

THE IMPACT OF LEADERSHIP STYLES
ON EMPLOYEE COMMITMENT
IN RETAIL INDUSTRY

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A research project submitted in partial fulfillment of the
requirement for the degree of

BACHELOR OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION
(HONS)

UNIVERSITI TUNKU ABDUL RAHMAN

FACULTY OF BUSINESS AND FINANCE
DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS

MARCH 2014

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DECLARATION

We hereby declare that:

- 1) This undergraduate research project is the end result of our own work and that due acknowledgement has been given in the references to ALL sources of information be they printed, electronic, or personal.
- 2) No portion of this research project has been submitted in support of any application for any other degree or qualification of this or any other university, or other institutes of learning.
- 3) Equal contribution has been made by each group member in completing the research project.
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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

We would like to acknowledge people who have contributed to this research. We are sincerely appreciated their guidance, advices, supports and opinions in assisting us in completing this project.

First of all, we would like to thank our supervisor, Dr Wong Kee Luen in guiding and advising us patiently throughout the completion of this project. Dr Wong always provides some valuable ideas and suggestions to enhance our research while reviewing our works. Without his guidance, we would not able to complete our research successfully.

Besides, we would like to thank our family members and group members who have fully participated in the process of researching. Our members have contributed their valuable knowledge, time and cooperation into the studies. We also solve problems together as a team. Without team work and family's understanding, we may not able to complete this research project successfully in time.

Lastly, we would like to thank all the respondents who have spent their valuable time in filling in the questionnaires. Without their help, we would not able to collect all the questionnaires to do our test.

Once again, we are gratefully and thankfully for all who have participated in our completion of research.

DEDICATION

This work done is especially dedicated to:

Our supervisor, Doctor Wong Kee Luen, family members and friends for giving their unlimited support, help, encouragement and motivation throughout the completion of our research project.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AC	Affective Commitment
Auto	Autocratic Leadership Style
CC	Continuance Commitment
Demo	Democratic Leadership Style
LF	Laissez-Faire Leadership Style
NC	Normative Commitment
SAS	Statistical Analysis System
UTAR	Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman

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PREFACE

The research is based upon studies conducted during June 2013 to March 2014 at the Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman. As described in the summary, the main body of the research is split into 5 parts, each with its own introduction and conclusion. However, there is a final conclusion which considers both parts in a broader setting.

We wish to take this opportunity to express our gratitude to our supervisor, Dr. Wong Kee Luen for formulating the main working hypothesis for this research, although he allowed us the freedom to wander off and supporting us in such an informal and friendly way. Thanks to Dr Wong for his good support, advice and caring through ups and downs during our research process. Because of his guiding, we are able to complete our research smoothly and timely.

We would also like to thank the participants and respondents for the cooperation to complete our questionnaires and for giving valuable time and information for our research.

Lastly, this research is the results of our own works and includes nothing which is the outcome of work done by third party. No part of this dissertation has been or is being submitted to any other University.

ABSTRACT

This is a study on the impact of leadership styles on the employee commitment in retail industry. The purpose of conducting this research is to identify the impact of different types of leadership styles on the employee commitment towards the organization. This research examines three independent variables, which is the leadership styles and three employee commitments, including affective commitment, normative commitment and continuance commitment.

For the research methodology, we used questionnaires as the research instrument. A total of 384 sampling size were chosen for our survey. We distributed 400 questionnaires to collect the responses from the employees in the retail industry. The questionnaires were distributed to the retail employees from three states of Malaysia, including Perak, Johor, and Penang.

The Statistical Analysis System (SAS) software version 9.3 was used to run the test of reliability, Pearson correlation and linear regression. The results of the research show that there is a significant relationship between the leadership styles and employee commitment, which means there is a significant impact of leadership styles towards the employee commitment in the retail industry.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

This research will explore the impact of leadership styles, which include autocratic leadership, democratic leadership, and laissez-faire leadership; on employee commitment in retail industry. The relationship between the dependent variables (organizational commitment, such as affective commitment, normative commitment and continuance commitment) and independent variables (autocratic leadership style, democratic leadership style, and laissez-faire leadership style of supervisors) will be examined in order to answer to the research questions and achieve the objectives of this research. This chapter will discuss the background of the research, research objectives and questions, hypotheses of the research and state the problems that prompted for this research. Moreover, the importance of the study and chapters layout of this research will also be presented.

1.1 Research Background

Retailing refers to all activities directly related to the selling of products and services to the ultimate consumers for their personal consumption or non-business use (Mohd-Said, 1990). Retail trading encompasses a wide variety of goods and services, ranging from household items to food and accessories. It is the last step in the distribution of these goods and services. Retail industry began in the early 18th century and it is one of the oldest businesses in the world. It begins with general store, while specialty stores were developed only in areas that had a population of above 5,000. Supermarkets started to bloom in U.S. and Canada after the World War II. Nowadays,

retail industry is one of the faster growing industry and is greatly affected by demographic shifts, technological advances and changing perceptions in the U.S. and globally.

In tune with the government's aim to establish Malaysia as one of the largest regional shopping destination, many new shopping areas have been developed and a lot of shopping carnivals were launched to attract shoppers from local and abroad. This indicates that retail trade in Malaysia is one of the important contributions to the country economic. Retail in Malaysia is wide-ranging which includes supermarkets, department stores, convenience stores, pharmacies, medical halls and so on (Seventh Malaysia Plan, 1996). Such variety reflects that consumers have changed their expectations towards good and services and demand for better quality products and services.

The main purpose of this research is to identify the impact of leadership styles of leaders and the employees' commitment towards the organization in retail sector. Organizational commitment is considered as one of the concepts which have always been attended to by many researchers and scholars. Paramount significance of the employees' commitment for all organizations has already led to implementation of many researches in the field of management on the employees' commitment and other issues like job satisfaction and turnover. Scientific researchers have already proved that employees with more organizational commitment are more loyal, productive and accountable. Moreover, organizational commitment is considered as one of the reliable and sustainable predictors of the absence, turnover, productivity, efficiency and job satisfaction of the employees.

Many researchers show their keen interest in studying leadership as a subject which resulted in establishment of different leadership theories. Organization's success relies on employee's commitment and their focus towards achieving the

organization's prime goals. Another prime factor of organization's success is the manager's leadership styles. It is the ability of the manager to influence his subordinates by making them more satisfied, committed and in return increases productivity (Mosadeghrad, 2003). Kreitner (1995) determines that leadership behavior can be used to create a significant impact on employees in order to improve organization commitment. In the past few years, there is a rebellion change in the ways the leadership and their attitudes is defined, moving from more autocratic to a more participative approach.

In the world of global economy people are becoming more eloquent and more educated; they require an environment of participation and more involvement in decisions (Stewart, 1994). There are different styles of leadership ranging from autocratic, charismatic, participative, situational, bureaucratic, democratic, laissez-faire, transactional, and transformational leadership (Mosadeghrad, 2003). Every leader should know about the different styles for the different situations and should be familiar with time of demonstration of a particular style (Rad & Yarmohammadian, 2006). None of the early mentioned styles is fit for every situation, a leader may seem to be highly effective and proficient in one situation but may not be as effective in the other.

1.2 Problem Statement

The issue of high employee turnover rate has driven the attention of both practitioners and academicians. From the human resource management perspective, high turnover rate indicates a negative impact toward the organization due to financial consequences. When employees leave the organization, a series of recruiting, selecting and training process has to be carry out in getting new employees. Replacing a full-time worker in private sector may likely to cost about 25% of the

employee's annual compensation (Kenny, 2007). Other than that, employee turnover may also affect the company's productivity as well as performance, especially when it involves critical position in the organization. High turnover also fosters a sense of discontinuity in the workplace hence unsettling managers and employees. Companies that are unable to reduce their employee turnover rate will typically lose their competitiveness in the long run (Ismail & Lim, 2007).

Similar to the other industries, the retail industry always faced with high employee turnover rate. According to an analysis from National Retail Federation, there is about a quarter of retail workers which account for 24.6 percent voluntarily left their job in 2010. However, employees from retail industry have been less likely to quit their job ever since the recession hit in 2008. Besides, retailers report a median turnover rate for part-time store workers, which carried 67%, that shown an increase of 33% over 2011. One out of five retailers report that they have experienced more turnover in the first part of 2012. According to Morse (2012) higher employee turnover is a double-edged sword. Although it is a harbinger of an improving economy, there is a significant challenge for retailers who will need to spend more time and resources to recruit and retain workers.

Employees are considered to be the most effective asset in achieving organizational objectives and goals. Employees have the tendency to enhance the organization's productivity and profitability by utilize the organizational capital efficiently and effectively. In order to advantageously utilize this asset, leadership style is considered being the most important determinant to increase employee commitment (Javaid, 2012). Committed workforce is less likely to leave the organization and is important for the organizations to achieve their desire goals. Besides, the employees' commitment, performance and productivity should definitely increase if they are treated with good leadership style.

This particular study highlights the impact of different leadership styles on employee commitment in retail sector. The basic purpose of highlighting such a relationship is to make the new ways open for the manager to consider how their leadership styles create a strong foot prints on the attitudes of the employees towards their job by creating a fluctuating effect on the organizational commitment. Nevertheless, there are limited researches or surveys on the leadership styles and employees' commitment in retail industry which will be further explored in this research.

1.3 Research Objectives

Research objectives address the purpose of the investigation. The research objectives provide a specific, concrete, and achievable goal in conducting research. To adequately answer the research questions, the research objectives are being formulated as below:

1.3.1 General Objective

Based on the previous research done by others researchers, they have identified few leadership styles which may affect the employee commitment. In this context, leadership style is an independent variable while employee commitment is the dependent variable in this research.

This research aims to study the impact of leadership styles on employee commitment in retail industry. In other words, the specific objectives of this research are aims to find the impact of those leadership styles on employee commitment in retail industry. The causes of employee commitment extracted

from past research are autocratic leadership, democratic leadership and laissez- faire leadership styles.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

- i. To find out the impact of independent variables on dependent variables.
- ii. To find out the impact of leadership styles on employee's affective commitment.
- iii. To find out the impact of leadership styles on employee's normative commitment.
- iv. To find out the impact of leadership styles on employee's continuance commitment.

1.4 Research Questions

1. How does a leadership style affect organizational commitment in retail industry?
2. How do the leadership styles affect employee's affective commitment in retail industry?
3. How do the leadership styles affect employee's normative commitment in retail industry?
4. How do the leadership styles affect employee's continuance commitment in retail industry?

1.5 Hypotheses of the Study

H1: There is a relationship between democratic leadership styles and employee's affective commitment.

H2: There is a relationship between democratic leadership styles and employee's normative commitment.

H3: There is a relationship between democratic leadership styles and employee's continuance commitment.

H4: There is a relationship between autocratic leadership styles and employee's affective commitment.

H5: There is a relationship between autocratic leadership styles and employee's normative commitment.

H6: There is a relationship between autocratic leadership styles and employee's continuance commitment.

H7: There is a relationship between laissez-faire leadership styles and employee's affective commitment.

H8: There is a relationship between laissez-faire leadership styles and employee's normative commitment.

H9: There is a relationship between laissez-faire leadership styles and employee's continuance commitment.

1.6 Significance of the Study

In today's competitive world, unless employee is committed to the organization's objectives and works as an effective employee, otherwise no organizations can perform at peak levels. Employees who come to work faithfully every day and do their work independently are no longer good enough. One of the challenges faced by modern companies is to maintain employee commitment in the current business environment.

Similar to other industries, the retail industry is also facing high turnover rate problems in both management and sales employees which, usually caused by a low organizational commitment of employees. In this context, retail companies need employees being committed to pursue growth opportunities or increase productivity. Shortage of employees may affect the operations and profitability of retail businesses. Therefore, employee turnover problem in the retail industry needs attention from the academicians and practitioners alike.

So, the main importance of this research is to increase the awareness and knowledge about the effect of different leadership styles which may impact the employee commitment in the retail industry. Indications of organizational commitment are linked with feelings of attachment towards the goals and values of the organization, one's role in relation to this, and engagement to the organization for its own sake rather than for strictly instrumental values (Cook & Wall, 1980). By understanding commitment, practitioners will be in a better position to predict the impact of a practice or particular policy on the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

In an organization, commitment will bolster a stable self-concept and therefore a more foreseeable and consistent behavior and performance (Handy, 1976). Mathieu and Zajac (1990) assert that the more committed employees existed, the more role

behaviors such as creativeness and innovativeness are portrayed. This is often what keeps a competitive organization sustains. Committed employees show higher willingness to stay on their jobs (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Researches have consistently supported that high organizational commitment has been positively related with individual behaviors such as decreased intention to search for new jobs and reduced absenteeism (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Bergmann, Lester, Meuse & Grahn, 2000). In this context, emphasizing on the organizational commitment of employees can help a retail company to decrease its turnover rate, which indirectly leads to a higher profit of the company.

Further, this study will be helpful to the retail industry in understanding the leadership styles that may influence the employee commitment and the management team can emphasizes on their leadership styles in order to reach the company objectives and increase the effectiveness of employees. It will also serves as a future guidelines for other researchers on the subject of employee commitment.

1.7 Chapter Layout

Chapter 1: Introduction

Chapter one is the introductory chapter which introduces the overall research project by presenting the research background; explaining the problems occurred in current context that prompted for this research; setting research objectives to be achieved, the research questions to be answered, and the hypotheses to be testes; and justifying the importance of this research. This chapter will be able to provide an overview to readers to understand what the research is all about.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Chapter two consists of a comprehensive review of the published and unpublished information from secondary sources of data that are available on the topics of interest. The secondary data refers to other researchers' publications, such as books, magazines, and journals from online database. Information that is related to the research topic will be studied and will serve as a reference to create the research framework. The empirical study of other researchers will also demonstrate the relationship between related variables, which will be used to develop the research hypotheses.

Chapter 3: Research Methodology

Chapter three is the guideline for researcher to further accomplish this research. This chapter clearly explained the methods and techniques that researcher will be using for data collection and analysis. The processes of research from selection of samples, gathering of data and methods to analyze data will be based on the description of this chapter.

Chapter 4: Research Results

Chapter four presents the patterns of the results and analysis of the results which are relevant to the research questions and hypotheses.

Chapter 5: Discussion and Conclusion

Chapter five will discuss on the research findings that were presented in the earlier chapter. The discussion will include some statements by other researchers to support

the findings. Meanwhile, the research will end with a summary of the entire research project and suggestions to other researchers for future research on the similar topic.

1.8 Conclusion

Chapter one is the plan and overview of the research. This chapter illustrated an overview of the important processes that will be implemented for the completion of this research. Moreover, the research objectives, hypotheses and questions that were presented in this chapter will served as the direction of the research, which allow researcher to refer while proceeding to further stage of this research. In order to have a better understanding, Chapter two will provides a review of literature relevant to this study.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter is aimed to provide the literature review that had be done by various researchers on the impact of leadership styles on employee commitment in retail industry. Researches done by other researchers will be used as reference and the secondary data of this research. Chapter 2 will discuss the independent and dependent variables and also review the related theoretical models and framework. Hypothesis is developed to further determine and explain the relationship between the dependent and independent variables.

2.1 Review of the Literature

According to Drucker (1993), the organizational success is dependent upon the quality and performance of managers. An enterprise without a leadership is not able to transmute input resources into their own competitive advantage. One reason to examine the leadership style is because effective leadership can be the key success for many organizations and research can help in identifying the critical skills needed by leaders in today's world.

Meanwhile, because of the perceived impact a committed worker can have, the issue of employee commitment has become an interested construct of inquiry with the increased competition. Dale and Fox (2008) have found a positive linkage between leadership style and employee commitment.

2.1.1 Dependent Variable: Employee Commitment

Employee commitment is identified as psychological state that binds individual to the manager, occupation and organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) suggested that commitment binds an individual to a course of action of relevance to one or more targets. Their research made an important contribution towards defining employee commitment in the form of three bases which are affective, normative, and continuance. These three types of commitment reflect emotional ties, perceived obligation and perceived sunk costs in relation to a target, respectively (Allen & Meyer, 1991). There are two well-known ideas about commitment in research studies. The first view is developed by Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian (1974) which explained commitment as the involvement of an individual and power of identification with a certain organization. The second view stating that an individual concentrates his early investments on an action and if the action stops he loses his investments. This view is founded on the Becker's side-bets view and handles commitment as the tendency to maintain membership in the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Oliver, 1990).

Employee commitment is perceived as the strong desire to maintain within the organization, the willingness of employees to exert a strong belief in and acceptance of an organization's goals and values and considerable effort on behalf of the organization (Hunt & Morgan, 1994). According to Mowday (1979), employee commitment is a multidimensional structure and it is the relative strength of an employee's identification and participation in a particular organization. Mowday also reported that employee commitment is marked by at least three factors: the first one is a strong desire to maintain membership within the same organization; the second one is a strong belief in

and acceptance of an organization's goals and values; the third one is the willingness to apply considerable effort on behalf of the organization (Savery & Syme, 1996). His report agreed with Hunt and Morgan's view.

