarized transactional leadership as a traditional bottom line structured approach focused on compliance to parameters, guidelines, rules, and expectations, to achieve predictable and controlled results. Prasad and Junni (2016) described the transactional leadership style's concern for employee's self-interest through the use of clearly established relationship exchanges and concluded that transactional leadership style is positively related to organizational innovation. However, Martin (2015) suggested that the transactional leadership style's need for work to be completed as expected is not well-suited for innovative organizations, which require flexibility and openness to failure as a learning opportunity. Transactional leadership takes on a view of human activity from a behaviorist point of view (Khan, 2017). Khan (2017) offered several points of criticism regarding transactional leadership. The author posited that transactional leadership motivates, praises and incentivizes followers only at the base level and therefore fails to go beyond the set goal, and encourage

higher levels of achievement or aid in follower development (Khan, 2017). The leader-follower relationship in transactional leadership is based on mutual benefits where the leader provides material or spiritual items of value to the follower in exchange for the goals of value to the leader (Tung, 2016).

In a study on follower achievement goals, Hamstra, Van Yperen, Wisse, and Sassenberg (2014) concluded that transactional leadership styles are positively related to employee endorsement of performance goals and is associated with employees applying interpersonal standards of competence to the performance goals. Hussain, Abbas, Lei, Jamal Haider, and Akram (2017) studied transactional leadership and found a significant positive relationship to organizational creativity and knowledge sharing and suggested that by providing clear direction and appropriate rewards, in some contexts, transactional leadership style might be a better employee motivator. Similarly, research conducted by Sanda and Arthur (2017) also found a positive relationship between transactional leadership style and employee creativity. However, Kark, Van Dijk, and Vashdi (2018) found that transactional leadership creates mistake prevention environments that negatively affect employee creativity. As seen in Haider and Akram (2017) research, Deichmann and Stam (2015) also found a positive relationship to employee motivation. The direct positive impact and relationship of the transformational leadership style, has been somewhat widely researched and additional factors such as administrative effectiveness, adaptive performance, and job involvement, have been revealed (Hoandră, 2017; Rana et al., 2016; Tetteh-Opai & Omoregie, 2015).

Ma and Jiang (2018) suggested that the complexity and ambiguity found in most organizations would benefit from the efficient direction provided by transactional leaders as they clarify tasks and roles and link them to rewards and punishment. In a study on employee

creativity, Ma and Jiang (2018) concluded that transactional leadership is positively linked to creative employee behaviors, but organizational context is a determining factor. The researcher found that in transformational leader organizations, high level financial rewards promote employee creativity and transactional leader organizations, nonfinancial rewards to build trust and respect, and thereby increase the inclination to be creative (Ma & Jiang, 2018). Several other authors have also studied the relationship between transactional leadership and employee creativity. Hamstra, Van Yperen, Wisse, and Sassenberg (2013) suggested that a focus on employee promotion serves as a mediator in the transactional leader and employee creativity relationship. Henker, Sonnentag, and Unger (2015) and Sacramento, Fay, and West (2013) found that a focus on promotion mediates the relationship. Moriano, Molero, Topa, and Lévy Mangin (2014) and Tung (2016), however, found a negative relationship between transactional leadership and creativity. Transactional leaders use their influence as the basis for exchanging follower benefits for performance and take control to resolve problems (Saravo, Netzel, & Kiesewetter, 2017).

The dimensions of active transactional leadership include contingent reward, active management by exception, passive management by exception, and laissez-faire (Bass, 1990; Martínez-Córcoles & Stephanou, 2017). While offering rewards to employees creates reasonable degrees of organizational commitment, each dimension of transactional leadership has benefits and drawbacks (Rana et al., 2016). While Mesu, Van Riemsdijk, and Sanders (2013) suggested that each dimension is independent of the other and can be examined separately, research conducted by Willis, Clarke, and O'Connor (2017) posited that the structure of transactional leadership leads to contingent reward as a dimension of transformational leadership and passive management by exception and laissez-faire being dimensions of passive leadership.

Furthermore, Hinkin and Schriesheim (2008) suggested that the measures for passive management by exception and laissez-faire leadership are highly correlated and have similar variable relationships and therefore while separate in theory, operationally, they show little difference.

Contingent reward. Transactional contingent reward may be referred to as a constructive transaction that describes leader behavior which fulfil the spirit of an exchange relationship between the leader and employee (Sayadi, 2016). Contingent reward is a positive activation and contract-based means by which leaders clarify follower task requirements and criteria for performance to meet goals and the reward the follower will receive for their effort and achievement of goals (Xenikou, 2017). When clarifying how needs are met through rewards, the contingent reward leader recognizes the employee's needs and gains agreement with employees on how rewards will be distributed based on performance (Ewen et al., 2013). Contingent reward leaders gain agreement on the reward and performance and the timeframe within which the job and exchange will occur in advance of the task (Birasnav, 2014). Although not as inspirational as transformational leadership, leaders displaying the contingent reward dimension of transactional leadership clearly set goals and expectations for achieving those goals (Breevaart et al., 2014). The intent of contingent reward is to stimulate employee motivation to complete tasks (Breevaart et al., 2014). When the rewards are material, the leadership style is transactional but when they are psychological, the rewards are considered a part of transformational leadership (Breevaart et al., 2014). Raziq, Ahmad, Malik, Borini, and Shabaz (2018) suggested that employees show higher levels of commitment when they know their hard work will be acknowledged and rewarded. When considering organizational outcomes, of the four dimensions of transactional leadership, contingent reward is considered the most effective as it

represents effort needed to develop and maintain organizational culture, the encouragement of employees to put forth effort toward their goals, and the employee's perception of getting what they deserve (Xenikou, 2017).

In a study on the increase in organizational commitment through transactional leadership, Afshari and Gibson (2016) suggested that the receipt of rewards as an outcome of job performance results in feelings of an obligation to perform more positively to achieve organizational outcomes. The obligation to perform is characterized by normative commitment to the organization and is enhanced by providing employees with contingent rewards (Afshari & Gibson, 2016). Additionally, employees are more likely to display affective commitment as an outcome of contingent rewards (Afshari & Gibson, 2016). In a study of the effect transactional leadership style and organizational commitment, Sayadi (2016) suggested that the contingent reward style has a positive effect on employee organizational commitment. Research conducted by Jackson, Meyer, and Wang (2013) found a strong positive relationship between contingent reward and affective organizational commitment.

Active management by exception. Active management by exception is driven by a concentration on maintaining the routines, procedures, beliefs and traditions that have already been established using close monitoring of any deviations for immediate correction and problem avoidance (Dartey-Baah & Addo, 2018). In the active form of management by exception is a corrective leadership style that removes barriers to goal success and is vigilant in ensuring correct and timely achievement of planned organizational objectives (Sayadi, 2016). Managers displaying the active form of management by exception continuously monitor to ensure employees do not make errors and the flow of work is excellent (Rana et al., 2016). Raziq et al. (2018) suggested that too much monitoring may be detrimental to goals, by causing employees

to lose motivation from being continuously corrected and bound by a closed work environment. The active dimension anticipates mistakes and enforces rules to prevent them (Breevaart et al., 2014). When compared to contingent rewards, achievement management by exception is less effective (Breevaart et al., 2014). However, when compared to the passive dimension, active management by exception is more positively related to employee motivation, organizational commitment, and organizational goal achievement (Rana et al., 2016).

In a study of the impact of leadership style and organizational commitment, when compared to passive management by exception, Wei et al. (2016) found that active management by exception resulted in higher employee organizational commitment. When compared to contingent reward, Jackson et al. (2013) found a positive but considerably weaker relationship between active management and affective organizational commitment. In a study of the effect of transactional leadership style and organizational commitment, Sayadi (2016) also suggested that the active management by exception style has a positive effect on employee organizational commitment. Susanj and Jakopce (2012) found that active leadership had both direct and indirect positive effects on organizational commitment. Lyndon and Rawat (2015) studied the effect of leadership on organizational commitment and found that active management by exception had a positive but weak correlation to affective, normative, and continuance commitment.