Employee commitment linked individual characteristics like age, seniority and education with conditional factors like organizational characteristics, climate and job satisfaction (Morrow, 1983). According to Meyer (2002), job satisfaction plays a key role in determine employee commitment. There is a distinction between employee commitment and job satisfaction; employee commitment can be regarded as an employee's emotional responses towards his organization whereby job satisfaction is an employee's responses towards any job. These two variables are considered highly associated. Therefore, it is possible for an employee to be unsatisfied with the job he has in the organization while he has positive feelings towards the organization's values and objectives. When most of the studies are analyzed, the significant relationship of employee commitment with demographic characteristics and job satisfaction draw attention (Kacmar, 1999).

Morris and Sherman (1981) indicated that employee commitment is an effective predictor in predicting an employee's performance in workplace and his turnover intention. Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, and Jackson (1989) also found that employee commitment was a proper indicator of work performance. Thus, it is essential for managers and leaders to pay keen attention to the employee's commitment. Most scholars recognize that employee commitment is loyalty to the organization (Price & Mueller, 1986). Employee commitment is defined as a mental contract connecting the employee's performance in his duty with his identification and attribution with the organization (Wallace, 1995). Employee commitment is able to facilitate voluntary cooperation within an organization. When employees felt

that they are treated with consideration, they show greater levels of commitment (Summers, 1997).

Meyer and Allen (1991) proposed a framework that was designed to measure three different types of employee commitment.

2.1.1.1 Affective Commitment

Affective commitment is one specific form of employee commitment, which has been considered the most beneficial in enhancing organizational effectiveness. In fact, of these three components, affective commitment has been found to be the most consistent and strongest predictor of positive organizational outcomes; and high affective commitment is associated with decreased turnover intentions (Iverson, 1996; Wasti, 2003), contributes to higher productivity and competitive advantage for an organization (Deery & Iverson, 1996).

Employees' affective commitment, their emotional bond to their organization has been treated as an important determinant of dedication and loyalty. Employees with high affective commitment are having a sense of belonging and identification with that increase their engagement in the organization's activities, their willingness to pursue the organization's goals and their desire to stay with the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Furthermore, studies have found relations between affective commitment and absenteeism, performance and turnover (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Concerning antecedents of affective commitment, Meyer and Allen suggested that work experiences such as organizational rewards, supervisor support and procedural justice have demonstrated stronger relationships with affective commitment.

Organizational support theory proposed by Eisenberg and Huntington (1995) may help explain employees' emotional commitment to their organization. This approach assumes that employees form general beliefs on how much the organization appreciates their contributions and concerns about their well-being in order to meet socio emotional needs and to assess the organization's readiness to reward increased efforts. Perceived organizational support may be motivated by employees' tendency to ascribe humanlike characteristics to the organization (Eisenberger, 1986). On the basis of reciprocity form, perceived organizational support would create a felt obligation to care about the organization's welfares and help the organization achieve its values and objectives. Felt obligation plays a role in mediating part of the relationship of perceived organizational support with affective commitment and performance (Lynch & Rhoades, 2001). Perceived organizational support would also increase affective commitment by fulfilling employee's needs for esteem, approval and affiliation, leading to the incorporation of organizational membership and role status into social identity.

This form of commitment emphasizes an individual's identification and involvement in the organization (Porter, Steers, & Boulian, 1974). Employees high in affective commitment show emotional attachment, identification with and engagement in the work place. Employees with a strong affective commitment remain with the organization because they ought to. This would explain why these employees are less likely to involve in withdrawal behavior and more likely to accept change (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

The processes leading to the development of affective commitment are taken from exchange principles according to Mottaz (1988). An organization typically provides rewards or punishments for the contributions its employees make or fail to make at its disposal in return, and the employees commit

themselves to the organization in exchange for the rewards received or the punishments avoided.

2.1.1.2 Normative Commitment

Normative commitment explains employee's sense of obligation towards the organization. Employees remain with the organization because they feel they ought to be usually accompanied with high levels of normative commitment. Socialization and exchange have a vital role in the development of normative commitment. According to Wiener (1982), normative commitment develops from normative beliefs. These normative beliefs are internalized through pre-entry (familial and cultural) and post entry (organizational) socialization processes. The center of the relationships can be concluded as the beliefs and instrumental beliefs concerning organization-related behaviors results in employee commitment and instrumental motivation, respectively. Commitment and instrumental motivation, in turn, simultaneously determine organizational-related behaviors and intentions. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) proposed that an individual's behavior depends on the individual's evaluation with respect to the act, his or her intention to perform a function, the person's subjective norm or perception of all the normative pressures regarding the behavior. Meyer and Allen (1997) applied this concept to employee commitment.

The principle of exchange develops through the receipt of rewards from the organization that make employees feel a sense of moral obligation to reciprocate with commitment (Scholl, 1981). Steers (1997) shows that if the employee finds the organization to be more supportive, a higher level of

employee commitment will result and the direct effort to induce commitment can produce long-term benefits for the organization.

Meyer and Allen (1997) stated that a complex process of imitating others' behavior leads to the normative commitment process happens when individuals learn the expectations from their families, their society and their organizations. Following these studies, the outcome of the normative commitment process is that employees' incorporate a belief that it is appropriate to be fully committed to their organization.

2.1.1.3 Continuance Commitment

Continuance commitment relates to an employee's evaluation of comparing the costs of leaving the organization and the costs of staying. Employees who perceived that the costs of leaving the organization are greater than the costs of staying will remain within the organization because they need to. Anything that increases the cost of leaving the organization results to the development of continuance commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Becker (1960) defined continuance commitment as a trend to engage in consistent lines of activity based on the individual's assessment of the costs associated with discontinuing the activity. If an employee move to a new job, he has to spend an amount of time to acquire self-investment again. Self-investment is the amount of valuable resources such as effort, energy, and time that an employee has spent in the organization for its well-being (Allen & Meyer, 1990). If an employee is lacking of transferability of job skills and knowledge, the costs of leaving the organization will also increase, because it is difficult for the employee to find an alternative jobs that match (Becker, 1960). It may also disrupt the social relationships the employees have built in the previous organization and

increase the psychological cost of making new friends and learning to get along with new working colleagues if employees move to another organization (Becker, 1964). Thus, it is summarized that if the available alternative job in the environment is fewer, the employees will show greater continuance commitment to their current employer.

Continuance commitment is implied upon the employee's pragmatic assessment of the costs and benefits of staying with a given organization (Meyer & Allen, 1988). As Allen and Meyer (1990) have contributed, employees with strong continuance commitment remain because they need to.

2.1.2 1st Independent Variables: Democratic/Participative Leadership Style

Leadership has been classified in terms of individual traits, behavior, interaction patterns, role relationships, influence over other people, occupation of an administrative position, and perception by others regarding legitimacy of influence (Yukl, 2006). Stogdill (1974) defines leadership behavior as which leaders uses to influence a group of people towards the accomplishment of goals. Leadership is an interaction between two or more members of a group that often involves a structuring or restructuring of the situation and the perceptions and expectations of members (Bass, 1990) and is concerned with three things; leaders, followers and their interactions (Dansereau, Yammarino, & Markham, 1995). The leadership styles we are studying in this study are autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire. Different styles were needed for different situations and each leader needed to know when to apply a particular approach. No one leadership style is ideal or best for every situation, since a

leader may have knowledge and skills to act effectively in a situation but may not emerge as effectively in a different situation.

Democratic leadership, also known as participative leadership, is conducted in which group members take a more participative role in the process of making decision. Democratic leadership is able to influence people in a consistent manner and conducive to basic democratic principles and processes, such as self-determination, inclusiveness, participation and serious thought (Fishkin, 1991). Starrat (2001) notes that democratic leader acts as a central controlling unit of the team when consults his team during any decision making. A democratic leader facilitates the team for initiating any task and provides them freedom to achieve the task at their own freewill through mutual understanding. Participation of the members is always facilitated by a good democratic leader and he will be ultimately responsible for all outcomes. To the extent that they have a measure of authority or power, democratic leaders must be responsible for the decisions the members make as individuals and the roles they play in the demos (Starhawk, 1986; White & Lippitt, 1960).

Their position in the network of power relations also makes these leaders responsible for making authority lines and decision making clear and visible. They must keep their agendas and motives transparent, not hidden (Starhawk & Graebner, 1986). Finally, democratic leaders must try to prevent the hierarchies develop in which special privilege and status differentials exist (Krech, Crutchfield, & Ballanchey, 1962). They must frequently ask themselves if existing power inequalities are necessary, and they should be extremely reluctant to increase the concentration of power.

Anderson (1959) identified the democratic leader as who is willing to share decision making power with the other members. Therefore, democratic

leadership is connected with higher morale in the majority of the situations. He refused that democratic leadership is associated with low productivity and high morale whereby authoritarian leadership is associated with high productivity and low morale. This statement is supported by Hackman and Johnson (1996).

Democratic leadership is associated with increased followers' productivity, satisfaction, engagement, and commitment (Hackman & Johnson, 1996). Follower's satisfaction and elections for leadership are greater under democratic leadership (Bass, 1990). Although the significant shortcomings to democratic leadership are time consuming and lengthy, participation plays a vital role for boosting the leadership productivity (Denhardt, 2003). Consequently, the primary characteristics of democratic leadership signified that even though the leader possesses the final say over decisions, group members are encouraged to share ideas and opinions. These will make group members feel more interconnected in the process and ultimately leading to encouragement of creativity. The core of democratic leadership is participation (Bass, 1990); and the ideal of democratic leadership is helpful, friendly and encouraging participation (Luthar, 1996). Leader encourages the level of participation classified autocratic leadership, participative leadership, and high involvement leadership (Wilson, George, Wellins, & Byham, 1994). Chemers (1984) also states that democratic leadership highlighting group participation.

On the other hand, Kuczmarski (1995) talked about the distinctiveness of a democratic leader as motivating, a provider of logical consequences, a winner of cooperation, encouraging, permitting of self-determination, directing, a good listener and respecting and situation-centered. White and Lippitt (1960) defined democratic leadership as highlighting group participation, discussion

and encouraging group decisions. While participation is the core characteristics of democratic leadership, a top-down style and directive control with a heavy emphasis on control and command are the core characteristics of autocratic leadership (Luthar, 1996). Participation and control are the best terms for simplifying democratic and autocratic leadership. An autocratic leader controls over group activities tightly when making decisions and determines all policies, techniques and activity steps. Besides commanding the particular work tasks and work companions of each member, the autocratic leader tends to be personal when praising and criticizing the member's work but also remains distant from active group participation. In contrast, a democratic leader tends to be a regular group member in spirit without doing too much of the work (White & Lippitt, 1960). While the main characteristic of the autocratic leader is commanding and ordering, the major activity of the democratic leader is giving information. In practice, the differences between the roles of the autocratic and democratic leaders are not intense.

The contexts, characteristics, motivations and outcomes of democratic leadership in democratic movements are interrelated with each other. The leaders and followers desire more democracy due to the political, socioeconomic and cultural contexts (Minier, 2001). The desire for democracy seeks certain outcomes which include democratic reforms, direct elections, and political liberalization. These outcomes enhance human rights and the pursuit of happiness in a democratic society.

Undemocratic situations and undemocratic governments seek the demand for democracy movements. Undemocratic situations create political, socio-economical and cultural contexts of democratic movements that seek critical characteristics of democratic leadership. In democratic movements, the

characteristics of democratic leadership are sacrifice, participation, vision, courage and symbolism. These characteristics are crucial as it helps to achieve democracy and play a significant role in the political, socioeconomic and cultural context of democratic leadership in democratic movements. Vision is the most found characteristic of leadership (Northhouse, 1997; Yukl, 2002). Democratic leadership requires a vision for democratic values, human rights, equality, freedom and welfare under undemocratic and undeveloped economic situations. The vision is enhanced and strengthened with courage and participation. This vision cannot be achieved in the absence of courage, participation and the interactions between democratic leaders and followers. Democratic leaders not only build a vision, they also instill it in the hearts of followers.

Interactions between leaders and followers are necessitated by the characteristics of democratic leadership. First, democratic followers must be willing to accountable for the well-being of the followers as a complement to the first function of democratic leadership (White & Lippitt, 1960). Counterbalanced with freedom, the responsibility of the individual emphasizes on to cooperate with the group and to ensure its welfare. By remain open but not blindly accept to leaders' requests, democratic followers take on their greater responsibility.

Second, followers must be accountable for their decisions and actions (Mathews, 1988). For example, members of a democratic community might disagree with a collective decision. Although they might be given liberty to speak out against the decision, a democratically established policy can only be obstructed or violated in the case of conscientious objection (White & Lippitt, 1960; Barber, 1984).

Third, followers are responsible for maintaining their autonomy. Undemocratic leaders might remove followers' freedom against their will, but freedoms can also be given away or taken for granted (Fromm, 1965). Therefore, in order to maintain their autonomy, followers must regularly exercise their liberties and cherish, recognize and guard their autonomy (Lassey, 1971; Barber, 1984).

Fourth, followers should strive to develop their leadership skills to identify the ways in which they can function as leaders. They are supposed to view themselves as capable of both leading and following others. In ideal democratic leadership, follower and leader are roles that individuals constantly exchange by the minute, month, or year.

Finally, members of the group who are playing the role of follower must be willing to work with those who are leading. Rejecting individual leaders due to their incompetence or undemocratic behavior is justified, but entirely rejecting the notion of democratic leadership can undermine the democratic goals of a group (Baker, 1982; Nagel, 1987). Followers should prevent exploiting or adulating democratic leaders at the same time (Nagel, 1987). The followers should appreciate and support the leaders who make valuable contributions to the group (Smith, 1926; Starhawk, 1986), but the followers must also be the watchdog of its own leadership to remain truly democratic (Kutner, 1950).

However, democracy has not always carried the positive view it does today. Majority of the philosophers and political scientists viewed democracy with suspicion for a long time, in large part because they view that this mindless masses were capable only of creating riots and following false prophets. Democracy therefore viewed as to be an unstable social system that would

cause terrorism. Heifetz and Sinder (1987) recognize that when a problem is clearly defined and has a straightforward solution, the democratic process is inappropriate. Haiman (1951) also determines the types of problems that make a democratic process inappropriate. He interprets that the demos should turn to an executive or a judge sometimes. This may mean the demos implementing a policy or enforcing a law enacted. The demos has ultimate authority over the executive actions, but the implementation of a task to a particular member or committee often assigned by a small, direct democracy, giving them a measure of executive power. Judges serve the demos by illustrating the details of the decisions of the demos. A democratic society gives provisional power to judges and juries, so they must remain accountable like executives.

Finally, Maier (1952) specifies that the democratic process is not appropriate if the group is unconcerned to a problem or its solution. The problem under consideration also must be within the jurisdiction of the followers. This latter consideration asks whether the existing democratic unit is more justified than any other possible unit, therefore it is more complicated than it appears on first glance.

In conclusion, the reason democratic style of leadership may become more widely accepted and practiced is believed. In the last quarter century, democracy has witnessed both progress and regression and democratic leadership may experience similar cycles (Slater & Bennis, 1990). Additionally, Lippitt (1983) points out a number of promising trends in the 1970s and early 1980s that are probably still present today. The expectations of power sharing and responsibility are increasing; the degree of collaboration and communication are greater; and the need for organizational openness and flexibility are increasing.

2.1.3 2nd Independent Variables: Authoritarian/Autocratic Leadership Style

Authoritarian leadership regards to a leader stresses his or her unquestionable and absolute authority that they will take rigorous control over subordinates and demand complete followership from them. Cheng (1995) emphasized that the characteristic of authoritarian leadership demonstrated the following four behaviors: control and domination, underestimating the ability of subordinates, building a lofty image of the leader and instructing subordinates in a didactic style. The autocratic leader dominates team-members, using unilateralism to achieve a singular objective. This approach to leadership generally results in passive resistance from team-members and requires continual pressure and direction from the leader in order to get things done. Autocrat leaders maintain servant-master relationships with followers (Adair, 1984). They make decisions more unilaterally and supervise subordinates' work activities more closely (Muczyk & Reimann, 1987).

An autocratic leader persuades people to perform by using rewards and punishments (Adorno, 1995). When the ratio of punishments to rewards becomes too unequal, the autocratic leader may end up looking for another working line. Such a leader relies on the position power to get things completed. The leader makes all of the decisions and retains the right to set goals and directions. Group members are seen as workers whose primary responsibility is to obey all the orders from the leader. An autocratic leader shields him from criticism about personal abilities and has an ego-driven need to control other people (Stogdill, 1980). If the workers have the willingness that is to say, submissive, work can get done, perhaps not too willingly. Fear is often used as leverage by an autocratic leader. The power to confer

privilege on some, or withdraw it from others, serves as a powerful tool in the hand of an autocratic leader.

Although the autocratic approach was once the dominant form of leadership in human affairs, it has fallen out of favor in the present age, often replaced by more democratic or humanistic styles. But it is unacceptably simplistic to say that autocratic leadership is “wrong” at all times and in all circumstances, and it is just as inaccurate to argue that democratic leadership is always “right” (George, 2003). The literature on leadership in the business world suggests that autocratic leadership is useful in some contexts and should be avoided in others. Autocratic leadership leads to more accurate decisions when the leader is well versed in the subject under discussion. It can increase worker productivity, but only when the leader is present and powerful. Such leadership improves worker performance, but only on relatively simple tasks. It also tends to reduce communication problems (George, 2003).