Passive management by exception. Passive management by exception is characterized by leaders acting after problems have arisen (Tetteh-Opai & Omoregie, 2015). Unlike the active form, leaders displaying the passive form of management by exception interferes only when mistakes occur (Rana et al., 2016). Passive management by exception behaviors are likely to ignore employees displaying undesirable behaviors until a serious problem occurs (Sawhney &

Cigularov, 2018). Passive management by exception leaders confront employees to express disapproval of mistakes made (Breevaart et al., 2014). The action taken by the leader can be perceived negatively by followers as criticism, repercussions, or punishment (Martínez-Córcoles & Stephanou, 2017). Jackson et al. (2013) suggested that employees may perceive passive management by exception as unfair resulting in lower levels of affective commitment. Leaders using the passive form of management by exception are more likely to have a large span of control and often display avoidance behaviors (Breevaart et al., 2014). Passive management by exception leaders often are unaware of potential problems until they are brought to their attention (Jiang & Probst, 2016). This type of leadership is considered less effective and has been referred to as an absence of leadership (Jiang & Probst, 2016). Mesu et al. (2013) found passive management positively related to laissez-faire management with both resulting in negative outcomes, such as the loss of employee trust and commitment.

Lyndon and Rawat (2015) studied the effect of leadership on organizational commitment and found that passive management by exception did not correlate with any component of employee commitment. Clinebell et al. (2013) suggested that the behaviors of passive management by exception and laissez-faire leaders have a significant negative impact on effective organizational commitment and their research showed no significant relationship to either continuance or normative commitment. In a study on passive leadership and affective organizational commitment, Chênevert et al. (2013) concluded that passive leadership is positively associated with increases in role conflict, overload, and ambiguity, and is negatively related to long-term affective commitment. Conversely, Susanj and Jakopec (2012) found no negative relationship between passive leadership and organizational commitment. In a study on the impact of leadership on employee flexibility, Mesu et al. (2013) found that organizational

commitment had no impact on the positive relationship between passive management by exception and employee flexibility. Lo, Ramayah, Min, and Songan (2010) studied the mediating role leader-member exchange plays in the relationship between leadership style and organizational commitment and found that passive management by exception and contingent reward have a significant relationship with affective and continuance organizational commitment.

Laissez-faire. Laissez-faire is a highly passive style that is negatively related to performance (Rowold, 2014). In laissez-faire, leaders give full decision-making authority to followers by providing them with the tools they need (Zareen, Razzaq, & Mujtaba, 2015). Susanj and Jakopce (2012) suggested that laissez-faire leadership is considered active only in that the leader actively avoids taking action and is one of the least effective leadership styles. Delegation of authority results in an increase in follower involvement in tasks, motivation to achieve organizational performance goals, learning opportunities for followers, and expectations of followers to solve their own problems (Zareen et al., 2015). Leaders displaying a laissez-fair style disregard their supervisory responsibilities, including productivity and completion of duties, and they offer little follower support. The laissez-faire style is effective when working with highly skilled and motivated followers, when many easily made decisions must be made, when tasks are routine and non-complex, and rules are predetermined (Zareen et al., 2015). The laissez-faire style is less effective when the knowledge and expertise of followers is minimal, when followers require high levels of managerial relationship, and when followers lack the motivation or capability to make independent decisions that align with organizational goals (Zareen et al., 2015). Described as non-leadership and considered the most ineffective

leadership style, the laissez-faire style is a virtual avoidance of leadership and action (Babalola, 2016; Sayadi, 2016).

Although predominately described as having a negative leadership value, when compared to transformational and transactional leadership, some researchers suggest positive relationships between subordinates and laissez-faire leadership (Yang, 2015). Research conducted by Hinkin and Schriesheim (2008) suggested that the absence of leadership involvement is not directly related to failing to meet follower expectation. Pierce and Aguinis (2013) found that leadership at extreme levels of involvement can have negative impacts on subordinates and Yang (2015) suggested that employee dependency on leadership may increase with more involved leaders resulting in reduced employee reasoning and cognitive processing. Additionally, laissez-faire leadership identified by the Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire indicates its behaviors could be unintentional, a strategic choice, and a result of a leader's respect for his or her subordinates (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008; Yang, 2015). The autonomy facilitated by laissez-faire leaders supports employee self-determination, self-motivation, self-leadership, and an increased ability to handle challenges (Chen, Sharma, Edinger, Shapiro, & Farh, 2011). Furthermore, in autonomous environments, research by Ryan and Tipu (2013) and Zhang and Zhou (2014) suggested that laissez-fair leaders have a positive effect on employee innovation.

The environmental context and varying situations can play moderating roles in determining the benefit or detriment of laissez-faire leadership. Highly competent, self-motivated employees may require less leader involvement, but leaders must determine the level of non-involvement needed for each employee and situation (Ryan & Tipu, 2013; Yang, 2015). Employee-leader trust may be necessary to facilitate the positive effect of laissez-faire leadership (Yank, 2015). The development of employee competence and leader trust occurs over time

through knowledge and interactions between the leader and his or her subordinates and requires the leader to be attuned to the needs of each employee (Yang, 2015).

In a study of the effect of transactional leadership style and organizational commitment, Sayadi (2016) suggested that the laissez-faire style has a significant negative relationship to employee commitment to stay with an organization. Similarly, Jackson et al. (2013) found a strong negative relationship between laissez-faire leadership and affective organizational commitment. In a study of fairness perceptions and job satisfaction as mediators of the relationship between leadership style and organizational commitment, Susanj and Jakopce (2012) suggested that employees do not perceive laissez-fair behaviors such as avoiding decision making, abdicating responsibility, and misuse of authority as either fair or unfair and they have no effect on organizational commitment. In a study on how leadership behavior influences employee commitment, Wallace, de Chernatony, and Buil (2013) found a positive relationship between laissez-faire leadership and employee commitment.

Transactional leadership style and organizational commitment. Jabeen et al. (2015) studied the relationship between the psychological contract and organizational commitment and found a moderate relationship between transactional leadership and organizational commitment. McLaggan, Bezuidenhout, and Botha (2013) studied leadership style and organizational commitment and concluded that there was a statistically significant relationship between transactional leadership and affective organizational commitment. McLaggan et al. (2013) suggested that the exchange of reward for performance may be associated with the employee willingness to remain with an organization. Sayadi (2016), however, found that the contingent reward and active management by exception dimensions of transactional leadership had positive impacts on organizational commitment. Swid (2014) examined transactional leadership behavior

on the leader/follower relationship with respect to organizational commitment. Swid (2014) concluded that a linear relationship exists between transactional leadership and organizational commitment. This researcher also looked specifically at the laissez-fair dimension of transactional leadership and concluded that a linear relationship did not exist between laissez-fair leadership and organizational commitment (Swid, 2014).

Researchers have studied the relationship between transactional leadership and organizational commitment in various mediating situations (Afshari & Gibson, 2016; Ahmad et al., 2016; Walumbwa, Wu, & Orwa, 2008). Ahmad et al. (2016) suggested that coworker support can work as a buffer in supporting the relationship between transactional leadership and organizational commitment. Research by Afshari and Gibson (2016) posited that the transactional leadership and organizational commitment relationship could be mediated by competence and relatedness. Walumbwa et al. (2008) found that procedural justice climate perceptions fully mediated the relationship between transactional leaders and organizational commitment. Tyssen et al. (2014) researched different organizational contexts and concluded that transactional leadership is positively related to organizational commitment in temporary organizations. In a study of Nigerian bank employees, Fasola et al. (2013) found that the transactional leadership style had a greater impact on commitment than transformation leadership. When moderated by distributive justice, which refers to employee perception of fairness in their contribution and compensation when compared to that of their peer, research conducted by Dai, Dai, Chen, and Wu (2013) suggested that transactional leadership positively impacts organizational commitment. Kim and Park (2015) conducted research on leader-member exchange and affective organizational commitment when moderated by transactional leadership. These researchers concluded that higher levels of transactional leadership negatively

impact the relationship between leader-member exchange and organizational effective commitment (Kim & Park, 2015).