Autocratic leadership seems to be most appropriate in cases in which employees are new and untrained in their jobs (Greenleaf, 1977). It works best with larger group. It also seems to be called for when detailed instructions or high-volume production are necessary. It can be appropriate in situations where time is limited, employees challenge the leader’s authority, or a business or department has been mismanaged by a prior leader. Autocratic leadership is also useful when work frequently must be coordinated with other divisions of the company.

But autocratic leadership has its downside. It is associated with higher turnover rates and with increased aggression among employees (DePree, 1990). It decreases employee performance on complex tasks and seems to hamper creativity. This approach also tends to increase employee alienation

and resentment and to decrease morale, employee satisfaction and loyalty. An autocratic approach often leads to lower morale and consequent increased absenteeism. Further, it tends to be less effective with the current generation of employees than it was with those raised in a more traditional and structured culture. Autocratic leadership should not be imposed in situations in which a high level of employee creativity is called for or where a democratic leadership model has already been established. It can thus be seen that autocratic leadership is multifaceted (Gustainis, 1994).

2.1.4 3rd Independent Leadership: Laissez-Faire/Delegative Leadership Style

Laissez-faire leadership, also known as delegative leadership may be the best or the worst of leadership styles. If the leader follows the normally understood definition and standard practice of non-interference and hands-off when supposedly leading his or her followers, the worst form of leadership is formed. However, laissez-faire leadership emerges as the ultimate form of leading during the twenty-first century. The laissez-faire leader does not intervene in the affairs of followers and showing little control very slightly on the group. Leader's participation is very low in the activities of group members. In laissez-faire leadership style, team struggles with negligible direction or motivation (Bittel, 1989).

Robbins (2007) defined the laissez-faire style as abdicates responsibilities avoid making decisions. Laissez-faire is uninvolved in the work of the unit. It is difficult to defend this leadership style unless the leader's subordinates are expert and well-motivated specialists, such as Scientists. Laissez-faire leadership style allows complete freedom to group decision without the

leader's participation (Mondy & Premeaux, 1995). Thus, subordinates are free to do what they like. The role of the leader is just to supply materials. The leader does not interfere with or participate in the course of events determined by the group. Performance could be described in various ways. It could be an act of accomplishing of executive given task. It could also be described as the ability to combine skill fully the right behavior towards the achievement of organizational goals and objectives. Laissez-faire leadership is considered as an ineffective style when applied to conflict management situations (Bruk-Lee, 2007). Managers used an avoidance conflict management style to evade challenging issues within their retail work environment (Newman & Grigg, 2008). Some researchers might view laissez-faire leaders to display leadership skills that attract an avoidance conflict management style. Today's retail leaders are expected to use effective leadership strategies to mediate and facilitate conflicts that impact the internal work environment (Newman & Grigg, 2008). When retail organizations choose a conflict resolution strategy, such as compromise conflict management, leaders must make sure that the right strategies are chosen and beneficial to all vested parties (Goyal, Maruping, & Robert, 2008).

The laissez-faire leader believes in freedom of choice for the employees, leaving them alone so they can do as they want (Blanchard, 1999). The basis for this style of leadership is twofold. First, there is a strong belief that the employees understand their jobs well so leave them alone to do their jobs. Second, the leader may be in a political, election-based position and may not want to exert power and control for fear of not being re-elected. Such a leader provides basic but minimal information and resources. There is virtually no participation or communication within the group. Understand the job requirements, policies and procedures are generally exchanged from employee to employee. As a result, many processes are out of control. No instruction is

given and the laissez-faire leader functions in a crisis or reaction mode. If there are objectives and goals, employee agreement or commitment is just assumed. Even if goals and objectives are shared, there is rarely a defined plan to attain them.

This behavior was in opposite to that of autocratic leaders, who showed a much greater frequency of giving order, praise and approval, disrupting commands, and non-constructive criticism. It is also contrasted to that of democratic leaders, who gave suggestions and facilitated subordinates to guide themselves. Under laissez-faire situations, the groups were less well organized, less efficient, and less satisfying to members than under democratic conditions. Fewer assignments were completed and the work was in poorer quality and there was more play, frustration, disorganization, discouragement, and aggression under laissez-faire leadership. Laissez-faire management or leadership can only lead to chaos and inefficiency and can be dismissed out of hand as useless. Leaders who use this style offer no positive or negative direction nor do they interfere at any time and ultimately fail their employees (Webb, 2007). According to Deluga (1990), laissez-faire leaders renounce their leadership thus giving employees a wide spectrum of decision-making which could lead to increasing their power and influence. Another assessment of research revealed that these leaders persistently avoid goal-setting, opportunities to succeed, fail to coordinate organizational objectives, ignore responsibilities, and routinely avoid making decisions on important matters (van Eeden, Cilliers, & van Deventer, 2008). Leaders assume the employees will make decisions in a timely manner and handle whatever problems that arise.

Murnighan and Leung's (1976) experiment found that undergraduate participants who were led by uninvolved leaders were less productive in the

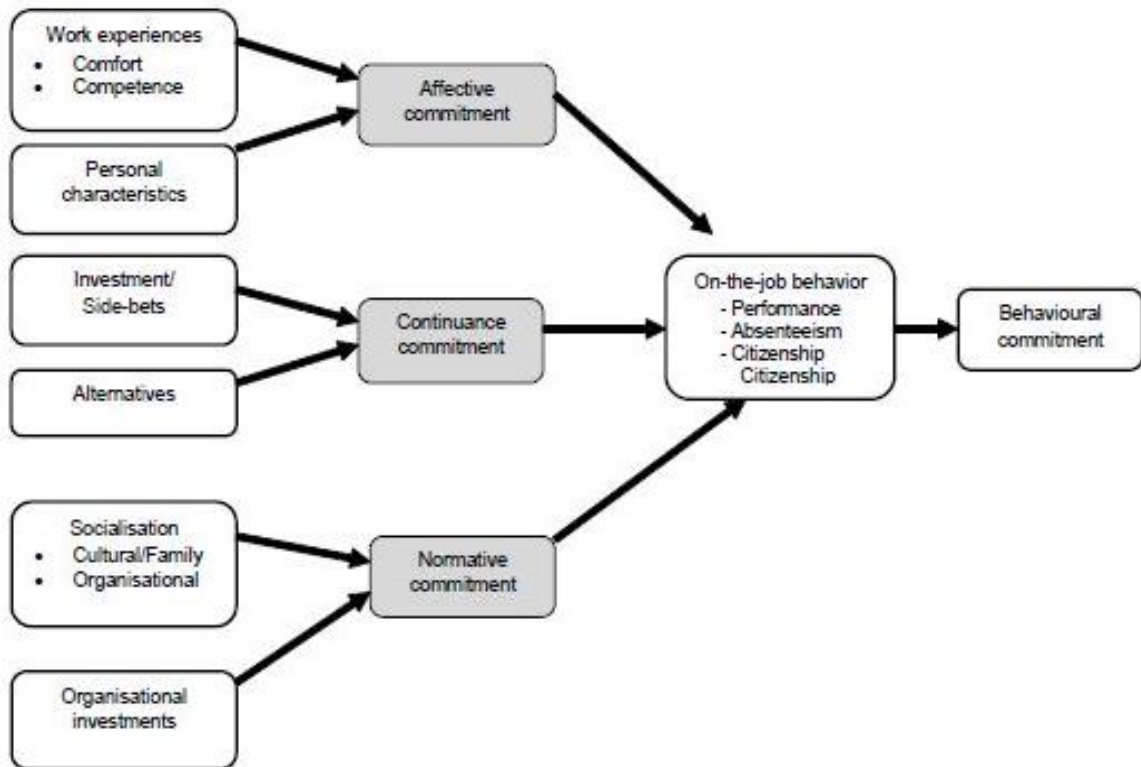
quality and quantity of the problems they solved and lower in satisfaction in comparison to participants who were led by involved leaders. Baumgartel (1997) studied authoritarian, laissez-faire, and empowering patterns of leadership behavior. Group members under laissez-faire leadership reported more isolation from the leader and less empowerment in decision making than did those under directive leadership. The results suggested that laissez-faire leadership contributed to low cohesiveness of the group. Aspegren (1993) compared laissez-faire and empowering patterns of leadership and showed that laissez-faire leadership was associated with lower task motivation and lower satisfaction with superiors. Similarly, MacDonald's (1967) study of three styles of leadership (laissez-faire, autocratic, and democratic) in the Job Corps found that laissez-faire leadership was associated with the highest rates of truancy and delinquency and with the slowest modifications in performance.

Basically, the overall effect of laissez-faire leadership seems to be negative. But there may be an aspect of such a style of leadership that is very positive. Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson (2000) propose that leaders do not have just one style of leadership, but rather have many varying styles depending upon the situation. In one situation, the employees are essentially incompetent, and lack job knowledge and skills. Here, the leader must be the key person in charge. Being an autocratic leader seems appropriate since the followers do not know enough to make any of their own decisions. Laissez-faire leadership grants independence, and for that the employees will feel important as it is a huge responsibility for them to make the decisions themselves and to be in charge of their own workloads (Morgan, 2003). This particular leadership style may operate best on employees that are independent and also responsible for maintaining control of their work, plus at a particular skill-level, where they do not need a push from their superiors.

2.2 Review of Relevant Theoretical Model

Model 1

Figure 2.2.1: Three Dimensions of Employee Commitment



Source: Meyer, J.P., & Allen, N. (1991). A three component conceptualization of employee commitment, *Human Resource Management Review*, 1, 61-89.

Figure 2.2.1 shows the three dimensions of employee commitment. It was developed by Meyer and Allen (1991). The three dimensions are affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment. This model was used to explain the employees' behavior and it can be related to each other in other ways. For

instance, some studies suggest that the dimensions of affective commitment and continuance commitment could be inversely related with each other (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). When employees start to change their insight of lack of choices of job, the affective commitment in the organization will increase because employees want to remain in the organization and not because they have to remain with it.

According to Meyer and Allen (1991) affective commitment is a person continues working for organization because he or she agree with the organization and want to remain there. It refers to the extent to which an individual involved in and identify with the organization. Affective commitment is the most strongly linked to positive work-related behaviors such as organizational citizenship behavior (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002).

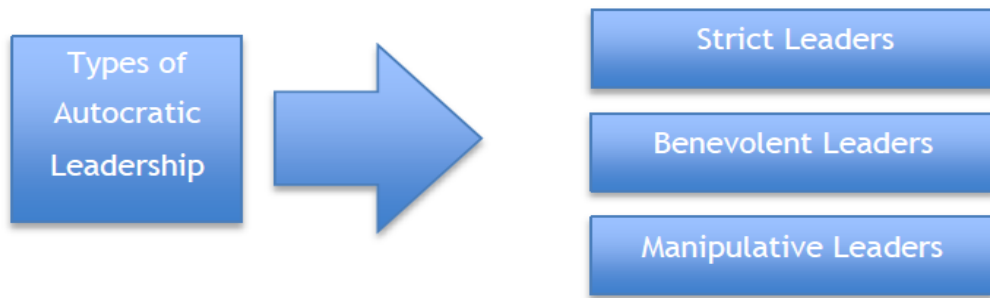
Continuance commitment is a person continues working for organization because he or she cannot afford and want to avoid the perceived cost of leaving (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Employees with high level of continuance commitment also will increase the levels of role ambiguity and conflict (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). It is reasonable to believe that the perceived need to stay with organization may increase if employee suffers from this constraint of options. According to Van Breugel, Van Olfen, and Ollie (2005) they argue that the temporary worker's level of affective commitment tends to higher than continuance commitment.

According to Meyer and Allen (1991) normative commitment is a person continues working for organization because he or she faces pressure from others to do so. It refers to the employees feel that it is their moral obligation to stay in the organization. Normative commitment is focus on a person's own moral obligation and sense of responsibility to the organization (Marsh & Mannari, 1977). According to Clugston (2000) normative commitment is different form affective commitment and

continuance commitment because it does not need to relate with the organization's goals or mission.

Model 2

Figure 2.2.2 Autocratic Leadership Styles



Source: Hiriyappa, B. (2009). *Autocratic Leadership Styles, "Organizational Behaviour"*. New Age International.

According to Hodgetts, Richard, Luthans and Fred (2003) strict autocratic leaders require all the employees must follow exactly what the leaders order and without questioning. Strict autocratic leaders only exercise one-way communication and they have no trust and confidence in their employees (Hiriyappa, 2009).

Benevolent autocratic leaders can be viewed as "paternalistic leaders". They have trust and confidence in their employees. This will make the employees and the leader to work together with unity and incorporation (Hodgetts, Richard, Luthans & Fred, 2003). According to Cheng (2004) benevolent autocratic leaders have a good effect and encourage the employees in positive manner. The kindness of the leader is the

most important things for the employees. Employees will get encouraged and will copy as it is their leaders.

According to Hiriyappa (2009) manipulative autocratic leaders have the skills to make their employees believe that they have been participated in the decision making process even though the leader has already made the decision.

Model 3

Figure 2.2.3 Levels of Participation of Employee in Decision Making Process

< Less participative			Highly participative >	
Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4	Level 5
Autocratic decision by leader	Leader proposes decision – invites comments and listen to feedback and ideas and then decides.	Others propose decision but the leader has the final say	Leader makes joint decision with others	Empower others to make a responsible decision

Source: Madinah, M., Silong, D., & Zaharah, H. (2009). Participative and Effective Community Leadership Practice in Malaysia, *The Journal of Human Resource and Adult Learning*, 5(1), 8-10

The figure above shows the levels of participation of an employee. A leader with democratic leadership style always seeks to involve others in the decision making process. A leader can be considered as high participative when he or she involves others in the process of making some decisions. The levels of participation of a leader is depends on whether the leader want to make all the decision by themselves (Level 1) or empower the decision making to others (Level 5). As the levels of participation of a leader move from Level 1 to next level, it means that the levels of participation of

employees are increase in the decision making process (Madinah, Silong & Zaharah, 2009). When the level of participation of leader reaches until Level 5, it means that the leader “hands-off” or give the employees full right to made their own decision. In this situation, the leader can be considered as using a laissez-faire leadership styles.

2.3 Proposed Theoretical/ Conceptual Framework

2.3.1 Leadership styles

Leadership style is a key determinant of the success or failure of any organization. A leader is person who motivates, directs and influences others to perform specific tasks and also inspire his subordinates for efficient performance towards the accomplishment of the stated corporate objectives. Leadership style is the manner and approach of providing direction, implementing plans and motivating people. According to Ngambi (2010), cited in Jeremy (2011), leadership is a process of influencing others’ commitment towards realizing their full potential in achieving a value added, shared vision, with passion and integrity.

Leadership is one of those concepts which can be seen widely in the people and the organizations as well. Bethel (1990) argues that leadership has a strong ability to affect employee. Bohn and Grafton (2002) define leadership in a new way that it creates a new vision; increase the self confidence in employees through coordination and communication. Ngodo (2008) perceives leadership to be a reciprocal process of social influence, in which leaders and subordinates influence each other in order to achieve organizational goals.

Omolayole (2006) states that leadership as a person who give that kind of direction to a group of members under him in such a way that these will affect the behavior of another individual or group. Leadership style is noted as the combination of characteristics, skills, traits, and behaviors that leaders use when communicating with their subordinates (Marturano & Gosling, 2008; Jeremy, 2011).

The nature of this influence is such that the team members integrate voluntarily with each other in order to accomplish the objectives which the leader has set for the group, as well as for each of the member. The quality of employees' performance, as well as the relationships between the leader and follower are significantly motivated by the leadership style adopted by the leader (Jeremy, 2011). Leadership style in an organization plays important role in enhancing or retarding the interest and commitment of the individuals in the organization (Obiwuru, 2011).

2.3.2 Employee Commitment

Employee commitment was explained in a variety of ways by different past researchers. According to Mowday, Porter, and Steer (1982), organization commitment is a combination of loyalty to the organization and attachment of employees with the organization and put effort on behalf of organization for the achievement of organizational goal. Becker, Randal, and Riegel (1995) stated that employee commitment as a combination of three dimensions a strong desire to stay within the same organization, work with great effort for the sake of organization and belief in the values of organization to achieve organization goal.

Commitment is related to loyalty to a particular organization and concerns for the organization and its success that is reflected by the attitude of employees. Salancik (1977) has a different perspective about commitment. He considered commitment as a behavioral element. Behaviors of employees plays a very significant role in commitment .Three behaviors are very important visibility to act for organizational commitment, how outcomes are interpreted and how individual is willing to work for the organization and hence play a very important role in affecting the behavior of employees towards organization commitment.

Meyer and Allen (1991) developed three elements of organizational commitment: affective, normative and continuance commitment.

2.3.2.1 Affective Commitment

Employees with strong affective commitment continue his employment with the organization because they ought to do so. This component is often treated as a predecessor of organizational commitment (Dubin, Champoux, & Porter, 1975), focused on a one-dimensional approach which is being reflected upon as representing, namely, affective commitment. Affective commitment describes an employee's emotional identification with, attachment to and engagement in the organization and its goal (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

2.3.2.2 Normative Commitment

Employees with a high level of normative commitment remain with the organization because they feel they ought to. Normative commitment explains

an employee's tendency to stay with the organization with a sense of duty, loyalty, or obligation (Wiener, 1982). This is the component that has been argued to have significant similarities with affective commitment, especially when validating the scales presented by Meyer and Allen (1990, 1991, 1997). The antecedents of this dimension cover both prior and post-employment experiences. As an obligation to show loyalty to one organization, normative commitment is capable of evolving much earlier than the actual employment takes place. Cultural socialization, historical traditions, family values and other external factors can affect the evolution of psychological state of obligation and incorporates a strong belief to be loyal to the organization. Meyer and Allen (1991) argued that this feeling would motivate individuals to behave properly and to do what is right for the organization. Thus, it was expected that normative commitment to the organization would be positively related to supportive work behaviors.

Schneider and Bowen (1985) and Marshall (2001) report that service cultures with the highest organizational commitment and lowest employee turnover consistently report the highest levels of customer satisfaction. Morris and Sherman (1981) found that initiating structure led to employees feeling higher levels of commitment due to the fact that they were being provided with a more formalized work environment with defined roles and procedures. This results in a higher sense of responsibility. Commitment as outcome has been related to leadership (Walumbwa, Orwa, Wang, & Lawler, 2005).

2.3.2.3 Continuance Commitment

Employees whose primary link to the organization is based on continuance commitment remain because they need to do so. Continuance commitment

denotes the feeling that one has to stay with the organization because leaving would cost too much or because the employee perceives few employment alternatives elsewhere. It is a key predictor of desire to stay in or leave the organization (Wong, Hui, & Law, 1995).

There are two factors interpreted the development of continuance commitment. One is related to the volume of investments made and another is related to the scarce alternatives. Becker's (1960) theory has illustrates that employees keep committed to a particular organization because of their time and effort spent on mastering specific skills and gaining experiences or social relationships that cannot be replaced with ease elsewhere and would require huge investment to start over. In other words, sunk costs are taken into consideration to a great extent (Buciuniene & Skudiene, 2008). An employee is forced to remain in the organization by equally continuance commitment evolves under perceived lack of alternatives.

2.3.3 The Impact of Democratic/ Participative Leadership on Employee Commitment

According to Rosenfeld and Plax (1975), democratic leaders are said to have insight into their own motives and behaviors as well as those of others, work toward achieving specific goals with people whom they consider their equals, treat these others respectfully, and are willing to share both the rewards of their labors as well as the disappointments. Because research suggests that task behaviors are required for effective leadership (Yukl, 2002), it was reasoned that democratic or participative leaders rely strongly on both relations and task behaviors.

Democratic leadership styles have been found more appropriate for complex and dynamic organizations in modern days. According to Montgomery (1996), democratic leadership works well when important organizational changes are required because the environment has changing rapidly and the organization needs to respond and break old routines. Under this condition, the market-based exchange strategy is restored with a team spirit approach in which leaders rely on the provision of clearly stated goals and inspirational tones to energize the workforce to a new mode of operation.

Research performed by Lewin, Lippit, and White (1939) concluded that democratic and participatory styles created better work environments and an increase in production. Furthermore, the results of a meta-analysis conducted by Eby (1999) suggest that intrinsic motivation mediates the relationship between the participative leadership behavior of supervisors and the commitment of employees. Rafferty and Griffin (2006) have found that there is a positive association between democratic leadership and affective commitment. Besides, Scholl (1981) states that individuals that value loyalty show greater normative commitment to the organizations. Tseng and Kang (2008) also investigated that democratic leadership is positively related to continuance commitment and suggests that the leader with democratic style will building trust and empathizing on development with employee (Garg & Ramjee, 2013).

Moreover, Koberg, Boss, Senjem, and Goodman (1999) found, among other things, that leader approachability (participative leadership style) was positively related to psychological empowerment, which led to increased organizational commitment.

Also, theorists and practitioners in China have begun to see participative leadership as an effective way to secure employee commitment and loyalty

(Scott, 2003; Tsui, 2004), and that managers in state-owned enterprises have been encouraged to adopt participative leadership (Chen, 2002; Wang, 1994; Wong, 2001).

As defined by Abraham Maslow (1998) in his hierarchy of needs, a highly positive and motivation-oriented environment is established to help fulfill the higher-level self-esteem and self-actualization needs under such leadership. Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) define democratic leadership as one where decision-making is decentralized and shared by subordinates. However, the potential for poor decision-making and weak execution is significant here. The underlying assumption of democratic leadership is that everyone has an equal stake in an outcome as well as shared levels of expertise with regard to decisions. That is the biggest problem. Democratic leadership is often bogged down in its own time consuming process and workable results usually require a considerable amount of effort.

Lewin (1939) summarized that democratic style of leadership is the most effective, but Smith and Peterson (1988) argued that the effectiveness of group leaders is depend upon the criterion which was being used to assess leadership. Therefore, autocratic style is the most efficient if leadership is assessed in terms of productivity. But democratic style is effective if the role is seen as maintaining good morale and a steady level of work. The democratic leader practices employee participation and exercises influence in reaching consensus. The ultimate goal is to attain commitment and ownership of decisions democratically. An employee who has high performance and quality expectations recognizes that the only way to attain them is through a committed workforce. Yiing and Ahmad (2009) have examined the relationships between affective commitment with leadership behaviors such as participative, directive, and supportive with respect to mediating effects of

organizational culture. All three leadership behaviors were found to have positive and significant relationship to employee's affective commitment.

2.3.4 The Impact of Authoritarian/ Autocratic Leadership on Employee Commitment

At the extremes of participative leadership style is the authoritarian, who is a leader with a more dominating style personality.

According to Adair (1984), it states that autocratic leader control team-members to reach a singular objective using unilateralism. This approach to leadership generally leads to passive resistance from team-members and requires continual pressure and order from the leader to get things done. Autocratic or directive leaders tend to lack insight about themselves and others, manipulate others to their own ends without consideration of others' feelings and without respect for them as people (Rosenfeld & Plax, 1975). Thus, it was reasoned that highly autocratic leaders are likely to rely on task behaviors, rarely using relations behaviors.

As pointed out by Montgomery (1996), authoritarian leadership works well in a highly stable environment when expertise is concentrated in the senior managers and system engineers while transactional leadership works well in a widely prosperous economy when mobile workers are largely driven by financial considerations. Under such conditions, authoritarian leaders focus on commands, power position and use of fear to ensure compliance to symbolize the source of wisdom and direction

Chou, Cheng, and Jen (2004) claimed authoritarian leadership means a leader stresses their unquestionable and absolute authority and that they will take

stringent control demand complete obedience over subordinates. Generally, it emphasizes control and obedience. As a traditional virtue, Chinese people respect elders. Cheng (2004) claimed that authoritarian leaders always demonstrate their control and authority so that the employees rarely see their leaders' concern. Some studies (Bachman, 1991; Pei, 2007; Saich, 2000) showed that employees in mainland China expect high levels of authoritarian leadership.

Autocratic leaders are classic “do as I say” types. In the context, these leaders are inexperienced with leadership in the form of a new position or assignment that involves people management. Autocratic leaders retain the decision-making rights for themselves and believe that their style is highly efficient.

However, this leadership style results in minimal or no innovation. Virtually, no personal or organizational change, growth and development are involved. Cooperation, achievement and commitment are restrained. These leaders can damage the organization irreparably as their followers are forced to carry out strategies and services in a very narrow way. There is no shared vision and very slightly motivation beyond coercion. Typically, commitment, creativity and innovation are eliminated by this leadership. In fact, most followers of autocratic leaders are described as biding their time, waiting for the inevitable failure this leadership produces and the removal of the leader that follows (Michael, 2010).

Hayers (2000) notes that employees who fell under stress reported autocratic supervision on the part of their leaders. The followers are rarely allowed to participate in the decision making process. It was also noted that workers who were under pressure reported harsh supervision and control from their leaders (Hayers, 2000). Therefore, there is negative impact on employee commitment.

Most individuals are familiar with this kind of leadership because such leaders are prevalent even today. It is generally not considered one of the best methods of leadership.

2.3.5 The Impact of Laissez-Faire/ Delegation Leadership on Employee Commitment

A third leadership style is laissez-faire. As described by Bass (1990), the laissez-faire leaders avoid leading by shirking supervisory duties and not setting clear goals for subordinates (Bradford & Lippitt, 1945). Laissez-faire leadership is an absence of leadership. Those who posit the leadership positions may exhibit some control simply by holding the positions, but do not interact actively with others (Bass, 1990). These leaders do not communicate with their employees and do not form emotional bonds that are essential to organizational success (Macaleer & Shannon, 2002). This limited interaction style of leadership is also known as avoidance leadership (Rubin, 2005).

In laissez-faire leadership, team struggles with negligible direction or motivation (Bittel, 1989). Although subordinates tend to prefer autonomy and in fact experience much autonomy working for laissez-faire leader, this style is dissatisfying because subordinates tend to feel unsecured about their own authority, duties and responsibilities (Bass, 1990). Thus, it was reasoned that laissez-faire leaders use low levels of both relations and task behaviors.

Laissez-faire leaders do not seek to engage in subordinate concerns when they use passive and avoidant leadership styles (Bass, 1990). Managers tend to ignore subordinates and do not measure success or offer guidance. Unlike avoidant leaders, passive leaders are willing to help, but only when the subordinates approach or require help by some other external source (Harland,

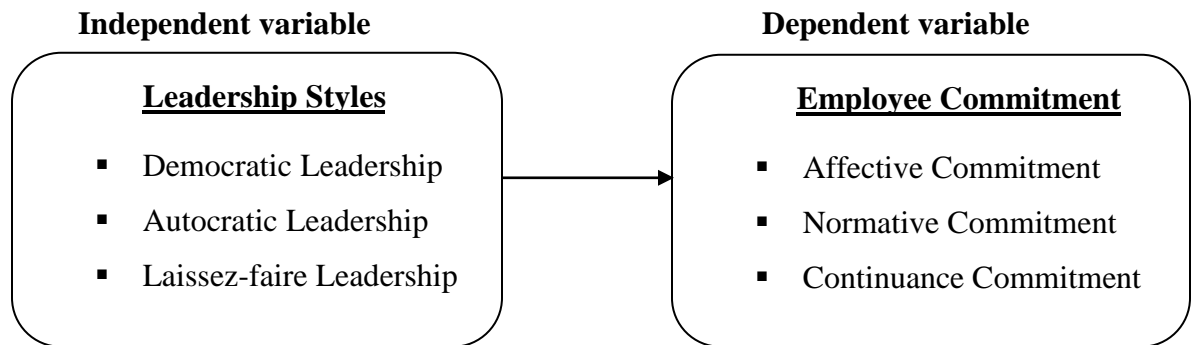
Harrison, Jones, & Reiter-Palmon, 2005). Laissez-faire leaders attempt to remain distant from supervisory actions and do not initiate subordinate interaction unless a situation arises and the leaders are forced to become involved in situations.

Laissez-faire style leadership is also referred to management-by-exception (Bass & Avolio, 1990). This characterizes how leaders monitor negative subordinates' behavior and exert corrective steps only when subordinates failed to meet objectives. Leaders who manage by exception interfere only when standards and procedures for tasks accomplishment are not met.

According to Brown (2003), it states that the leadership behaviors involving avoidance of making decision and delaying response to urgent matters or ignoring problems completely, are negatively thought not very strongly, related to how employees feel about obliged to remain. While based on Cheng (2003), it implies that leader should refrain from existing laissez-faire leadership style, so as enhance the level of commitment of their subordinates. Laissez-faire leadership styles equate to leadership outcomes (Spinelli, 2006). He found followers scored laissez-faire leaders low in outcomes which are willingness to exert extra effort, leader's perceived effectiveness and followers' reported engagement. Chen, Beck, and Amos (2005) found these leadership styles created adverse results and leaders are advised not to use such styles. Beer and Eisenstat (2000) found laissez-faire style tend to lead to employee confusion. The results suggest that leaders who use this leadership will produce weak employee commitment or negative results (Beer & Eisenstat, 2000; Chen et al., 2005). Buciuniene and Skudiene (2008) also found that laissez-faire associated negatively to affective commitment.

Through the study of previous research, the dimension of factors is reformulated in order to best fit into the purpose of this study. Figure 2.3 has displayed the independent variables, leadership styles which are democratic leadership style, autocratic leadership style, and laissez-faire leadership style that used to examine the dependent variable, employee commitment which are affective, normative, and continuance, the primary interest in this study.

Figure 2.3 Model reformulated from past research



2.4 Hypotheses Development

2.4.1 The Relationship between Democratic Leadership Style and Affective Commitment

H1₀: There is no relationship between democratic leadership styles and employee's affective commitment.

H1₁: There is a relationship between democratic leadership styles and employee's affective commitment.

Dunham, Grube, and Castaneda (1994) have examined how democratic management influenced employee levels of affective, normative and continuance commitment in nine studies. The researchers found that employee levels of affective commitment was stronger than the others when supervisors provided feedback about performance and allowed employees to participate in decision making.

Besides, Mottaz's (1988) study investigated that employees who perceived a friendly and supportive relationship with their co-workers and supervisors had a strong, positive commitment to their organizations. Employees are more likely to feel an obligation to return the supportive behavior in terms of affective commitment (Shore & Wayne, 1993).

2.4.2 The Relationship between Democratic Leadership Style and Normative Commitment

H2₀: There is no relationship between democratic leadership styles and employee's normative commitment.

H2₁: There is a relationship between democratic leadership styles and employee's normative commitment.

An examination of the specific leadership behaviors by Simon (1994) revealed that, as a group, the democratic leadership behaviors were positively correlated with normative commitment and affective commitment. Individuals that value loyalty will show greater normative commitment to the work organizations (Scholl, 1981).

2.4.3 The Relationship between Democratic Leadership Style and Continuance Commitment

H3₀: There is no relationship between democratic leadership styles and employee's continuance commitment.

H3₁: There is a relationship between democratic leadership styles and employee's continuance commitment.

Cohen and Kirchmeyer (1995) undertook a research and proposed positive relationships between democratic leadership and both affective and normative commitment but the relationship between continuance commitment and democratic leadership was negative. In practice, employees who were remain with the organization because they felt they need to demonstrate less involvement and dissatisfaction with the work activities.

2.4.4 The Relationship between Autocratic Leadership Style and Affective Commitment

H4₀: There is no relationship between autocratic leadership styles and employee's affective commitment.

H4₁: There is a relationship between autocratic leadership styles and employee's affective commitment.

Organizational commitment is the employees' identification with and involvement in the organization and it is influenced by leadership styles and organizational culture (Allen & Meyer, 1991). Scholars revealed that organizational commitment is strongly influenced by work itself, salary, culture of company, company's leadership and direct behavior of leader. Thus, leadership style has moderate to strongly impact on employee's commitment

(Randeree & Chaudhry, 2012). According to Jackman (1994), employees' commitment and loyalty are found to be the main outcomes of autocratic leadership style.

According to Erben and Guneser (2008), their study results showed that autocratic leadership had a moderate effect on affective commitment of employees. It can be illustrated that the individualized care of the benevolent leader bolsters the identification of the employee with the organization and encourages the employee to bond emotionally as well as employees' assessment about the costs associated with leaving the organization. In this approach, employees would consider the autocratic leader as an affection bond that ties him to the organization.

2.4.5 The Relationship between Autocratic Leadership Style and Normative Commitment

H5₀: There is no relationship between autocratic leadership styles and employee's normative commitment.

H5₁: There is a relationship between autocratic leadership styles and employee's normative commitment.

According to the studies of Hasbullah (2008), the results showed that the employees perceived that there is a need of autocratic style for them to be loyal, which means that employee perceive the needs of having the existence of autocratic leadership behavior to perform their duties in the organizations.

2.4.6 The Relationship between Autocratic Leadership Style and Continuance Commitment

H6₀: There is no relationship between autocratic leadership styles and employee's continuance commitment.

H6₁: There is a relationship between autocratic leadership styles and employee's continuance commitment.

According to the studies of Hasbullah (2008), autocratic leadership style is significant in promoting the commitment of employees especially on the continuance and normative type of commitment. According to Erben & Guneser (2008), autocratic leadership had a strong effect on continuance commitment. It is indicated in the literature that most people who work for autocratic leaders would not leave their organizations for better payment or promotion opportunities. It was also found that experienced employees possessed high continuance commitment as compared to new employees. It is because they find it is better to stay with the organization if there is lack of job transferability, skills and knowledge that the cost will be higher if they leave the organizations (Becker, 1960) and it may disrupt the social relationship that has been built with present organizations and it will increase new cost of making new friends with new working associates (Becker, 1964). However, new employees will decrease their continuance commitment if they found that leaders possess high autocratism (Hasbullah, 2008).

2.4.7 The Relationship between Laissez-Faire Leadership Style and Affective Commitment

H7₀: There is no relationship between laissez-faire leadership styles and employee's affective commitment.

H7₁: There is a relationship between laissez-faire leadership styles and employee's affective commitment.

According to Bučiūnienė and Škudienė (2008), laissez-faire leadership style was found to be significantly and negatively related with employees' affective commitment. Laissez-faire has a negative effect on employee's affective commitment and satisfaction with an immediate supervisor. The behaviors of the leaders with laissez-faire styles are accompanied by little clarity, little sense of group unity and little sense of accomplishment. Besides, followers do not hold as much respect for their supervisors as well (Lok & Crawford, 1999). This existence of significant and negative correlation between laissez-faire leadership style and affective commitment suggests that there is a strong negative effect on the employee's affective commitment. Laissez-faire leadership does not produce positive organizational behavior but only produces negative impacts on followers' respect for their supervisors (Lee, 2005).