Employment types. Increased use of fixed-term contracts and temporary agencies provide flexibility to organizations and rising insecurity in employees (Giunchi, Emanuel, Chambel, & Ghislieri, 2016). Also called agency workers, fixed-term and temporary employees are employees of, or have contracts for service with, an employing organization to perform work for a third party for a specific period of time (Toms & Biggs, 2014). As stated by Kirves, Kinnunen, and De Cuyper (2014) “employment of limited duration is by definition insecure.” While some research has suggested that temporary employees are vulnerable to job insecurity, are less likely to agree that employers are fulfilling the psychological contract, and consequently are less committed to their organization, other research suggests contradictory and inconclusive findings (Chambel, 2014).

Temporary/Contract employees and organizational commitment. Temporary employees have dual employment relationships—one with their hiring agency and one with the client organization where the work is performed—which relate independently to an employee’s commitment to each (Giunchi, Chambel, & Ghislieri, 2015). The dual nature of temporary employment adds complexity to employee organizational commitment as employees balance separation from their client organization and support from their hiring organization (Perera & Weerakkody, 2017). Temporary employee side-bets and investments in the organization are positively related to continuance organizational commitment, and when temporary employees perceive that their organization cares about them, they reciprocate with normative commitment (Perera & Weerakkody, 2017). Research conducted by Toms and Biggs (2014) suggested that temporary employees prefer transactional rewards due to the short-term and flexible employment

type and are perceived as less likely to display organizational citizenship behaviors. However, employees hired for longer-term contracts experienced increased organizational integration, commitment and permanent staff relationships (Toms & Biggs, 2014). Chambel, Castanheira, and Sobral (2016) conducted research on temporary and permanent employees and found different organizational commitment results between call center and manufacturing environments. In the manufacturing environment, the researchers found temporary employees had higher organizational commitment due to lower expectations of the organization. When studying the relationship between engagement and organizational commitment in manufacturing employees, Chambel et al. (2016) found permanent employees to have higher organizational commitment than temporary employees. Chambel et al. (2016) suggested that work environment and employment type are mediating factors in explaining employee commitment expectations. In a study of psychological contracts, Lapalme et al. (2011) found that temporary employees may be affectively committed to both their employing organization and their client organization but may have higher levels of commitment to the client organization due to closer and more frequent interactions.

Temporary/Contract employees and leadership styles. Research conducted by de Poel, Stoker, and van der Zee (2012) concluded that transformational leadership style is positively related to quality work outcomes and employee satisfaction in temporary employees. Tyssen, Wald, and Heidenreich (2014) found transactional leadership effective in responding to the needs of changing leaders and followers seen in temporary environments and transformational leadership effective during the times of uncertainty, also seen in temporary environments. Research by Svensson, Vinberg, and Larsson (2015) found that factors such as job satisfaction and productivity are more positively related to transactional oriented leadership styles in

temporary and contractor employees than in permanent employees due to the rational and task orientation.

Transition and Summary of Section 1

Organizational commitment affects organizational outcomes more than any other human factor or construct, making committed employees one of the most important organizational assets (Miarkolaei & Miarkolaei, 2014; Valaei & Rezaei, 2016). Due to changing organizational environments, previous scholarly work on influences on affective organizational commitment need to continually be revisited (Jayasingam et al., 2016). This section provided the foundation for the research, which included the problem background, statement, and purpose, and the nature of the study. A research question, hypotheses, theoretical framework, definitions, assumptions, limitations, and delimitations and research significance were also provided. The section included an investigation of literature to provide an understanding of organizational commitment and the leadership style theories that contribute to that understanding. The exhaustive literature review examined the research independent variables, transformational leadership style and transactional leadership style, and the dependent variable, organizational commitment, and how the variables relate to government contract employees. The next section will review the research methodology.

Section 2: The Project

Section two provides several project details and describes, discusses and justifies how the study will be conducted. The general direction of this study and the methods or procedures to conduct the study are provided in this section. The method the researcher used to identify, contact, survey, and analyze data is described. The procedure used to access and ethically protect study participants is discussed. A discussion of the selected research method and design and justification for the selection is provided. Study population and the sampling method are described and defended. The techniques used to collect, organize, and analyze the quantitative study data will be discussed. The section concludes with a discussion of the process used to determine the reliability and validity of the study.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative correlational test was to assess the theory of transformational and transactional leadership styles and the relationship of organizational commitment of governmental contract employees. The independent variable, transformational leadership style was generally defined as a style where the leader helps others move to a greater awareness of the group's mission and to look beyond self-interest. The second independent variable, transactional leadership style was generally defined as a style where the leader uses rewards or consequences to encourage followers to adhere to requirements. The dependent variable, employee organizational commitment was generally defined as the desire, willingness, and need to support an organization, and the control and intervening variable, remaining contract length, was statistically controlled in this study (Limpanitgul et al., 2017).

Role of the Researcher

The researcher's role consisted of identifying the problem, laying the foundation for the study, thoroughly communicating the purpose and data submission instructions to participants, administering the collection, and analysis of research data. Data needed to conduct a quantitative analysis of the relationship between organizational commitment and leadership style were collected by the researcher. The research process consisted of determining the appropriate survey instrument and obtaining use permission. With university approval, the researcher spent several weeks collecting survey data from participants meeting the study requirements.

The researcher identified a contractor professional association consisting of 43% government contractors and two tested survey instruments to ensure an accurate, reliable, and representative sample was collected. An explanation of the research purpose, survey completion instructions, and a secure submittal process, were provided to participants. Electronic survey invitations were sent through association membership open collaboration forums. The researcher reviewed submitted data to determine full completion from participants and for aggregate analysis. The analysis performed by the researcher was consistent with the survey instrument purposes and the study theoretical framework. The researcher translated the data results into findings addressing the research questions and hypotheses.

Participants

The researcher identified participants currently employed as government contractors through contract management professional associations. The researcher posted a hyperlink in the public forums of the National Contract Management Association's (NCMA) collaborate site, which is available to the association's over 20,000 members, with instructions, consent form, and estimated completion time. There are just over 2,500 NCMA members active on Collaborate

(active users meaning they've logged in and accepted the terms & conditions). On average, there are 60 unique logins per day. Many of the most active users are on the site daily. In an average month, there are 715 unique logins, meaning the same people have logged in on many different days throughout the month. The researcher employment status and membership in the NCMA professional association creates a working relationship with the professional association. Each member of the targeted associations and contractor employees had an equal opportunity to choose to participate in the research, ensuring a representative sample. To maintain ethical responsibility, the researcher allowed participants to submit surveys at their own free will with no coercion attempted. Survey instructions included statements confirming the nature of the research and the anonymity of the results. The researcher maintained ethical human participant standards as guided by the general rules within the Belmont Report (Vollmer & Howard, 2010).

Research Method and Design

The nature of the study, characteristics of this research, and research questions, were used to select the quantitative research method using correlational design. The quantitative research method is effective when the study objectives can be addressed by gathering responses to closed-ended survey questions through statistical and numeric data (McCusker & Gunaydin, 2015). Well established quantifiable data gathering tools for collecting data through questionnaires, such as the MLQ (Bass & Avolio, 1995) and the Three-Component Model of Organizational Commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991), have been used in similar research on leadership styles and organizational commitment. Previous proven success makes the selection of these MLQ and TCM appropriate choices to yield quantifiable data for this study. Additionally, the research questions seek to understand the relationship between variables. The selection of the

correlational design, which is effective in studying variable associations, relationships, and differences, makes the selection of the correlational design appropriate (Cook & Cook, 2008).

Discussion of method. The problem being studied in this research addressed the relationship between leadership style and organizational commitment in government contract employees. Previous studies in leadership style-to-organizational commitment, using different subjects, have shown varying results, ranging from significant, to none, to minimal, therefore statistical accuracy is essential (Awan & Mahmood, 2010; Dale & Fox, 2008; Gao-Urhahn et al., 2016; Lok & Crawford, 2004; Yiing & Ahmad, 2009). The statistical data collected in quantitative research supports the level of accuracy needed in this study, as low-quality data could result in inaccurate or misinterpreted statistical calculations (McCusker & Gunaydin, 2015).

The researcher in this study used the MLQ (Bass & Avolio, 1995) and the Three-Component Model of Organizational Commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991) to collect, specific numerical data, to objectively test hypotheses. Similarly, quantitative researchers use collections tools, such as questionnaires, to decide in advance the characteristics of the study, what data they will collect, and they tend to take on an objective view of the subject matter (McCusker & Gunaydin, 2015). Data in quantitative studies are in the form of numbers and statistics, it is more efficient, when compared to qualitative data, and can test hypotheses, but may miss the context captured in qualitative data (McCusker & Gunaydin, 2015). The quantitative research method allows for the use of questionnaires by objective researchers who have predetermined the study characteristics and seek statistical test results. The quantitative method was most appropriate for this study because the study used a questionnaire to collect objective statistical data about predetermined characteristics.

The study hypotheses, driven by the research questions, sought to determine the existence or non-existence of a relationship between leadership style and organizational commitment as a means of predicting the impact leadership style has on government contract employees. A representative sample of the study population was used to draw conclusions about the participants and their leaders. The positivistic philosophy and large sample generalizations used in quantitative research support the study hypotheses, as it is explanatory and deductive in determining the existence of something (Claydon, 2015). The method is used to predict, and control phenomena or specific contextual variables based on quantified and generalized results from a large population sample (Park & Park, 2016).

Discussion of design. Correlational research is used to study associations, relationships, and differences in variables (Cook & Cook, 2008). A correlation exists if one variable increases while another variable either increases or decreases (Curtis, Comiskey, & Dempsey, 2016). This research studied the relationships in transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and organizational commitment. The correlational research design was used in this research to investigate how differences in leadership style relate to organizational commitment. Researchers using correlation examine variable relationships without intervention (Walker, 2005). This research used questionnaires to gather variable data from participants that were not manipulated. No intervention of the variables was used, as the data were collected based on the responses of participants at the time they submitted the questionnaire. In addition to the lack of variable intervention, correlational research does not involve randomization of participants, which makes the design nonexperimental (Cook & Cook, 2008). This research gathered responses from any participant within the target audience.

This research studied the relationship between variables, therefore correlational statistical testing methods were considered. Statistical test for correlational assess variable associations. Examples of correlational tests include Pearson correlation, Spearman correlation, Kendall correlation, and Gamma correlation (Jäntschi & Bolboacă, 2006). Pearson correlation tests “strength and direction of the linear relationship between two variables, describing the direction and degree to which one variable is linearly related to another” (Jäntschi & Bolboacă, 2006). Spearman correlation tests the “correlation between variables which assess how well an arbitrary monotonic function could describe the relationship between two variables” (Jäntschi & Bolboacă, 2006). Kendall correlation “test correlations between non-interval scaled ordinal variables” (Jäntschi & Bolboacă, 2006). Gamma correlation measures the association between variables and is preferred “when the data contains many tied observations” (Jäntschi & Bolboacă, 2006).

The Pearson correlation test was used in this study. The Pearson correlation is one of the most used measures of relationships and has been used in studies such as data and financial analysis, classification, clustering, decision making, and biological research (Zhou, Deng, Xia, & Fu, 2016). Pearson correlation has a range of +1, which indicates a perfect correlation to -1, which indicates a perfect negative correlation, and 0 indicating no relationship (Adler & Parmryd, 2010). A non-zero Pearson correlation value does not imply a cause and effect relationship (Sedgwick, 2012). This research sought to understand how transactional and transformational leadership correlate, or do not relate, to organizational commitment. The research did not look for a cause and effect and the results could be used for classification and decision making. The characteristics of the Pearson correlation coefficient statistic met the data testing needs for this research.

Summary of research method and design. This quantitative correlational research sought to utilize statistical data to study the relationship between transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and organizational commitment. Statistical data and relationships were effectively studied using the quantitative method and the correlational design. The selected research method and design provided the structure, format, and results framework needed to address the research questions.

Population and Sampling

This research studied organizational commitment in employees working in government contracting. The population selected for this research was limited to employees currently working as government contractors between September 15, 2018 and October 19, 2018. Participants were targeted based on membership in a national professional association. The sample size parameters were statistically calculated to adequately provide a representative sample.

Discussion of population. This research looked to analyze the organizational commitment of government contract employees without regard to any specific class or group of individuals, such as tenure, organizational level, type of organization, or hierarchical level. All government contract employees were eligible to participate in the study. The research turned to professional associations as a source for participants. Government contracting professional associations are a common resource for all employees in government contracting without regard to segmented demographics or experience. Professional associations are voluntary organizations offering a range of member benefits to meet the needs of younger less experienced members and seasoned professionals (Markova, Ford, Dickson, & Bohn, 2013). For example, the National Contract Management Association (NCMA) is dedicated to support the growth and education of

contracting professionals in public and private industry at all professional levels worldwide (What is NCMA, n.d.). In a study on the engagement motivations in professional associations, Hager (2014) concluded that members actively engage in professional associations to gain leadership experience, take advantage of opportunities to interact, and provide a voice for political or civic engagement. The National Contract Management Association (NCMA) offers a contract management leadership development program, chapter leadership opportunities, and respected industry certifications to help its members gain experience needed to improve their leadership skills. The Association has over 100 local chapters designed to allow members to connect with peers and network. NCMA members share ideas, best practices, and serve as a resource to other's in the contracting profession. NCMA also alerts its members of legislative and regulatory announcements, hosts regulatory agencies at conferences, and releases publications on the state of government contracting.

Discussion of sampling. With approximately 20,000 members, the National Contract Management Association (NCMA) is one of the largest professional organizations for contracting professionals. Approximately 43% of NCMA's members describe themselves as government contractors. NCMA's website provides a collaboration tool that its members can use to share ideas and best practices to help grow the contracting profession. There are approximately 2,500 active members on the collaboration site and approximately 60 members participate in collaboration discussions each day. A link to the survey instrument was posted to the collaboration site with an opportunity for current NCMA members to participate.

The sampling frame targeted the government contracting employees actively engaged in a national contracting association. It is expected that not all NCMA members will take advantage of the opportunity to participate in the study. Žmuk (2018) suggested that it is not uncommon to

have a response rate to a web-based survey at three percent or below, but this rate can be improved using interactive questionnaire designs and grouping questions logically and with pictures. While low response rates can be an indication of potential bias, this bias occurs only to the extent to which there are differences between participants and non-participants that cannot be eliminated or controlled (Rindfuss, Choe, Tsuya, Bumpass, & Tamaki 2015). It is assumed that the 43% of the total population of NCMA members describing themselves as government contractors can also be attributed to the percentage of active NCMA collaborate participants. Determined by the number of survey responses, all responses or a systematic random sample may be used as a representation of the entire population. The systematic random sampling technique is a probability method where an initial selection is made randomly followed by subsequent selections at predetermined intervals (Acharya, Prakash, Saxena, & Nigam, 2013). Advantages of this method include moderate usage and cost, high internal and external validity, and easy verification (Acharya et al., 2013). A disadvantage of the systematic random sample method is that statistically, only the first selection is random (Acharya et al., 2013).

Forty-three percent of the 2,500 active collaborate members on the National Contract Management Association's website provide the basis for the study's targeted population. Using a confidence level of 95%, a potential survey population of 2,500, and a margin of error of 5%, the calculated sample size of the entire population is 333. Only 43% of the sample size will meet the government contractor requirement, which results in an expected sample size of 143 eligible participants.