2.4.8 The Relationship between Laissez-Faire Leadership Style and Normative Commitment

H8₀: There is no relationship between laissez-faire leadership styles and employee's normative commitment.

H8₁: There is a relationship between laissez-faire leadership styles and employee's normative commitment.

According to Vugt, Jepson, Hart, and Cremer (2004), laissez-faire leader has no control mechanism on group members by giving freedom to employees is perceived as a situation in their favor. Therefore, employees support their supervisor because it creating an opportunity to voice out their original ideas and to provide a suitable working environment. Hence, the significant effect between laissez-faire leadership styles on employee's normative commitment to supervisor was expected would be exists.

According to Garg and Ramjee (2013), they revealed that there is a weak but significant and negative correlation between laissez-faire leadership behavior and normative commitment. They found that the behaviors of laissez-faire leadership style are accompanied by avoid getting involved when important issues arise, avoid making decisions and delay responding to urgent questions. It will negatively affect an employee's emotional attachment to the organization as well as their decision to remain with the organization.

2.4.9 The Impact of Laissez-Faire Leadership Style on Continuance Commitment

H9₀: There is no significant impact of laissez-faire leadership styles on employee's continuance commitment.

H9₁: There is a significant impact of laissez-faire leadership styles on employee's continuance commitment.

Employees with a strong continuance commitment will stay with the organization because desirable personal outcomes and benefits that they are unwilling to sacrifice are provided. Alqudah (2011) claimed that a weak but significant correlation exists between laissez-faire leadership and continuance

commitment. According to Garg and Ramjee (2013), they reveal that the laissez-faire leadership behavior has a negative relationship with continuance commitment. This emphasizes that leadership behavior which avoiding getting involved when problems occur will impact affective commitment negatively. This also explains why some of the employees feel about not wanting to stay with the organization.

2.5 Conclusion

Reviewing studies by other researchers has help to provide better understanding of the research background and further knowledge on the variables that will be engaged in this research. Meanwhile, the research framework had completely illustrated the correlation of each variable while hypotheses were developed through the study and assumptions made from other researchers' findings and reviews. The relationships between dependent and independent variables will further be examined in the following sections.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

Research methodology is a way to find out the result of a given research problem. Research methodology is the procedures by which researchers go about their work of describing, explaining and predicting phenomena. It is also defined as the study of methods by which knowledge is gained.

After we had identified the research problem, research objectives and hypotheses, and reviewed the published and unpublished information, we are going to discuss about the research methodology in this chapter. Methodology serves as a guideline and to be carried out in this research project to answer the research questions. This chapter will present the research design, data collection method, sampling design, operational definition of constructs, measurement scales and methods of data analysis.

3.1 Research Design

To determine whether the research is a qualitative or a quantitative research, we have to understand the differences between them. Qualitative research is primarily subjective in approach as it seeks to understand human behavior and reasons that govern such behavior. In quantitative research, it is objective in approach in the sense that it only seeks precise measurements and analysis of target concepts to answer the inquiry. Therefore, we can conclude that our research on the relationship between leadership styles and employee commitment in retail industry is a quantitative research, because we quantify data and generalize results from a sample to the

population of interest by distributing structured questionnaires to a large number of respondents.

Other than that, we can classify research on the basis of its purpose, which includes exploratory research, descriptive research and causal research. Our research on the impact of leadership styles on employee commitment in retail industry can be classified as the causal research, since causal research explores the effect of one thing on another and more specifically, the effect of one variable on another. In addition, causal research is used to measure what impact a specific change will have on existing norms and allows market researchers to predict hypothetical scenarios upon which a company can base its business plan. In this context, our research studies how leadership styles of supervisor can affect employee commitment in retail industry.

3.2 Data Collection Methods

Data collection is an important aspect of any type of research study. Inaccurate data collection can influence the results of a research and ultimately lead to invalid results. One must interpret the data into meaningful information in order to get information from the data. There are various methods of interpreting data. Data sources are broadly classified into primary and secondary data. Primary data is the data observed or collected directly from first-hand experience while secondary data is the published data and the data collected in the past or other parties.

3.2.1 Primary Data

The primary data we have referred to in conduct our research is questionnaire. Questionnaires are an efficient data collection mechanism when the researcher

knows exactly what is required and how to measure the variables of interest. Hence, this method is chosen by researchers to collect primary data from a huge pool of respondents through the quantitative research method.

3.2.2 Secondary Data

The secondary data we have referred to in doing our research are the main text book and various online journal articles. The main text book provides us a clear guideline in conducting our research project. Besides that, we had read through different journal articles that are related to the research topic and information from website to get the relevant support so that all the information collected will not out of the topics. We also access to the online databases that are available on the online library portal of Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman to get relevant journal articles. Online databases are more time and cost efficient as we can access at anytime and anywhere conveniently.

3.3 Sampling Design

The sampling process is important because as Wimmer and Dominick (2003) described, a sample is a “subset of the population that is representative of the entire population.” Therefore, if the sample is selected correctly and the process is conducted appropriately, the sample will be able to represent the entire population. According to Gliner and Morgan (2000), using samples in research is more cost and time efficient because researchers could avoid interviews or observations that are expensive and take lesser time to study the participants compared to using the whole population.

3.3.1 Target Population

Population or target population is “the entire group of people, events or things of interest that the researcher wishes to investigate” (Cavana, Delahaye, & Sekaran, 2001, p. 252). This research aimed to examine the relationship between the leadership styles and the employee commitment in the retail industry of Malaysia. Therefore, the targeted population of this research is all Malaysians who are currently working as an employee in retail industry in Malaysia. Based on the data provided by Department of Statistics Malaysia, the total employed population (as at 29 January 2013) in the retail industry is approximately 1,999,500 (“Key Data – Malaysia,” 2013, www.statistics.gov.my). Looking at the large pool of possible participants, this research will narrow down to target population whom are currently located in Johor, Penang and Perak only. This is to reduce the time and cost involve for the research, and at the meanwhile, increase the credibility of data collected.

3.3.2 Sampling Frame and Sampling Location

Sampling frame, also referred as population frame, is a listing of participants who meet the criterion and are accessible by researcher through various resources such as telephone or membership directory, university registration listing, and others (Cavana et al., 2001; Gliner & Morgan, 2000). However, sampling frame may not be applicable in this research because non probability sampling method will be applied for samples selection. For the sampling location, target population from Johor, Penang and Perak will be conveniently chosen as samples for the research.

3.3.3 Sampling Elements

Sampling element is explained as a single member of the population (Cavana et al., 2001). In other words, each individual from the targeted population is considered as an element. However, in this research, the sampling element is relatively wide because the population that are relevant to the study comprised of working individuals who are currently working in retail industry, from all age group, gender, education background, and industry. The sampling element of this research could be from any demographic profile as long as they are working as an employee in retail industry.

3.3.4 Sampling Techniques

As mentioned, non-probability sampling method will be used in this research to conduct the samples selection because of the limited time and cost. Moreover, due to the unavailability of sampling frame, the research samples will be conveniently chosen. The samples will be chosen regardless of their age, gender, education background, job title and position, and other criteria in order to avoid bias responses.

Basically, our members were assigned to different states for the questionnaire distributing, which are Johor state, Penang state and Perak state. Our sampling size is 385 respondents, but to avoid some inaccurate responses or incomplete responses, we decided to have 400 sets of questionnaire to be distributed. A total of 400 questionnaires were distributed to 5 of our members, which is each member need to in charge of 80 sets of questionnaire. Two members were assigned to Perak state, and another two members to Johor state while another member to Penang state. Our members were assigned to visit the retail

stores, such as Tesco, Guardian, Giant hypermarket, Jusco, Watsons and others, in order to distribute the questionnaires to the employees who are working in the respective retail store after receiving the approval from the retail store supervisors. Because of the convenience sampling technique we had chosen, the questionnaire were given out to any workers who are working in the retail store.

Nevertheless, there were critics on how close non probability sample is to represent the population (Adams, Khan, Raeside, & White, 2007) because the participants were not selected through proper and systematic procedure. Yet, Wimmer and Dominick (2003) believed that convenient sampling could still help in collecting exploratory information and useful data.

3.3.5 Sampling Size

According to the data provided by Department of Statistics Malaysia, the total employed population (as at 29 January 2013) in the retail industry is approximately 1,999,500 (“Key Data – Malaysia,” 2013). To calculate the sampling size of our study, we used the Table for Determining Random Sample Size from a Given Population (Table 3.1) (Payne & McMorris, 1967). With a 1,999,500 population size, a $\pm 5\%$ margin of error and a 95% of confidence level, we get a sampling size of 384 respondents. Therefore, for this research, a sampling size of 384 respondents is to be taken into this study to represent the all population of retail industry in Malaysia.

Table 3.1: Table for Determining Random Sample Size from a Given Population

Population	Sample Size
10,000	370
15,000	375
20,000	377
30,000	379
40,000	380
50,000	381
75,000	382
100,000	384
2,000,000	384

(Confidence level 95%; Margin of error $\pm 5\%$)

Source: Payne, D.A., & McMorris, F. (1967). *Educational and Psychological Measurement* (pp. 419). Waltham, Mass., & Blaisdell Pub. Co.

3.4 Research Instrument

Research instrument is a kind of measuring instrument use for our research. The research instrument that used by our group is questionnaire. According to Zikmund, Babin, Carr, and Griffin (2010) questionnaire is defined as a technique for collecting data in which it requires the respondents to answer the same set of questions in a predetermined order. Comparing to other research instruments such as interview and observation, we believed that questionnaire is the most appropriate technique to collect the data. The purpose of using questionnaire is because we able to get the

direct response and feedback from the respondents in short period of time with low cost effectiveness. Besides, questionnaire can help us to easily analyze the collected data (Zakaria, 2007). According to Field (2003) questionnaire is more helpful to make judgment and comparison than interview because interview is time-consuming and very difficult to compare the results. Similarly, the result from the interview is easily affected by the analyzer's subjectivity (Harris & Brown, 2010).

According to Demirdjian (2006), observation is known as a systematic approach to mark down the behavioral patterns of people and objects as they arise. The significant problem of using observation to collect data is that we are incapable to justify what kinds of leadership styles that give the impact to employee's commitment. Hence, interview and observation have been excluded in our research and we applied questionnaire as it is a good measuring instrument.

3.4.1 Questionnaire Design

Our research questionnaire used fixed-alternative questions whereby the questions are provided with multiple or limited choices to answer for our respondents. Fixed-alternative questions also referred to as closed-ended questions. Besides, fixed-alternative questions limit the possible answers in order to avoid bias that introduced by respondents. It requires less interviewer's skill, less time consuming and easier for the respondents to answer as well as provides comparability of answers. In essence, there are two different types of fixed-alternatives questions that were used in our research. The first one is simple-dichotomy question and another one is determinant-choice question. Simple-dichotomy question requires respondents to choose one out of two alternatives while determinant-choice question requires respondents to choose one of several alternatives.

The cover letter is attached together with the research questionnaire. It is used to describe the purpose and title of our research as well as disclose the background of members. Therefore, it serve as a guidelines for respondents to know that all their answers were going to kept confidential and used for the research purpose only.

A total of 400 sets of questionnaires were distributed to respondents. The questionnaires were distributed to nearer distance locations by researchers personally in the areas of Penang, Perak, and Johor. The researchers personally distribute questionnaires is made the respondents more understand to the questions. The content questionnaire consist of 46 questions and assigned into three sections which include Section A, B and C.

The first part of questionnaire is Section A and this section contains 7 questions. This section is designed to collect the demographic information from the respondents. Respondents are required to specify their personal details such as gender, age and marital status.

The second part of questionnaire is Section B. It is designed to measure the independent variables of the research. The independent variable is leadership styles which include autocratic leadership styles, democratic leadership styles and laissez-faire leadership styles. Each leadership style has 8 questions which are asking respondents about the characteristics of the leadership styles of their leaders. In this part, the five-point likert scale was used as the measurement instrument.

The last part of questionnaire is Section C which is designed to measure the dependent variable. The dependent variable of the research is employee

commitment which includes affective commitment, normative commitment and continuance commitment. Each commitment has 5 questions which are asking respondents about their commitment towards the organization caused by the leadership style of their leaders. The five-point likert scale was also used in this section.

Basically, we spent about 4 days for the questionnaire design, including looking for the journals made by past researchers, constructing the questionnaire, arranging the questions and also translating the questions into Malay language. The reason we set both English and Malay language for the questionnaire is to prevent respondents from misunderstanding the questions and also to provide respondents a more convenient and faster answering. Because of the Malay translation, our questionnaires contains of 11 pages.

3.4.2 Sources of Questions in Questionnaires

Generally, there are a total of 46 questions set in our questionnaires to measure the responses of employees in retail industry towards the leadership styles and their commitment toward organization. The questionnaires covered all the dimensions of the variables, including the three types of leadership styles (democratic leadership, autocratic leadership and laissez-faire leadership) and also three types of employee commitment (affective commitment, normative commitment and continuance commitment). In order to make sure that the dimensions of the variables are fairly and appropriately measured, a few sets of questionnaires done by the past researchers were adopted in our questionnaire design.

In section B, question 1 to 8 and question 9 to 16, which are used to measure the characteristics of a democratic leadership style were adopted from Gordon (1998). Whereas to measure the characteristics of laissez-faire leadership style, we adopted from Al-Khasawneh and Futa (2013) and set questions 17 to 20 by referring to their work. For question 21 to 24, we adopted Nyengane (2007)'s questionnaire as a reference to measure the laissez-faire leadership style.

In section C, question 1 to 5, which is measuring the affective commitment of the employees, were adopted from Rhoades, Eisenberger and Armeli (2001). For the question 6 to 10 and question 11 to 15, which are used to measure the degree of normative commitment and continuance commitment of the retail employees were adopted from the work of Allen and Meyer (1990). All the questions on the questionnaires were expected to be able to measure all the variables precisely and completely.

3.4.3 Pilot Test

Before we carry out the actual survey, we use pilot test to test our designed questionnaire. According to Gay, Mills, and Airasian (2006) pilot test is to be considered as “a dress rehearsal” in which a small-scale trial of the study is carried on prior to the full-scale study. The purpose of this test is to test the clarity of the question and the degree of respondents' understanding. It also used to the check the consistency and reliability of the questionnaire.

We have gathered the comment of respondents about the questionnaire through face-to-face interview. This approach would enable us to know that whether the questionnaire is carried out with not too complexity. After

collecting the questionnaires, data and information obtained from respondents is important for identifying the potential problem or error that occurred in the questionnaire. In our case, we had successfully found some errors after the pilot test is run. For examples, some of the respondents respond that there was some spelling errors found in the questionnaire. They also respond that there are too many questions to be answered and some of the questions were too long and may lead to misunderstanding. Therefore, we modified our questionnaire according to the feedback given by the respondents. For examples, we deleted 7 questions from the questionnaire which is originally contained of 53 questions.

Then, the obtained data from the pilot test will be tested by using SAS program. The SAS program is crucial tools for us to examine the reliability and the validity of questionnaire before actual study being conducted. The pilot test had been completed in 1 week before we proceed to the distribution of questionnaire to the real sample size. The result of reliability test for the pilot test is shown in Table 3.2. The reliability of all the data in this study will be tested using the rule of thumb of Cronbach's Alpha.

Table 3.2: Results of Reliability Test for Pilot Test

Test Variables	Cronbach's Alpha
Democratic Leadership Style	0.812
Autocratic Leadership Style	0.792
Laissez-Faire Leadership Style	0.750
Affective Commitment	0.796
Normative Commitment	0.706
Continuance Commitment	0.719

Source: Developed for the research

3.5 Research Fieldwork

At the end of September, our group members were assembled to discuss on the design of questionnaire. After a few days of discussion, the first model of questionnaire which contains of 53 questionnaires was designed. Because of our members are having their industrial training program from 1st of October to 31st December 2013, thus we decided that the pilot test of the questionnaire will be held during the internship period. A total of 35 questionnaires were assigned to 5 of our members who are staying in 3 different states, including Perak, Johor and Penang. Each member was assigned to distribute 7 questionnaires to the respondents and obtain the feedback of the questionnaire from them. One week later, the member in charge of collecting the data of pilot test, was able to get the total of 35 responses from our members. We were able to found some errors in the questionnaire after obtaining the feedback. For examples, some of the respondents respond that are too many questions to be answered and some of the questions were too long and may lead to misunderstanding. Therefore, we modified our questionnaire according to the feedback given by the respondents. For examples, we deleted 7 questions from the questionnaire which is originally contained of 53 questions. Besides that, we also run the reliability test for the pilot test and the reliability results were quite satisfying, which means that the questionnaire has a high consistency and reliability.