Summary of population and sampling. Determining the research population and sample size are critical steps in quantitative study planning as the wrong population will not answer the research question, too small of a sample size will not statistically detect differences

and too large of a sample is considered wasteful and not feasible (Malone, Nicholl, & Coyne, 2016). This research sought to select a population representative of government contractors through one of the nation's largest contracting professional associations as a means of addressing the research question with an appropriate population. Additionally, the research sought to adequately represent the selected population by statistically calculating an acceptable high and low sample size of 75 – 333 participants.

Data Collection

This research used existing data collection instruments which have each been used for over 20 years to measure employee commitment and leadership styles. The two data collection instruments are the MLQ (Bass & Avolio, 1995) and the Three-Component Model of Organizational Commitment (TCM; Meyer & Allen, 1991). See Appendix A and Appendix B. Permission to use the TCM is granted free of charge when used for academic research. Use of the MLQ is granted on a per purchased license basis. As described below, data collected in each instrument corresponds to the study's dependent and independent variables and provided a basis for answering the research questions.

Instruments. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) was conceptualized from the Multifactor Leadership model (Bass & Avolio, 1995), also known as the full-scale leadership model, which includes transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire/passive/avoidant leadership (Sudha, Shahnawaz, & Farhat, 2016). There are different versions of the MLQ, with the MLQ-5X Shorter Rater Form being the most frequently used version (Bagheri, Sohrabi, & Moradi, 2015). The MLQ-6S consists of 21 items measuring seven sub-factors for each leadership style (Bagheri et al., 2015). The MLQ-5X is a 45-item questionnaire that has been widely used in measuring leadership styles in organizations and

studying relational aspects of leadership styles (Bagheri et al., 2015; Xu, Wubbena, & Stewart, 2016). There are two forms used in the MLQ—a leader form which allows a leader to self-assess their leadership styles, and rater form which allows subordinates to rate their perception of the leadership style of their leader (Siewiorek, Gegenfurtner, Lainema, Saarinen, & Lehtinen, 2013).

The MLQ-5X Shorter Rater Form was used in this study, the 45 items in the MLQ-5X include 36 standardized statements divided into nine sub-dimensional factors representing each leadership style and three additional factors evaluating leadership outcomes (Boamah & Tremblay, 2018; Xu et al., 2016). Subfactors for transformational leadership include idealized influence-attributes, idealized influence-behaviors, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration (Nash & Bangert, 2014). The subfactors for transactional leadership include contingent reward, active management-by-exception, and passive management-by-exception (Nash & Bangert, 2014). Laissez-faire/passive/avoidant leadership behaviors is a subfactor of its own in the MLQ (Nash & Bangert, 2014). Each item in the MLQ is presented with a Likert-scale allowing the questionnaire participant to rate a leader's style. Participants choose from five scaled options—4 for frequently if not always, 3 for fairly often, 2 for sometimes, 1 for once in a while, and 0 for not at all, where higher scores indicate a stronger display of the leadership style behaviors (Maier et al., 2016).

The Three-Component Model of Organizational Commitment (TCM; Meyer & Allen, 1991) was developed to integrate uni-dimensional organizational commitment concepts and is a dominant organizational commitment research framework (Cheng & Stockdale, 2003). The model defines the mind-set that characterizes the components of commitment using the terms continuance, affective, and normative (Powell & Meyer, 2004). Each component represents how

commitment is developed and job behavior implications (Powell & Meyer, 2004). Continuance commitment develops as a response to conditions that result in increased cost to leave (Powell & Meyer, 2004). Affective commitment develops as a response to work experiences (Powell & Meyer, 2004). Normative commitment develops as a response to social pressure (Powell & Meyer, 2004). The original model consisted of eight items, but the model was modified by the creators to remove some commitment scale items, add items, and rewrite items (Ko, Price, & Mueller, 1997). The revised model measures six factors for each of the three commitment components (Cheng & Stockdale, 2003).

Participants responded to each item using a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 being very strongly disagree to 7 for very strongly agree. Separate scores are generated for each of the three model components. Continuance commitment asked questions like “I believe that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.” Affective commitment asked questions like “This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.” Normative commitment asked questions like “This organization deserves my loyalty.”

Data collection techniques. Upon logging into the National Contract Management Association’s (NCMA) Collaboration site, a new discussion thread contained an invitation to participate in the research study. Participants interested in browsing the open discussion could find the thread within the list of topics being discussed. Participants who have activated email notifications of new collaboration topics from NCMA, could also access the participation invitation by clicking within the email notice and be taken directly to the collaboration topic and the participant link. The collaboration topic included a brief description of the purpose of the questionnaire, the estimated amount of time to complete the survey, a description of how confidentiality was handled and how the results were used and stored. Subsequent collaboration

topics containing the questionnaire were posted in the NCMA collaboration site until at least the minimum number of sample population participants completed the questionnaire.

Participants were asked to only complete the questionnaire one time. After beginning the questionnaire, participants read each randomly ordered question and rate their response using a 5 to 7-point Likert scale. Each question in the questionnaire forced a response ensuring that each question is answered. After completing the final question, participants submitted the questionnaire and received a thank you message, along with a reminder of the purpose of the questionnaire, a description of how confidentiality was handled and how the results were used and stored. Submitted data were collected using a commercial survey data platform.

Data organization techniques. The MLQ was combined with the TCM to allow all required data to be collected using one research survey. The combination also ensured that each individual response on leadership was captured along with their responses on organizational commitment. Raw data were collected using the survey data platform. A summary of the data is provided in Table 2 within this writing. Full details were stored within the survey data platform and available for dissertation research from the researcher. Data collected using the survey data platform provided a secured data server, data collection tools, and raw scale scores. All data were made available to the researcher through secure access. Downloaded data were stored on the personal computer of the researcher protected by a secure home network.

Data Analysis

Variables used in the study. Data for the independent variable transformational leadership (Bass, 1990) were captured using the MLQ and is segmented by the subfactors—idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Each subfactor aids in the identification of leaders with styles that help their

subordinates move to a greater awareness of the team's mission that is beyond self-interest. Data for the independent variable transactional leadership (Bass, 1990) were captured in the study using the MLQ and is segmented by the subfactors—contingent reward, active management-by-exception, and passive management-by-exception. Each subfactor aids in the identification of leaders who use rewards or consequences to encourage followers to adhere to requirements. Data for the dependent variable organizational commitment were captured using the TCM and is segmented by the subfactors—affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Each subfactor aids in the identification of how commitment developed and the implications to job behaviors. Data for the independent and dependent variables were collected using Likert-type scales, however, leadership style and organizational commitment were measured nominally for identification purposes with no rank or interval meaning.

The research hypotheses proposed the relationship between the dependent variable organizational commitment and the independent variables transactional leadership and transformational leadership. Data results measured the existence, non-existence and extent of variable relationships. Data results addressed the research problem and research questions by providing evidence of the impact leadership style has on organizational commitment in government contract employees who routinely face changes in the employee-employer relationship.

Table 1

Variable Types

Variable	Types
Organizational Commitment	Dependent
Transformational Leadership	Independent
Transactional Leadership	Independent

Reliability and Validity

Instrument validity is critical to the development and application of a research data collection tool (Xu et al., 2016). The validation process includes collecting evidence to determine if the measurement tool is meeting its intended measurement purpose (Xu et al., 2016). Evidence showing strong correlations to similar constructs indicate validity in what is being measured, while weak correlations provide discriminant validity of what is not being measured (Xu et al., 2016). Since its original development, the MLQ has undergone several reviews and has been found to have sound psychometric properties (Maier et al., 2016). The reliability and validity of the MLQ has been tested many times since its initial development. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) has been used to support the instruments measurements and factor structure. Assessed at the item level, CFA results for the MLQ-5X returned a comparative fit index of .91, a goodness-of-fit at .91, adjusted goodness-of-fit equal to .90, and a root mean square error of approximation of .05, indicating that the MLQ-5X model is successful in capturing transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership constructs (Boamah & Tremblay, 2018). In an MLQ reliability study in Dubai, the researcher used the Cronbach alpha formula and found an internal consistency of .95 (Bagheri et al., 2015). In a study on structural validity, Muenjohn and Armstrong (2008) evaluated three leadership style models on adequacy in capturing leadership style factor constructs. Using Cronbach's alpha formula, Muenjohn and Armstrong (2008) found a reliability of .87 and suggested that the MLQ could be the most adequate measure of transformational-transactional leadership factors.

The Three Component-Model of Organizational commitment (TCM) was reevaluated in 2002 using 155 independent studies. The results confirmed that the components are related to organizational commitment in employees (Eisinga, Teelken, & Doorewaard, 2010). The study

determined convergent and construct validity in the revised scale with reliability scores for affective, continuance, and normative commitment of .82, .74, and .83, respectively (Cheng & Stockdale, 2003). Using confirmatory factor analysis, Ko et al. (1997) confirmed three-factor model reliability results consistent with the .82 and .83 determined by the model creators. Xu and Bassham (2010) tested the three-component model and found that the three components aligned with their intended model factor, however normative commitment had a slightly lower correlation than the other two.

Transition and Summary of Section 2

Sound research and valid data collection are critical to a value-adding academic study. This section provided descriptions, rationale, and discussion on the details of how the research study was conducted. The section described the role the researcher took to ensure that an accurate, reliable, and representative sample was collected. A discussion of the procedures used to identify and gain access to participants was included. The method and justification for the selected research method and design was discussed. The population and sampling method were described and defended. A detailed description of the two existing data collection instruments was provided, along with the data collection technique and data organization techniques. The data analyzed were summarized and the expected reliability and validity of the study's data were discussed. The next section will present the study findings, describe the application this study has to professional practice, and the implications for change that results from the study.

Section 3: Application to Professional Practice and Implications for Change

Section three applies the study purpose and findings to professional practice and discusses the implications for change. The section provides a presentation of the study findings, including an explanation of conclusions that address the hypotheses, research questions, theoretical framework, and literature. Collected evidence is covered in the presentation. The interrelatedness of the findings to relevant literature is provided and outliers are identified and discussed. Test details are provided allowing for another research to replicate the study with the same results and an overall summary of the analysis is included.

Overview of the Study

Leadership's knowledge of employee organization commitment provides opportunities to frame styles in the best interest of meeting organizational goals. The results could provide support for business strategies that are impacted by employee commitment. Correlation testing was used because it is impractical to change leadership styles to determine if the change causes a change in employee commitment. This study of the relationship between leadership style and organizational commitment was conducted to identify correlations that could be used to predict the organizational commitment of employees led by transformational and transactional leaders. While no cause and effect is suggested by the study, the existence or non-existence of relationships between leadership styles and employee organizational commitment can provide support and explanation for leader decisions.

The results of the study suggest weak relationships between organizational commitment and transformational and transactional leadership in government contract employees. The strength and direction of the relationships vary with each leadership style scale, ranging from

positive to negative. Additional analysis of passive leadership suggests weak relationships to organizational commitment similar to that found in transformational and transactional leadership.

Presentation of the Findings

The research study was performed using a 63-question electronic survey that combined the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and the Three-Component Model of Organizational Commitment (TCM) that was posted to the National Contract Management (NCMA) Collaborate site. The Collaborate site is used by NCMA members to communicate with each other on topics such as best practices, industry trends, and professional development. The findings of the statistical test on the survey data is presented, along with the link to the study research questions, hypotheses, and theoretical framework are presented below.

Pearson correlation test. The Pearson correlation test was used to analyze the data. One hundred and forty-five (145) survey responses were collected in the study. One hundred and forty-one of the collected responses were used in the study. Four collected responses were excluded because the respondents failed to complete the second page of the survey. No demographic data were collected in this anonymous survey. All respondents were members of the National Contract Management Association and self-identified themselves as government contracting professionals.

The scores from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and the Three-Component Model of Organizational Commitment (TCM) were converted from ordinal values to interval values by summing and averaging the participant scores in MS Excel, as described by the survey instrument developers. Ordinal values allow respondents to describe the degree of relationship between the survey item options. The interval values allow for a statistical measurement of the distance between each survey item option. The internal values were

analyzed using the Pearson correlation coefficient with a significance level of .05 and signifies the acceptable risk to incorrectly rejecting the null hypothesis. As a commonly used statistic for evaluating the relationship between two sets of measures, Pearson correlation was used to calculate the relationships between each leadership style scale and each employee commitment scale (Robert, 2015). Table 2 below describes the scale names for each of the leadership style characteristics studied in the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) survey. Table 3 below describes the employee commitment scales studied in the TCM. The Pearson correlation tests of the hypotheses are shown in Table 4 below.

Table 2

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Scales

Characteristic	Scale Name	Scale Abbreviation
Transformational	Idealized Attributes or Idealized Influence (Attributes)	IA or II(A)
Transformational	Idealized Behaviors or Idealized Influence (Behaviors)	IB or II(B)
Transformational	Inspirational Motivation	IM
Transformational	Intellectual Stimulation	IS
Transformational	Individual Consideration	IS
Transactional	Contingent Reward	IC
Transactional	Management by Exception (Active)	MBEA
Passive Avoidant	Management by Exception (Passive)	MBEP
Passive Avoidant	Laissez-Faire	LF

Table 3

Three-Component Model (TCM) Scales

Scale Name	Scale Abbreviation
Affective Commitment	ACS
Normative Commitment	NCS
Continuance Commitment	ACS

Table 4

Pearson Correlation between Leadership Style Scales and Employee Commitment Characteristics

	Affective Commitment	Continuance Commitment	Normative Commitment
Transformational			
Idealized Attributes	.569	-.262	.491
Idealized Behaviors	.512	-.254	.388
Inspirational Motivation	.539	-.189	.457
Intellectual Stimulation	.455	-.247	.402
Individual Consideration	.484	-.229	.470
Transactional			
Contingent Reward	.462	-.219	.376
Management by Exception (Active)	-.401	.168	-.412
Passive Avoidant			
Management by Exception (Passive)	-.404	.282	-.329
Laissez-Faire	-.515	.317	-.371

Hypotheses 1. An evaluation of each leadership style scale and organizational commitment characteristics was used to test the study hypotheses. The individual scales and characteristics provide interpretive details used to accept, reject, or fail to reject the hypotheses. Each study hypotheses and corresponding null hypotheses are evaluated below.

H1: There is a significant relationship between organizational commitment and transformational leadership style.

H1₀ There is no significant relationship between transformational leadership style and organizational commitment.

There is a moderate positive correlation between the idealized attributes, idealized behaviors, and inspirational motivation scales of transformational leadership and affective

organizational commitment. Although a positive correlation exists between intellectual stimulation and individual consideration and affective organizational commitment, the relationship is weak. There is a negative and weak relationship between each of the scales of transformational leadership and continuance organizational commitment. A positive but weak relationship exists between each of the scales of transformational leadership and normative commitment. H1 states that there is a significant relationship between organizational commitment and transformational leadership style. The moderate, weak positive and weak negative relationships between the scales of transformational leadership and affective, continuance, and normative organizational commitment lead to rejecting hypothesis one. A significant relationship does not exist. The null hypothesis states that there is no significant relationship between transformational leadership style and organizational commitment. The moderate and weak study results allow for acceptance of the null hypothesis. Although a relationship does exist there is no significant relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment.

Hypotheses 2.

H2 There is a significant relationship between organizational commitment and transactional leadership style.

H2₀ There is no significant relationship between transactional leadership style and organizational commitment.