On the beginning of the December, we started the distribution of the questionnaires. Our sample size of respondents is 384 respondents who are working in the retail industry. For the sampling location, target population from Johor, Penang and Perak were chosen as samples for the research due to convenience. To avoid some inaccurate responses or incomplete responses, we decided to distribute 400 questionnaires, in which each member will be assigned with 80 questionnaires. Two

of our members were assigned to Perak state, and another two members went to Johor state while another member was assigned to Penang state. Our members were assigned to visit the retail stores, such as Tesco, Guardian, Giant hypermarket, Jusco, Watsons and others, in order to distribute the questionnaires to the employees who are working in the respective retail store after receiving the approval from the retail store supervisors. However, there are some of the supervisors who are not allowed us to have the survey with their employees during the working time. Thus, we need to have the survey with the employees during lunch time. Some of the supervisors were willing to help us to distribute the questionnaires to their employees, so we passed the questionnaires to the supervisor and managed to collect back the questionnaires from the supervisors after one week.

On the beginning of January, all of our members were finished their industrial training and get back to Kampar. All questionnaires were collected back from the members and we managed to collect back a total of 396 questionnaires from the respondents. However, there are 8 incomplete questionnaires in which some of the questions were not answered by the respondents. Thus, these 8 questionnaires were disposed to avoid inaccuracy. Because our sampling size is 384, so we decided to choose 384 questionnaires which have a better consistency and reliability of response.

The data of the survey were collected and processed on the beginning of February by using the SAS version 9.3. The results of the research data will be discussed in the following chapter, Chapter 4.

3.6 Constructs Measurement

Our research questionnaire divided into three sections. Section A is used to collect the demographic information from our respondents, Section B is used to measure the

independent variables and Section C is used to measure the dependent variables. There are some of the scales types that can be used to design the questionnaire such as interval scale, nominal scale, ratio scale, ordinal scale, and likert scale. In our questionnaire, we used likert scale, nominal scale and ordinal scale.

3.6.1 Likert Scale

In Section B and C, the questions are designed for the measurement of the three independent variables and three dependent variables. These variables include leadership styles, such as autocratic leadership styles, democratic leadership styles, laissez-faire leadership styles and employee commitment, such as affective commitment, normative commitment and continuance commitment. We used a five-point likert scale to obtain the respondent's opinion based on attitude measurement. These 2 sections contains of 39 questions, which are designed by using this type of scale to determine respondent opinion on the constructed statement.

Strongly Disagree	1
Disagree	2
Neutral	3
Agree	4
Strongly Agree	5

In section B, the 1st question to 8th are related to the democratic leadership style, 9th to 17th question are the questions for the autocratic leadership style,

and 18th question to 24th question are related to the laissez-faire leadership style. In section C, the 1st question to 5th are related to the employee's affective commitment, while 6th to 10th are related to the employee's normative commitment, and 11th question until 15st question are related to employee's continuance commitment.

3.6.2 Nominal Scale

Nominal scale defined as the simplest type of construction measurement in which the numbers or letters are allocated to object represent as labels for identification purpose. The categories are mutually exclusive of all possibilities. There are total of 7 questions in Section A in which some of the questions are formed in nominal scale and ordinal scale. There are 4 questions which were designed by using nominal scale, including question 1, 3, 4 and 5. One of the examples using nominal scale is shown below:

Gender:

Male

Female

3.6.3 Ordinal Scale

Ordinal scale is a measurement type for which the relative values of data are defined solely in terms of being lesser or greater as compared with other data on the ordinal scale. These may arise from categorical rating scales, or from converting interval scale data to become ranked data (Marsh, 1996). There are

2 questions in Section A are using ordinal scale, which are question 2 and 6.
For examples:

Age:

- Below 25 years old
- 26 - 35 years old
- 36 - 45 years old
- Above 45 years old

3.7 Conclusion

As a conclusion, the general research methodology of our research was discussed in this chapter. It includes the research design, data collection methods, sampling design, operational definitions of constructs, measurement scales and methods of data analysis. In the following chapter, the research result and analysis of the result which are related to the research question and hypotheses will be discussed.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH RESULTS

4.0 Introduction

Chapter 4 provides the linkage to chapter 3 and this chapter is going to discuss and describe the methods of analysis, measurement scales and inferential analysis to have a better picture on how the research is going to be conducted.

4.1 Data Processing

Data processing is necessary before the gathered data are being analyzed. This is to check through and filter any invalid or incomplete data that will affect the outcome of the data analysis.

4.1.1 Checking and Editing Data

Before the data entry into the SAS software for analytical purposes, we checked for the response of the questionnaires. Originally, there were 400 questionnaires been distributed to the respondents, however, we only managed to collect back 396 questionnaires from the respondents. Besides, we found that there are 8 sets of questionnaires were incomplete in which over 25% of the questions were left a blank. Therefore, the 8 questionnaires were forgone in order to increase the reliability and consistency of the response.

We also found several omissions by some respondents in which they left a blank for 2 or 3 questions in the questionnaire. If there are less than 25% questions that are not filling in by the respondents, we ignore the blank response by the respondents and also help the respondents fill up the blank column based on the respondent's pattern of responses to other question. Besides that, we also found that there were some inconsistent and illogical responses in the questionnaires. Thus, we also edited their responses by following the respondents' pattern of answering.

After the data checking and editing, we chose 384 out of 396 responses for the data analytical purposes. According to Table 3.1, 384 respondents are able to represent the entire population of 1,999,500 with the precision level of $\pm 5\%$ with a 95% of confidence level.

4.1.2 Data Coding

The following step is coding which done by adding value based on the responses of the questionnaires. Researchers will assign every question with a code number to represent the responses as well. Numerical coding will be inserted into the Statistical Analysis System (SAS) Version 9.3 software that is used for data analysis.

Question No.	Label	Coding
<u>Section A</u>		
PD1	Gender	1= Male 2= Female
PD2	Age Group	1= Below 25 2= 25 -29

		3= 30 - 34 4= 35 and above
PD3	Race	1= Malay 2= Chinese 3= Indian 4= Others
PD4	Nationality	1= Malaysian 2= Non- Malaysian
PD5	Status	1= Single 2= Married 3= Others
PD6	How long have you work for the organization?	1 = Below 3 2= 3-8 3= Above 9
<u>Section B</u>		
Demo1-8	Democratic Leadership	1= Strongly Disagree 2= Disagree 3= Neutral 4= Agree 5= Strongly Agree
Auto1-8	Autocratic Leadership	1= Strongly Disagree 2= Disagree 3= Neutral 4= Agree 5= Strongly Agree
LF1-8	Laissez-Faire Leadership	1= Strongly Disagree 2= Disagree 3= Neutral 4= Agree

		5= Strongly Agree
Section C		
AC1-5	Affective Commitment	1= Strongly Disagree 2= Disagree 3= Neutral 4= Agree 5= Strongly Agree
NC1-5	Normative Commitment	1= Strongly Disagree 2= Disagree 3= Neutral 4= Agree 5= Strongly Agree
CC1-5	Continuance Commitment	1= Strongly Disagree 2= Disagree 3= Neutral 4= Agree 5= Strongly Agree

Section A shows employees' personal information whereas section B and C shows the coding of each item in both of the leadership styles and employee commitment.

4.1.3 Data Entry

After the data coding, we keyed in 384 completed responses into the SAS software version 9.3 for data analysis. We keyed in the data according to the rules of data coding stated in Chapter 4.1.2. After the data entry, we re-checked the data entered in order to ensure that the data has been entered

correctly.

4.2 Re-checking the Reliability

To ensure the reliability and the consistency of the data for the study, reliability test was carried out on the data received from the 384 responses. The results are as follows (Table 4.1):

Table 4.1: Table of Reliability Test Results

Variables	Cronbach's Alpha	
	Pilot Test	Reliability Test
Democratic Leadership	0.812	0.895
Autocratic Leadership	0.792	0.894
Laissez-Faire Leadership	0.750	0.856
Affective Commitment	0.796	0.860
Normative Commitment	0.706	0.843
Continuance Commitment	0.719	0.752

Source: Developed for the research

As shown in Table 4.9, we found that the reliability results for the reliable test are slightly increased compared to the results from the pilot test. All the alphas fall between 0.7 and 0.9, which means the reliability results are acceptable for the research. Thus, all the measuring items in the questionnaire are reliable and consistent in measuring the responses from the respondents.

4.3 Descriptive Analysis

Descriptive analysis is a set of procedures for gathering, measuring, classifying, computing, describing, synthesizing, analysing and interpreting systematically acquired quantitative data. This basic analysis will be carried out on the data gathered from section one of the questionnaire, which focused on the respondents' demographic profile. These data are more of self-explanatory data; therefore, the analysis outcome is to provide a summary of the respondents' profile. For section one, the analysis will be done on frequency and percentage distribution. Pie charts with percentage distribution are created for each question to show the segmentation of respondents in terms of gender, age, race, nationality, status, how long have they work for the organization and the state of the employees who are working in the retail industry.

4.3.1 Respondent Demographic Profile

Figure 4.1: Respondents' Gender

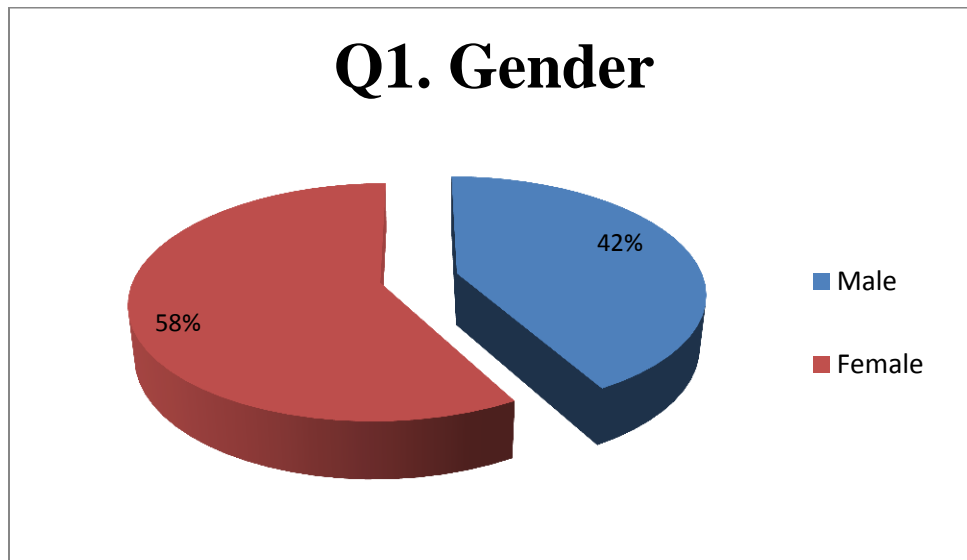


Table 4.2: Table of Respondents' Gender

	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid Male	161	42	42	42
Female	223	58	58	100
Total	384	100	100	

Source: Developed for the research

There are a total of 384 respondents participated in our research study. As shown in Figure 4.1, majority, which is 58% of our respondents are female while 42% of the respondents are male. According to Table 4.2, there are a total of 161 male respondents took part in our survey and 223 female respondents participated in our research.

Figure 4.2: Respondents' Age

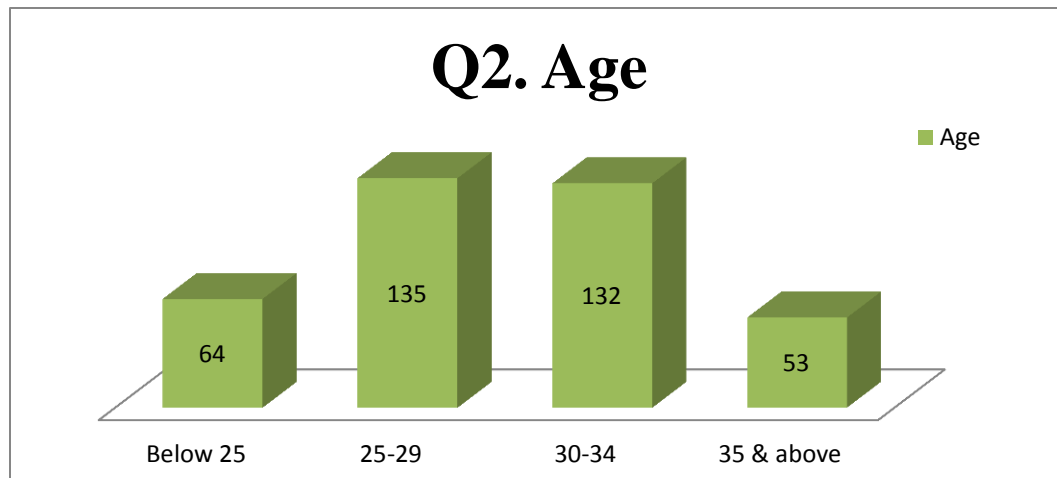


Table 4.3: Table of Respondents 'Age

	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid Below 25	64	16.66	16.66	16.66
25-29	135	35.16	35.16	51.82
30-34	132	34.38	34.38	86.20
35 and above	53	13.80	13.80	100.00
Total	384	100.00	100.00	

Source: Developed for the research

As shown in Figure 4.2, majority (35.16%) of our respondents, which are 135 respondents are aged between 25 to 29 years old. Whereas the respondents who are aged between 30 to 34 years old are the second most age group we are taking for this research, which is 34.38% (132 respondents). While the respondents' age which falls under below 25 accounted for 16.66% (64 respondents). The respondents who are aged 35 and above years old is the least age group of our respondents which is 13.80% (53 respondents).

Figure 4.3: Respondents' Race

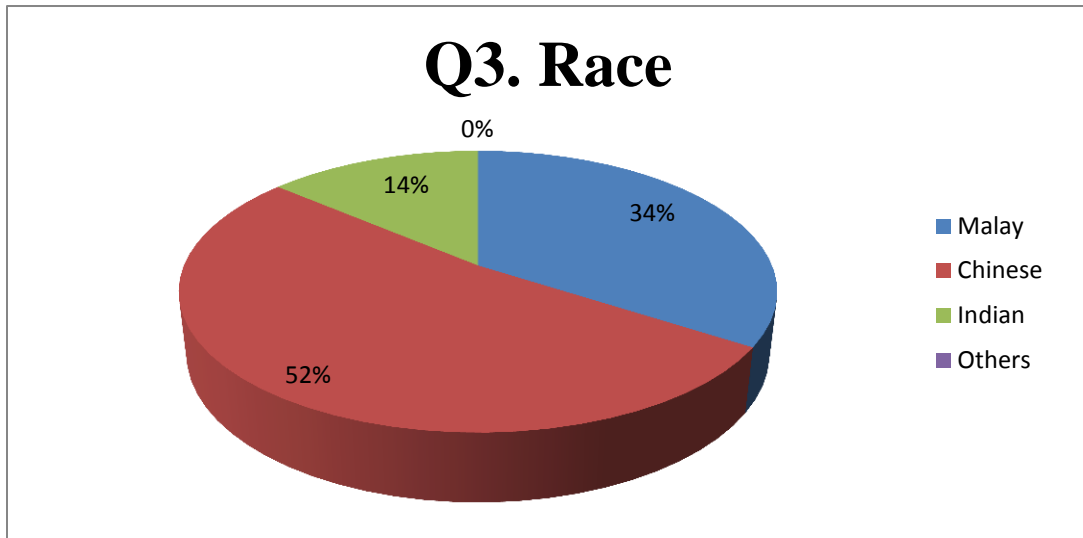


Table 4.4: Table of Respondents 'Race

	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid Malay	131	34	34	34
Chinese	200	52	52	86
Indian	53	14	14	100
Others	0	0	0	100
Total	384	100	100	

Source: Developed for the research

Figure 4.3 shows that the Chinese respondents have the highest proportion which have a 52% (200 respondents) among the respondents, followed by Malay respondents which has a total of 131 respondents (34%). The lowest population involved in the survey was the Indian respondents, which has 14% (53 respondents) out of the 384 respondents. Additionally, there was no other races (0%) participated in our survey.

Figure 4.4: Respondents' Nationality

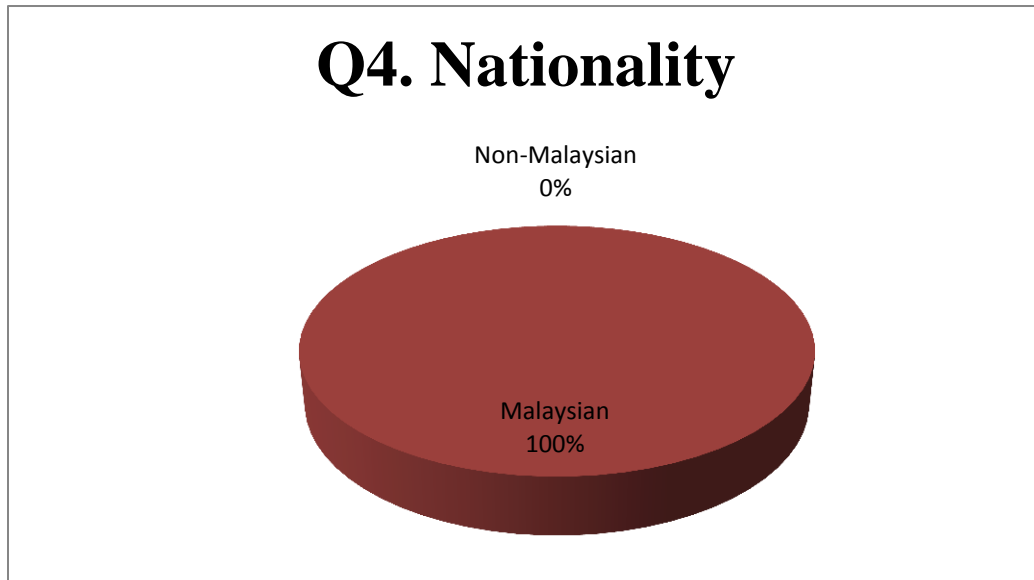


Table 4.5: Table of Respondents' Nationality

	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid Malaysian	384	100	100	100
Non-Malaysian	0	0	0	100
Total	384	100	100	

Source: Developed for the research

Table 4.5 and Figure 4.4 show that 100% of our respondents are Malaysian, which is a total of 384 Malaysian respondents involved.