There is a positive but weak correlation between the contingent reward scale of transactional leadership and affective organizational commitment. A weak and negative correlation between the management by exception (active) scale of transactional leadership and affective organizational commitment. A negative and weak correlation exists between the

contingent reward scale of transactional leadership and continuance commitment. There is a weak positive correlation between management by exception (active) and continuance commitment. A positive but weak correlation exists between the contingent reward scale of transactional leadership and normative commitment. There is a weak negative correlation between management by exception (active) and normative commitment. H2 states there is a significant relationship between organizational commitment and transactional leadership style. The weak negative and weak positive relationships between transactional leadership and affective, continuance, and normative organizational commitment lead to rejecting hypothesis two. A significant relationship does not exist. The null hypothesis states that there is no significant relationship between transactional leadership style and organizational commitment. The weak positive and negative study results allow for acceptance of the null hypothesis. Although a relationship does exist, there is no significant relationship between transactional leadership and organizational commitment.

Hypotheses 3.

H3 There is a significant relationship between organizational commitment, transactional leadership style and transformational leadership style.

H3₀ There is no significant relationship between transactional leadership style, and transformational leadership style and organizational commitment.

An evaluation of the average scores for leadership style and each organizational commitment characteristic was used to test hypothesis three. The Pearson correlation values are in Table 5 below. Transactional leadership has a weak positive correlation to affective commitment, weak negative correlation to continuance commitment, and a weak positive correlation to normative commitment. Transformational leadership style has a moderate positive

correlation to affective commitment, a weak negative correlation to continuance commitment, and a weak positive correlation to normative commitment. H3 states that there is a significant relationship between organizational commitment, transactional leadership style and transformational leadership style. The weak positive and negative correlations between transactional leadership and transformational leadership and organizational commitment lead to rejecting hypothesis three. The relation is not significant. The null hypothesis states that there is no significant relationship between transactional leadership style, and transformational leadership style and organizational commitment. The weak positive and negative study results allow for acceptance of the null hypothesis. Although a relationship does exist there is no significant relationship between transactional leadership, transformational leadership, and organizational commitment.

Table 5

Pearson Correlation Leadership Style and Employee Commitment Characteristics

	Affective Commitment	Continuance Commitment	Normative Commitment
Transformational	.555	-.255	.479
Transactional	.103	-.066	.019
Passive Avoidant	-.500	.325	-.380

Relationship of hypotheses to research questions. The first research question asked what is the relationship between organizational commitment and transformational leadership styles in government contract employees? The relationship is positive to affective and normative commitment and negative to continuance commitment. The positive affective relationship indicates that government contract employees working with transformational leaders have a psychological association with their organizations, find value with their organization, and believe their association will satisfy their needs (Jalilvand & Nasrolahi Vosta, 2015). Although weak, the transformational leadership theory, which recognizes the role leaders play in developing

commitment is supported by this study (Yukl, 1999). The positive normative commitment relationship indicates that government contract employees working with transformational leaders have a perceived obligation to their organizations (Rafiei et al., 2014). The negative continuance commitment relationship to transformational leadership indicates that government contract employees do not believe they are linked to their organizations because better alternatives do not exist or voluntarily terminating would be cost prohibitive (Rafiei et al., 2014). Several researchers have found a positive relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment (Jain & Duggal, 2018; Mowday et al., 1979). Pierro et al. (2013) found a significant positive relationship between transformational leadership style and affective organizational commitment and suggested that transformational leadership is important to increased organizational commitment. The results of this study are consistent with the statistically insignificant findings of Baek et al. (2018).

The second research question asked what is the relationship between organizational commitment and transactional leadership styles in government contract employees? The relationship is negative but weak to affective and with the exception of contingent reward, a negative but weak relation to normative commitment. With the exception of management by exception (active), which as a weak negative relationship, a weak but positive relationship exist to continuance commitment. The negative relationships to affective, normative, and continuance commitment indicate that the transactional leadership theory, which focuses on the exchange of rewards or consequences is not significantly associated with organizational commitment in government contract employees (Bass, 1990). The weak positive relationship to contingent reward is consistent with positive affect on employee commitment found by Afshari and Gibson (2016), Sayadi (2016), and Jackson et al. (2013). The results of this study are inconsistent with

the statistically significant relationship to affective commitment found by McLaggan et al. (2013) and the moderate relationship to organizational commitment found by Jabeen et al. (2015).

Passive or laissez-faire leadership, which has been described as a lack of leadership was also considered in this study. The psychological contract theory, which specifies what an employee believes they owe their employer in exchange for what they believe the employer owes them and the expectancy theory, which suggests that individuals behave self-indulgently in actions they expect to result in the greatest subjective utility, are likely most impacted by laissez-faire leadership (Jiang et al., 2015; Vroom, 1964). The development of employee competence and leader trust occurs over time through knowledge and interactions between the leader and his or her subordinates and requires the leader to be attuned to the needs of each employee (Yang, 2015). The non-involvement aspects of laissez-faire leadership could interfere with the employee-employer exchange and expectation fulfillment for employees. The results of this study show a weak negative association to affective and normative commitment, and a weak positive association to continuance commitment. These mixed results are consistent with results from other researchers. The negative correlations are consistent with research conducted by Swid (2014), who did not find a linear relationship between laissez-fair and organizational commitment and Susanj and Jakopec (2012) who found no significant effect on organizational commitment. The positive correlations are consistent with the positive relationship Wallace et al. (2013) found with laissez-faire leadership and employee commitment.

Summary of the findings. This analysis of the relationship between transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and organizational commitment found weak positive and weak negative correlations. Although weak, correlations do exist between the study variables,

which indicate opportunities to study the effects of the correlations. Additionally, consistencies and inconsistencies in the results with other researchers could be interpreted as support for the findings and indications of the difference that exists in study audiences.

Applications to Professional Practice

“Leadership is important for motivating followers and mobilizing resources towards the fulfillment of the organization’s mission: it is also essential for organizational innovation, adaptation, and performance” (Antonakis & House, 2014, p. 746). Although significant advances have been made in technology that aid in business success, businesses are still run by people—people who make decisions that lead organizations to achieving goals, thereby giving leaders and their skills a critical role in business. A study on leadership development programs concluded that U.S. companies spend roughly \$14 billion annually on leadership development programs, and executives rank leadership development as a top priority, yet it is the organizational context, strategy, and culture that make the most difference in the type of leader needed for success (Gurdjian, Halbeisen, & Lane, 2014). Regardless of a leader’s style or competence, the organizational context and the employees being led, play a significant role in the leader’s success. The amount of scholarly leadership research has grown significantly and has revolutionize the understanding of how leadership evolves in different times and situations, how leaders and followers are impacted by micro (perceptions, emotions, and cognitions) and macro (social-relational context) processes, and how the leader’s role facilitates change and manages social networks (Dinh et al., 2014). As demonstrated by the exponential growth in the study of the impact of leadership, and business response to the development of leaders, leadership and its impact on employees is a significant factor in the professional practice of business.

This study explored the relationship of leadership style in the context of the organizational commitment of government contract employees. While researchers argue that some may be better than others, all leadership styles play a role in motivating followers to achieve organizational objectives and the achievement of those objectives is often dependent on the level of commitment demonstrated by employees. This study's results provide an understanding of the relationship transformational, transactional, and to an extent laissez faire, leadership styles have with employee commitment. This understanding is relevant to improved business practice. As businesses develop strategies to achieve organizational objectives, the relationship between their leader's styles and the level of organizational commitment needed to achieve objectives can be factored into the strategies. The study sheds light on the unique context of government contract employees and how the associated leadership styles strongly, weakly or do not have a correlation to employee commitment. Thereby allowing for a better understanding of the expected employee commitment-dependent outcomes resulting from decisions involving transformational, transactional, and laissez faire leaders.

The inconsistent literature findings and the weak results of this study support the biblical principal that frames the study. Leaders, especially leaders who follow Christ, cannot depend solely on the standard and well-known leadership theories to guide their leadership success, they must recognize the ruling authority of Jesus Christ in all they do (Huizing, 2011). Although recommendations can be made based on the quantitative study results, ultimately, the only recommendation that will show complete correlations is the relationship between following Christ and achieving His purpose. As seen in Mark 12:30 (ESV) which states "And you shall love the Lord your God with all your heart and with all your soul and with all your mind and

with all your strength.” A leader’s use of this study should include a balance between their relationship with their employees and their relationship with God.

Leadership styles, how they influence organizational functions, and how they can be used to predict performance are important topics in the field of leadership (Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016). Additionally, the impact organizational commitment has on work-related variables has been identified repeatedly in literature (Cohen, 2007; Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016). The results of this study can be used by leaders to understand the correlation between their leadership style and the organizational commitment of government contract employees. As described by Cassar et al. (2017), the relationship between the employee and employer is crucial to organizational success.

Recommendations for Action

It is recommended that businesses use a leadership style assessment tool, such as the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), to identify leadership styles that are more or less transformational or transactional than the norm in each of their leaders. Similarly, businesses can use commitment tools such as the Three-Component Model (TCM) to identify their employee’s intent to persist in a relationship with the organization. This baseline of information provides the foundation to understand their organizational context and how the relationship between leadership style and employee commitment may impact objectives. Although the study returned weak positive and negative correlations, correlations were found, and this information could be used as one consideration in business decision making. The study results indicate that organizational goals that would benefit from employees who have a strong psychological association, participation and recognition with the organization and a desire to remain associated with the organization (i.e., affective commitment) may also benefit from assigning those employees to leaders who are more transformational. Goals benefiting from affective

commitment and transformational leadership might include factors influencing organizational structures, employee involvement, challenging jobs, teamwork, training, and knowledge sharing. Transactional leadership, when considering contingent reward might also benefit from association with affective commitment-based goals. The study results show that transactional leadership styles defined by active management by exception, and passive avoidant styles, including passive management by exception and laissez-faire, would not be a benefit to affective commitment-based goals.

Goals that would benefit from employee's who commitment is based on their investment in the organization, lack of better alternatives, and cost of leaving the organization (i.e., continuance commitment) may not benefit from having a more transformational leader in place. Goals benefiting from continuance commitment, but not transformational leadership might include factors dependent on employees with limited transferable skills, education, few alternative job opportunities, and time-based factors such as employee age and tenure. Similarly, continuance commitment-based goals may not benefit from an association with transactional leadership, when contingent reward is considered. However, continuance commitment-based goals may find benefit in the assignment of leaders who display a more active management by exception transactional leadership style and a passive avoidant leadership style.

Organizational goals that would benefit from employee's who commitment is based on a perceived obligation to the organization and a responsibility to remain with the organization (i.e., normative commitment) may also benefit from assignment these employees to leaders who are more transformational than the norm. Goals benefiting from normative commitment and transformational leadership might include factors that influence career growth, learning cultures, professional respect, and corporate social responsibility. Assigning employees who display

normative commitment to contingent reward transactional leader might also prove beneficial. However, normative commitment employees may not benefit from being led by active management by exception transactional leaders or passive avoidant leaders.

The results of this study have direct impact on government contracting businesses, leaders and employees who are seeking to understand the relationship between leadership styles, employee commitment, and how that information could be used to understand their organizations and develop strategies. Organizations working with temporary or contingent workers may also find the results relevant as many of the commitment factors influencing the results of this study may also impact these employees and organizations. Upon requests, individuals participating in this study, may requests the results.

Recommendations for Further Study

This quantitative research was limited to the study of correlation between leadership styles and organizational commitment in government contract employees who are also members of the largest professional contracting association. The study did not look for causation or the meanings behind the results. Further research into human behavior and reasons that govern the association between leadership styles and organizational commitment might reveal additional information that business could use in developing leaders and meeting specific organizational goals.

Reflections

The researcher is a government contract employee and a member of the professional association where the survey was presented. The researcher also leads a team of contractor employees with apparent varying types of organizational commitment. As such, the researcher was interested in understanding if there was a relationship between leadership style and

organizational commitment in employees facing the employment challenges found in government contracting. Personal biases were removed from the study through the use of an anonymous survey instrument posted to a national website. Any preconceived ideas about the results were eliminated by using the quantitative design. The persistence and strength needed to conduct this in-depth research is also an indication of the researcher's complete reliance on Christ and understanding of His purpose for business. God created businesses to serve in a way that promotes the advancement of community needs and that provides meaningful and creative work for individuals. He intends for businesses to be sustained and to work with other institutions for the good of all (Van Duzer, 2010). God established man as stewards of His creation and as such expects him to work to fulfill His purpose for business. Understanding the impact leadership style has on organizational commitment and thereby business success is one way to demonstrate good stewardship over God's creation.

Summary and Study Conclusions

The purpose of this quantitative correlational test was to assess the theory of transformational and transactional leadership styles, and the relationship of organizational commitment in governmental contract employees. The relationship between laissez-faire leadership and organizational commitment was also explored. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and the Three-Component Model of Organizational Commitment (TCM), which are two well established quantifiable data gathering tools, were used to gather responses to closed-ended anonymous survey questions through statistical and numeric data. The population selected for this research were targeted based on membership in a national professional association dedicated to contracting professionals. The sample size parameters were statistically calculated to adequately provide a representative sample. The assessment of the relationship

between transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership and organizational commitment found weak positive and weak negative correlations. Although weak, correlations do exist between the study variables and allowed for recommendations on the leadership styles best suited to achieve objectives that tie to each component of organizational commitment. The research closes the gap in the literature regarding the impact of leadership style on organizational commitment in government contract employees. Business decision-makers looking to develop strategies that best match the leadership style of their leaders with the organizational commitment of their employees, have the results of this research as another resource in their decision-making toolbox.

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Appendix A. Three-Component Model (TCM) of Commitment Permission

Three-Component Model (TCM) of Commitment Permission



Academic Package

The Academic Package includes the survey, instructions for using, scoring, and interpreting the survey results as well as additional sources for more information about the commitment scales and employee commitment. The license provides proper permission notice for use of the scales for academic purposes.


The license for the Academic Package is limited to the use of the TCM Employee Commitment Survey in a single research project. Subsequent uses of the Survey require a renewal licence. The license agreement for the Academic Package stipulates that the scales will be used for academic purposes only, and that the user will not charge clients for administering/interpreting the scales or use the scales as part of a proprietary organizational survey.

Academic Licenses

Academic Researcher (single research project)	FREE*
Student (single research project)	FREE*

* Note: The academic license is free of charge and intended for academic use only. If you wish to use the product in a commercial application, please obtain a commercial license by purchasing.

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Commercial Package

The survey can be administered alone, or can be imbedded in more extensive paper and pencil or web-based organizational surveys.

Instructions for using, scoring, and interpreting the survey results are provided. Sources for obtaining more information about the commitment scales, as well as for the management of employee commitment will also be provided.

Questionnaires are provided without instructions regarding various options for analysis of results.

The commercial license is available in a variety of offerings depending on the number of subjects you wish to include.

Commercial Licenses

1-100	Subjects	\$300 CAD
1-300	Subjects	\$700 CAD
1-500	Subjects	\$1,000 CAD
1-1000	Subjects	\$1,500 CAD
1-4000	Subjects	\$5,000 CAD
4000+	Subjects	contact us

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Item removed due to copyright. Sample and actual questions are available at <http://www.employeecommitment.com/>.

Appendix B. Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

Remote online use of the Mind Garden instrument stated below is approved for the person on the title page of this document.

Your name:

Alethia Gardner

Email address:

agardner9@liberty.edu

Company/Institution:

Liberty University

Mind Garden Sales Order or Invoice number for your license purchase:

EALWDVTWF

The name of the Mind Garden Instrument you will be using:

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire™ - Remote Online Survey License - Translation : English (default)

Please specify the name of and web address for the remote online survey website you will be using and describe how you will be putting this instrument online:

Survey Monkey; surveymonkey.com I will create the survey questions from the MLQ and another instrument and post a link for my target audience to access.

The Remote Online Survey License is a data license for research purposes only. This license grants one permission to collect and disclose (a) item scores and scale scores, (b) statistical analyses of those scores (such as group average, group standard deviation, T-scores, etc.) and (c) pre-authorized sample items only, as provided by Mind Garden, for results write-up and publication.

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added 13 September 2018

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