Figure 4.5: Respondents' Marital Status

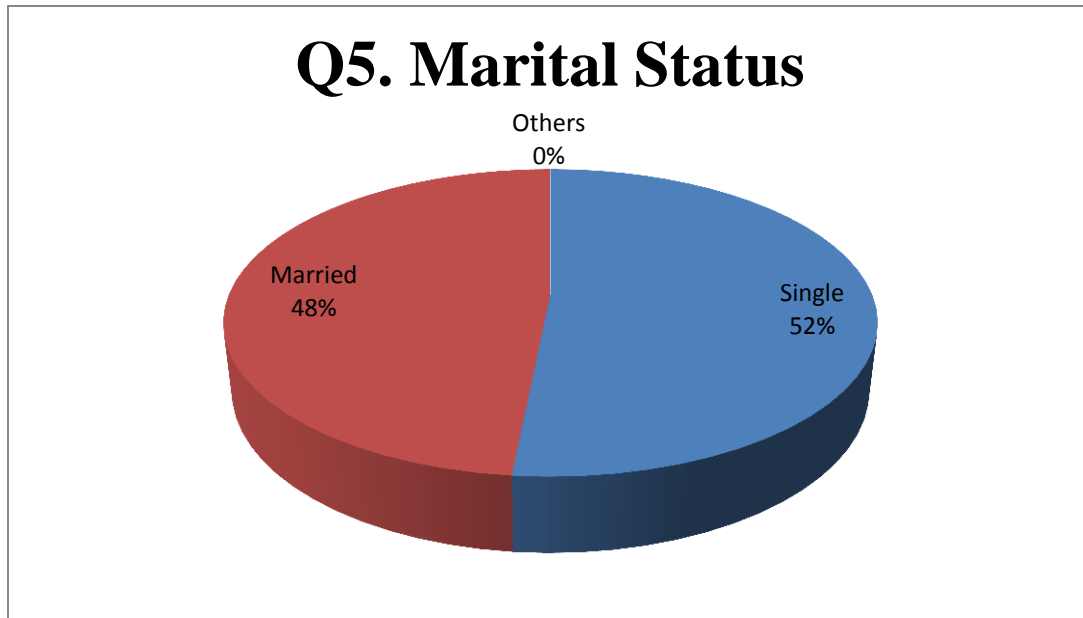


Table 4.6: Table of Respondents' Marital Status

	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid Single	198	52	52	52
Married	186	48	48	100
Total	384	100	100	

Source: Developed for the research

Table 4.6 shows that the frequency of the marital status of our respondents. There are 198 respondents (52%) are single while 186 respondents (48%) are married.

Figure 4.6: Respondents' Years of Working in Organization

Q6. Years of Working in Organization

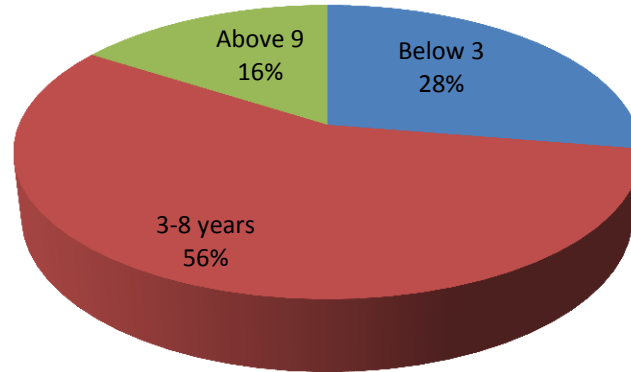


Table 4.7: Table of Respondents' Years of Working in Organization

	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid Below 3	106	28	28	28
3-8	217	56	56	84
9 and above	61	16	16	100
Total	384	100	100	

Source: Developed for the research

Figure 4.6 shows the respondents' years of working in their organization. The majority of the respondents have been working in the organization for 3 to 8 years, which is a total of 56% or 217 respondents. There are 28% of our respondents, which is a total of 106 respondents, have been working with the

organization for below 3 years. There are 61 respondents, which is 16% of our respondents, have been working in the organization for more than 9 years.

Figure 4.7: Respondents' State

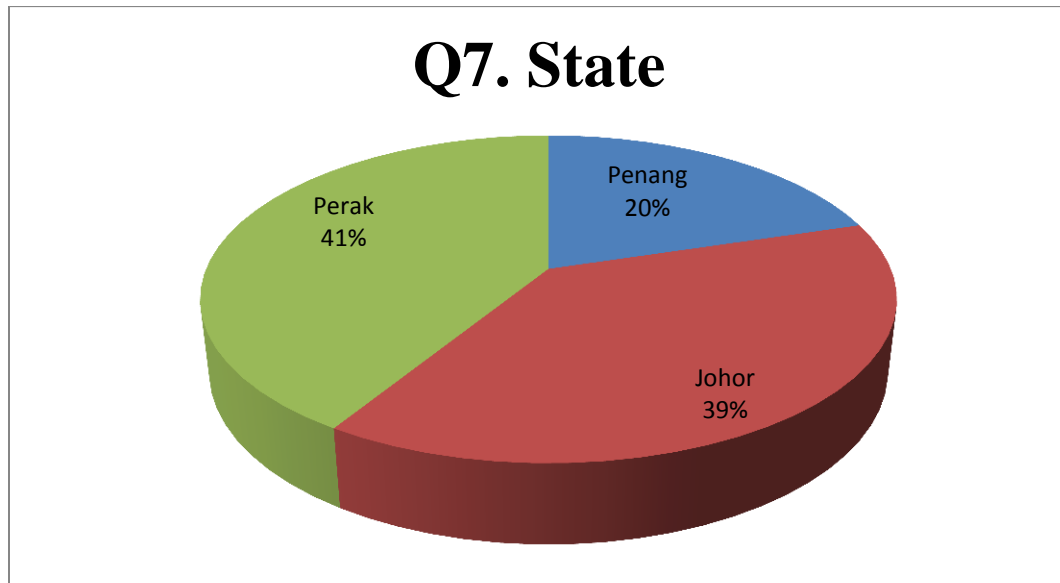


Table 4.8: Table of Respondents' State

	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid Perak	158	41	41	41
Johor	148	39	39	80
Penang	78	20	20	100
Total	100	100	100	

Source: Developed for the research

Table 4.8 shows that the frequency of respondents from different states who participated in the questionnaires. Up to 41% (158) of the respondents were from Perak while 39% (148) of the respondents were from Johor. 20% of the

respondents were from Penang which has a total of 78 respondents for our survey.

4.3.2 Central Tendencies Measurement of Constructs

Table 4.9: Descriptive Statistics Table

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
Democratic Leadership Style	384	1.0	5.0	3.18	0.20
Autocratic Leadership Style	384	1.0	5.0	2.06	0.04
Laissez-faire Leadership Style	384	1.0	5.0	2.84	0.21
Affective Commitment	384	1.0	5.0	3.22	0.18
Normative Commitment	384	2.2	5.0	3.83	0.24
Continuance Commitment	384	2.4	4.8	3.74	0.19

Source: Developed for the research

Based on Table 4.9 above, democratic leadership style has the highest mean score of 3.18, which is the highest among the leadership styles. This result indicates that most respondents perceived their leaders as democratic leaders. The second most popular leadership style perceived by the respondents is laissez-faire leadership style which has a mean score of 2.84. Lastly, the least popular leadership style perceived by the respondents is autocratic leadership style which has the lowest mean score of 2.06. From the data collected, most respondents from retail industry perceived their leaders to have democratic leadership style.

For employee commitment, most of the respondents have normative commitment towards their organization. Normative commitment has the highest mean of 3.84 among the three commitments which means that

employees feel that they have a moral obligation toward their organization. Whereas, the second highest commitment respondents have towards their organizations is the continuance commitment. The continuance commitment has a mean score of 3.74 which indicates that employees in the retail industry would consider the costs of leaving and staying in the organization. Most respondents have less affective commitment towards their organization which only carried a mean score of 3.22. This indicates that employees are probably have a lesser emotional attachment towards their organization, comparing with the normative commitment and continuance commitment.

4.4 Inferential Analysis

4.4.1 Pearson Correlation Analysis

Pearson's correlation analysis is performed as the initial process in inferential analysis. The Pearson correlation coefficient is used to measure the degree of relationship between two variables. In the research, all the variables are measured by the likert scale. As stated by Lind, Marchal, and Wathen (2008), any correlation coefficient that is within -1.00 or +1.00 indicates a perfect correlation between the variables. Therefore, variables that are found with Pearson r value that is closer to -1.00 or +1.00 will be identified as perfectly related. Nevertheless, the significance of relationship between variables is also determined by the significance level with p-value, which is less than .05, an indication that most researches used.

Table 4.10: Correlations between Leadership Styles and Employee
Commitment

	Demo	Auto	LF	AC	NC	CC
Demo Sig. (2-tailed)	1.000			0.34 0.000	0.45 0.000	0.59 0.000
Auto Sig.(2-tailed)		1.000		-0.44 0.000	-0.19 0.0002	0.21 0.000
LF Sig. (2-tailed)			1.000	0.42 0.000	0.80 0.000	0.63 0.000

*Correlations are significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

*N=384

Abbreviation:

Demo: Democratic Leadership

AC: Affective Commitment

Auto: Autocratic Leadership

NC: Normative Commitment

LF: Laissez-Faire Leadership

CC: Continuance Commitment

Source: Developed for the research

In our research, Pearson Correlation Coefficient was used to test H1, H2, H3, H4, H5, H6, H7, H8 and H9. Pearson Correlation Coefficient indicates the direction, strength and significance of the bivariate relationships between the variables that were measured at an interval or ratio level (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010).

Table 4.10 shows the results of the Pearson correlation coefficients of this study. They show the direction, strength and significance of the relationships between the variables, which are the democratic leadership, autocratic leadership and laissez-faire leadership and affective commitment, normative commitment and continuance commitment.

According to Hair, Money, Samouel (2007), the intensity of strengths between the variables can be categorized as shown in Table 4.11:

Table 4.11: Intensity of Strength in Pearson Correlation Coefficient

Coefficient Range	Strength
±0.91 to ±1.00	Very Strong
±0.71 to ±0.90	High
±0.41 to ±0.70	Moderate
±0.21 to ±0.40	Small but definite relationship
0.00 to ±0.20	Slight, almost negligible

Source: Hair, J. F., Money, A. H., Samouel, P., & Page, M. (2007). *Research methods for business*. Chichester, West Sussex: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Hypothesis Testing 1

H1₀: There is no relationship between democratic leadership styles and employee's affective commitment.

H1₁: There is a relationship between democratic leadership styles and employee's affective commitment.

Table 4.12: Correlation between Democratic Leadership and Affective Commitment

		Demo	AC
Demo	Pearson Correlation	1.00	0.34
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000
AC	Pearson Correlation	0.34	1.00
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

*N=384

Source: Developed for the research

From the results shown in Table 4.12, democratic leadership has $r = 0.34$ correlation with the affective commitment of employees, thus there is a positive correlation between the two variables. This means that if a leader practices democratic leadership style, the leader is believed to get a positive affective commitment from the followers.

The correlation coefficient $r = 0.34$ is categorized as the small but definite relationship which is ranged from ± 0.21 to ± 0.40 in Table 4.11. As shown in Table 4.12, the p-value of democratic is 0.0001 which is less than the alpha value 0.05. Therefore, H_{11} is accepted and there is a significant positive relationship between democratic leadership style and affective commitment.

Hypothesis Testing 2

H₂₀: There is no relationship between democratic leadership styles and employee's normative commitment.

H₂₁: There is a relationship between democratic leadership styles and employee's normative commitment.

Table 4.13: Correlation between Democratic Leadership and Normative Commitment

		Demo	NC
Demo	Pearson Correlation	1.00	0.45
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000
NC	Pearson Correlation	0.45	1.00
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

*N=384

Source: Developed for the research

From the results shown in Table 4.13, democratic leadership has $r = 0.45$ correlation with the normative commitment of employees, thus there is a positive correlation between the two variables. This means that if a leader practices democratic leadership style, the leader is believed to get a positive normative commitment from the followers.

The correlation coefficient $r = 0.45$ is categorized as the moderate relationship which is ranged from ± 0.41 to ± 0.70 in Table 4.11. As shown in Table 4.13, the p-value of democratic is 0.0001 which is less than the alpha value 0.05. Therefore, H_{21} is accepted and there is a significant positive relationship between democratic leadership style and normative commitment.

Hypothesis Testing 3

H₃₀: There is no relationship between democratic leadership styles and employee's continuance commitment.

H₃₁: There is a relationship between democratic leadership styles and employee's continuance commitment.

Table 4.14: Correlation between Democratic Leadership and Continuance Commitment

		Demo	CC
Demo	Pearson Correlation	1.00	0.59
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000
CC	Pearson Correlation	0.59	1.00

	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	
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*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

*N=384

Source: Developed for the research

From the results shown in Table 4.14, democratic leadership has $r = 0.59$ correlation with the continuance commitment of employees, thus there is a positive correlation between the two variables. This means that if a leader practices democratic leadership style, the leader is believed to get a positive continuance commitment from the followers.

The correlation coefficient $r = 0.59$ is categorized as the moderate relationship which is ranged from ± 0.41 to ± 0.70 in Table 4.11. As shown in Table 4.14, the p-value of democratic is 0.0001 which is less than the alpha value 0.05. Therefore, H3₁ is accepted and there is a significant positive relationship between democratic leadership style and continuance commitment.

Hypothesis Testing 4

H4₀: There is no relationship between autocratic leadership styles and employee's affective commitment.

H4₁: There is a relationship between autocratic leadership styles and employee's affective commitment.

Table 4.15: Correlation between Autocratic Leadership and Affective Commitment

		Auto	AC
Auto	Pearson Correlation	1.00	-0.44
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000

AC	Pearson Correlation	-0.44	1.00
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

*N=384

Source: Developed for the research

From the results shown in Table 4.15, autocratic leadership has $r = -0.44$ correlation with the affective commitment of employees, thus there is a negative correlation between the two variables. This means that if a leader practices autocratic leadership style, the leader is believed to get a negative affective commitment from the followers.

The correlation coefficient $r = -0.44$ is categorized as the moderate relationship which is ranged from ± 0.41 to ± 0.70 in Table 4.11. As shown in Table 4.15, the p-value of autocratic is 0.0001 which is less than the alpha value 0.05. Therefore, H_{41} is accepted and there is a significant negative relationship between autocratic leadership style and affective commitment.

Hypothesis Testing 5

H5₀: There is no relationship between autocratic leadership styles and employee's normative commitment.

H5₁: There is a relationship between autocratic leadership styles and employee's normative commitment.

Table 4.16: Correlation between Autocratic Leadership and Normative Commitment

		Auto	NC
--	--	------	----

Auto	Pearson Correlation	1.00	-0.19
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000
NC	Pearson Correlation	-0.19	1.00
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

*N=384

Source: Developed for the research

From the results shown in Table 4.16, autocratic leadership has $r = -0.19$ correlation with the normative commitment of employees, thus there is a negative correlation between the two variables. This means that if a leader practices autocratic leadership style, the leader is believed to get a negative normative commitment from the followers.

The correlation coefficient $r = -0.19$ is categorized as the slight and almost negligible relationship which is ranged from 0.00 to ± 0.20 in Table 4.11. As shown in Table 4.16, the p-value of autocratic is 0.0002 which is less than the alpha value 0.05. Therefore, H_{51} is accepted and there is a significant negative relationship between autocratic leadership style and normative commitment.

Hypothesis Testing 6

H_{60} : There is no relationship between autocratic leadership styles and employee's continuance commitment.

H_{61} : There is a relationship between autocratic leadership styles and employee's continuance commitment.

Table 4.17: Correlation between Autocratic Leadership and Continuance Commitment

		Auto	CC
Auto	Pearson Correlation	1.00	0.21
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000
CC	Pearson Correlation	0.21	1.00
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

*N=384

Source: Developed for the research

From the results shown in Table 4.17, autocratic leadership has $r = 0.21$ correlation with the continuance commitment of employees, thus there is a positive correlation between the two variables. This means that if a leader practices autocratic leadership style, the leader is believed to get a positive continuance commitment from the followers.

The correlation coefficient $r = 0.21$ is categorized as the small but definite relationship which is ranged from ± 0.21 to ± 0.40 in Table 4.11. As shown in Table 4.17, the p-value of autocratic is 0.0001 which is less than the alpha value 0.05. Therefore, H_{61} is accepted and there is a significant positive relationship between autocratic leadership style and continuance commitment.

Hypothesis Testing 7

H7₀: There is no relationship between laissez-faire leadership styles and employee's affective commitment.

H7₁: There is a relationship between laissez-faire leadership styles and employee's affective commitment.

Table 4.18: Correlation between Laissez-Faire Leadership and Affective Commitment

		LF	AC
LF	Pearson Correlation	1.00	0.42
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000
AC	Pearson Correlation	0.42	1.00
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

*N=384

Source: Developed for the research

From the results shown in Table 4.18, laissez-faire leadership has $r = 0.42$ correlation with the affective commitment of employees, thus there is a positive correlation between the two variables. This means that if a leader practices laissez-faire leadership style, the leader is believed to get a positive affective commitment from the followers.

The correlation coefficient $r = 0.42$ is categorized as the moderate relationship which is ranged from ± 0.41 to ± 0.70 in Table 4.11. As shown in Table 4.18, the p-value of laissez-faire is 0.0001 which is less than the alpha value 0.05. Therefore, H7₁ is accepted and there is a significant positive relationship between laissez-faire leadership style and affective commitment.

Hypothesis Testing 8

H8₀: There is no relationship between laissez-faire leadership styles and employee's normative commitment.

H8₁: There is a relationship between laissez-faire leadership styles and employee's normative commitment.

Table 4.19: Correlation between Laissez-Faire Leadership and Normative Commitment

		LF	NC
LF	Pearson Correlation	1.00	0.80
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000
NC	Pearson Correlation	0.80	1.00
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

*N=384

Source: Developed for the research

From the results shown in Table 4.19, laissez-faire leadership has $r = 0.80$ correlation with the normative commitment of employees, thus there is a positive correlation between the two variables. This means that if a leader practices laissez-faire leadership style, the leader is believed to get a positive normative commitment from the followers.

The correlation coefficient $r = 0.80$ is categorized as the high relationship which is ranged from ± 0.71 to ± 0.90 in Table 4.11. As shown in Table 4.19, the p-value of laissez-faire is 0.0001 which is less than the alpha value 0.05. Therefore, H8₁ is accepted and there is a significant positive relationship between laissez-faire leadership style and normative commitment.

Hypothesis Testing 9

H₀: There is no relationship between laissez-faire leadership styles and employee's continuance commitment.

H₁: There is a relationship between laissez-faire leadership styles and employee's continuance commitment.

Table 4.20: Correlation between Laissez-Faire Leadership and Continuance Commitment

		LF	CC
LF	Pearson Correlation	1.00	0.63
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000
CC	Pearson Correlation	0.63	1.00
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

*N=384

Source: Developed for the research

From the results shown in Table 4.20, laissez-faire leadership has $r = 0.63$ correlation with the continuance commitment of employees, thus there is a positive correlation between the two variables. This means that if a leader practices laissez-faire leadership style, the leader is believed to get a positive continuance commitment from the followers.

The correlation coefficient $r = 0.63$ is categorized as moderate relationship which is ranged from ± 0.41 to ± 0.70 in Table 4.11. As shown in Table 4.20, the p-value of laissez-faire is 0.0001 which is less than the alpha value 0.05. Therefore, H₁ is accepted and there is a significant positive relationship between laissez-faire leadership style and continuance commitment.

4.4.2 Multiple Regression Analysis

Multiple regression analysis is used to test the impact of independent variables (democratic leadership style, autocratic leadership style and laissez-faire leadership style) on a single dependent variable (affective commitment, normative commitment or continuance commitment). Regression tests the deviation about the means, and all variables must be at least interval scaled. Multiple regression analysis is chosen as it helps to predict the linear relationship of a dependent variable and one or more independent variables.

Model 1: The Multiple Regression Analysis Result of Leadership Styles on Affective Commitment

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.660	0.435	0.430	0.213

Predictors: (Constant), Demo, Auto, LF

Dependent Variables: AC

Source: Developed from the research

As shown in Model 1, the R value represents the correlation coefficient between dependent variable (affective commitment) and the independent variables (democratic leadership style, autocratic leadership style and laissez-faire leadership style) that taken together. The R value is 0.66; therefore there is a positive and moderate correlation between the dependent variable and the three independent variables taken together.

Whereas, the R square from the Model 1 is 0.435 which means that the independent variables (democratic leadership style, autocratic leadership style and laissez-faire leadership style) can explain 43.5% of the variations in the dependent variable (affective commitment). However, there are 56.5% of the variance remain unexplained in this study.

Table 4.21: Coefficients of Leadership Styles and Affective Commitment

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Beta	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error			
1 (Constant)	1.788	0.213	0	8.40	0.0001
Democratic Leadership Style	0.354	0.042	0.324	8.37	0.0001
Autocratic Leadership Style	-0.443	0.042	-0.407	-10.45	0.0001
Laissez-Faire Leadership Style	0.429	0.049	0.343	0.049	0.0001

Dependent variable: Affective Commitment

Source: Develop from the research

As shown in the Table 4.21, the p-value of independent variable (democratic leadership style $p=0.0001$, autocratic leadership style $p=0.0001$, laissez-faire leadership style $p=0.0001$) is lower than alpha value 0.05. Therefore, the independent variables are significant to predict the variation in dependent variable (affective commitment).

A multiple regression equation was formulated from the Beta value under unstandardized coefficients in the Table 4.21 which is shown as below:

$$\text{Affective Commitment} = 1.788 + 0.354 (\text{democratic leadership style}) - 0.443 (\text{autocratic leadership style}) + 0.429 (\text{laissez-faire leadership style}) + \epsilon$$

From the Table 4.21, autocratic leadership style is the predictor variable that contributes the highest to the variation of the dependent variable (affective commitment) because Beta value for this predictor variable is the highest (-0.4071) if compare to other predictor variables (democratic leadership style and laissez-faire leadership style). This means that autocratic leadership style make the strongest unique contribution to explain the variation in dependent variable (affective commitment), when the variance explained by all other predictor variables in the model is controlled for.

Whereas, the second highest contributor to the variation of the dependent variable is laissez-faire leadership style in which the Beta value is 0.3430. Lastly, the least contributor to the variation of the dependent variable is democratic leadership style in which Beta value is 0.3244.

Model 2: The Multiple Regression Analysis Result of Leadership Styles on Normative Commitment

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
2	0.892	0.795	0.793	0.097

Predictors: (Constant), Demo, Auto, LF

Dependent Variables: NC

Source: Developed from the research

As shown in Model 2, the R value represents the correlation coefficient between dependent variable (normative commitment) and the independent variables (democratic leadership style, autocratic leadership style and laissez-faire leadership style) that taken together. The R value is 0.89; therefore there is a positive and high correlation between the dependent variable and the three independent variables taken together.

Whereas, the R square from the Model 2 is 0.795 which means that the independent variables (democratic leadership style, autocratic leadership style and laissez-faire leadership style) can explain 79.5% of the variations in the dependent variable (normative commitment). However, there are 20.5% of the variance remain unexplained in this study.

Table 4.22: Coefficients of Leadership Styles and Normative Commitment

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Beta	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error			
2 (Constant)	0.952	0.097	0	9.79	0.0001
Democratic Leadership Style	0.322	0.019	0.388	16.64	0.0001
Autocratic Leadership Style	-0.084	0.019	-0.102	-4.33	0.0001
Laissez-Faire Leadership Style	0.715	0.022	0.754	32.07	0.0001

Dependent variable: Normative Commitment

Source: Develop from the research

As shown in the Table 4.22, the p-value of independent variable (democratic leadership style $p=0.0001$, autocratic leadership style $p=0.0001$, laissez-faire leadership style $p=0.0001$) is lower than alpha value 0.05. Therefore, the independent variables are significant to predict the variation in dependent variable (normative commitment).

A multiple regression equation was formulated from the Beta value under unstandardized coefficients in the Table 4.22 which is shown as below:

$$\text{Normative Commitment} = 0.952 + 0.322 (\text{democratic leadership style}) - 0.084 (\text{autocratic leadership style}) + 0.715 (\text{laissez-faire leadership style}) + \epsilon$$

From the Table 4.22, laissez-faire leadership style is the predictor variable that contributes the highest to the variation of the dependent variable (normative commitment) because the standardized Beta value for this predictor variable is the highest 0.754) if compare to other predictor variables (democratic leadership style and autocratic leadership style). This means that laissez-faire leadership style make the strongest unique contribution to explain the variation in dependent variable (normative commitment), when the variance explained by all other predictor variables in the model is controlled for.

Whereas, the second highest contributor to the variation of the dependent variable is democratic leadership style in which the standardized Beta value is 0.388. Lastly, the least contributor to the variation of the dependent variable is autocratic leadership style in which standardized Beta value is -0.102.

Model 3: The Multiple Regression Analysis Result of Leadership Styles on Continuance Commitment

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
3	0.868	0.753	0.751	0.089

Predictors: (Constant), Demo, Auto, LF

Dependent Variables: CC

Source: Developed from the research

As shown in Model 3, the R value represents the correlation coefficient between dependent variable (continuance commitment) and the independent variables (democratic leadership style, autocratic leadership style and laissez-faire leadership style) that taken together. The R value is 0.87; therefore there is a positive and high correlation between the dependent variable and the three independent variables taken together.

Whereas, the R square from the Model 3 is 0.753 which means that the independent variables (democratic leadership style, autocratic leadership style and laissez-faire leadership style) can explain 75.3% of the variations in the dependent variable (continuance commitment). However, there are 24.7% of the variance remain unexplained in this study.

Table 4.23: Coefficients of Leadership Styles and Continuance Commitment

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Beta	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error			

3 (Constant)	0.813	0.089	0	9.17	0.0001
Democratic Leadership Style	0.364	0.018	0.528	20.62	0.0001
Autocratic Leadership Style	0.187	0.018	0.273	10.61	0.0001
Laissez-Faire Leadership Style	0.488	0.020	0.619	23.99	0.0001

Dependent variable: Continuance Commitment

Source: Develop from the research

As shown in the Table 4.23, the p-value of independent variable (democratic leadership style p=0.0001, autocratic leadership style p=0.0001, laissez-faire leadership style p=0.0001) is lower than alpha value 0.05. Therefore, the independent variables are significant to predict the variation in dependent variable (continuance commitment).

A multiple regression equation was formulated from the Beta value under unstandardized coefficients in the Table 4.23 which is shown as below:

$$\text{Normative Commitment} = 0.813 + 0.364 (\text{democratic leadership style}) - 0.187 (\text{autocratic leadership style}) + 0.488 (\text{laissez-faire leadership style}) + \epsilon$$

From the Table 4.23, laissez-faire leadership style is the predictor variable that contributes the highest to the variation of the dependent variable (continuance commitment) because standardized Beta value for this predictor variable is the highest 0.6187) if compare to other predictor variables (democratic leadership style and autocratic leadership style). This means that laissez-faire leadership

style make the strongest unique contribution to explain the variation in dependent variable (continuance commitment), when the variance explained by all other predictor variables in the model is controlled for.

Whereas, the second highest contributor to the variation of the dependent variable is democratic leadership style in which the standardized Beta value is 0.528. Lastly, the least contributor to the variation of the dependent variable is autocratic leadership style in which Beta value is 0.273.

4.5 Conclusion

In chapter 4, we had done a series of analysis on the data which including reliability, descriptive and inferential analysis. Hypothesis testing was carried out as well. Now, we will proceed to discussion and conclusion of the study in chapter 5 which is the last chapter in this study.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSION

5.0 Introduction

This chapter emphasizes on the discussion and interpretation of the research results. Firstly, the entire descriptive and inferential analyses are summarized. Besides, this chapter provides an interpretation of data that generated from the major findings and make a discussion on the implications of the study. Next, this chapter also discussed the limitations of the study and provided some recommendations as well. Lastly, a conclusion is drawn for the entire research project.

5.1 Summary of Statistical Analysis

5.1.1 Descriptive Analysis

From the result in Chapter 4, the respondent's demographic shows that there are 42% of Male respondents and 58% of Female respondents. The majority of the respondents fall under the age group 25 to 29 years old (35.16%), followed by the age group of 30-34 years old (34.38%), below 25 (16.66%), and the age group of 35 years old and above (13.80%). The respondents' race includes 52% of Chinese, 34% of Malay, 14% of Indian, and 0% of others. There are 100% of respondents are Malaysian. Most of the respondents are single which covered 52% of the total respondents and married respondents have a total of 48% among the respondents. For the years of working in organization, the majority of the respondents' years of working in

organization are between 3 to 8 years (56%), followed by the years below 3 (28%). Whereas, the percentage of the respondents who have been working in the organization for 9 years and above have a total of 16%. For the respondents' location allocation, there are 41% of the respondents from Perak, 39% respondents from Johor and 20% respondents from Penang.

5.2 Discussions of Major Findings

5.2.1 The Relationship between Leadership Styles and Employee Commitment

In Chapter 4, we had evaluated the relationship between the three leadership styles (democratic leadership, autocratic leadership and laissez-faire leadership) and the three types of employee commitment (affective commitment, normative commitment and continuance commitment).

Based on the results, the democratic leadership styles have the highest correlation with the continuance commitment, which has a Pearson correlation coefficient value of 0.59. This result implies that the democratic leadership style has a moderate positive relationship with the continuance commitment. Whereas, the commitment type with the second highest correlation with the democratic leadership is the normative commitment, which has a value of 0.45. This indicates that there is a moderate positive relationship between the democratic leadership and normative commitment. The employee commitment with a weakest relationship with the democratic relationship is the affective commitment, with a Pearson correlation coefficient value of 0.34, which indicates a small but definite relationship between them.

For the autocratic leadership style, affective commitment has the strongest correlation with it, in which has a correlation coefficient value of -0.44, meaning that their relationship is a moderately negative relationship. The second highest commitment which is correlated with the autocratic leadership is the continuance commitment, which has a positive correlation of 0.21. The employee commitment with a weakest relationship with the autocratic relationship is the normative commitment, with a Pearson correlation coefficient value of -0.19, which indicates a slightly negative relationship between them.

For the laissez-faire leadership style, normative commitment has the strongest correlation with it, in which has a correlation coefficient value of 0.80, meaning that their relationship is a highly positive relationship. The second highest commitment which is correlated with the autocratic leadership is the continuance commitment, which has a moderately positive correlation of 0.63. The employee commitment with a weakest relationship with the laissez-faire relationship is the affective commitment, with a Pearson correlation coefficient value of 0.42, which indicates a moderately positive relationship between them.

5.2.2 The Impact of Democratic Leadership Style on Employee Commitment

The research performed by Lewin, Lippit, and White (1939) concluded that democratic styles created better working environments and an increase in production. Furthermore, the results of a meta-analysis conducted by Eby (1999) suggest that intrinsic motivation mediates the link between the

democratic leadership behavior of supervisors and the organizational commitment of employees.

From the results shown in Chapter 4, democratic leadership has the highest impact on the variation of continuance commitment, which has a standardized Beta of 0.528. Since the standardized Beta has a positive value, it indicates that when the leader performs democratic leadership style, there will be a positive impact toward continuance commitment. Our result is supported by some of the past researchers. According to Tseng and Kang (2008), democratic leader is significantly and positively related to continuance commitment. It can be showed that democratic leadership is a very crucial factor of enhancing the employee commitment. Employee's continuance commitment can be influence by the behavior of the democratic leadership style. Similarly, the study of Marmaya (2008) also found that democratic leadership was significantly related to the employee's continuance commitment. This suggests that the leader with democratic style will positively related to employee's continuance commitment through building trust and empathizing on development with employee (Garg & Ramjee, 2013).

The commitment which influenced the second most by the democratic leadership style is the normative commitment, which has a standardized Beta of 0.388. Since standardized Beta has a positive value, it indicates that when a leader performs democratic leadership style, there will be a positive impact towards the employee's normative commitment. There are some past research done by other researchers supported the positive relationship between democratic leadership style and normative commitment. An examination of the specific leadership behaviors by Simon (1994) revealed that, as a group, the democratic leadership behaviors were positively correlated with normative commitment. Individuals that value loyalty will show greater normative

commitment to the work organizations (Scholl, 1981). Moreover, theorists and practitioners in China have begun to see democratic leadership as an effective way to secure normative commitment and loyalty (Scott, 2003; Tsui, 2004), and that managers in state-owned enterprises have been encouraged to adopt democratic leadership (Chen, 2002; Wang, 1994; Wong, 2001).

The least commitment which influenced by the democratic leadership is the affective commitment, with a standardized Beta of 0.324. Since standardized Beta has a positive value, it indicates that when the leader performs democratic leadership style, there will be a positive impact towards the affective commitment. Rafferty and Griffin (2006) did a study on distinguishing between democratic leadership and affective commitment and it is proved that there is a positive relationship between them. It is proven that affective commitment as a concept goes beyond employee satisfaction and expresses itself as discretionary effort by the employee that has beneficial consequences for the employer (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Besides, from the research done by the Corporate Leadership Council (CLC, 2004), it investigated the relationship between leadership and discretionary effort, which according to their findings, is a result of affective commitment. This is also supported by the findings of Baumrueck (2006) and Seijts and Crim (2006).

5.2.3 The Impact of Autocratic Leadership Style on Employee Commitment

Autocratic leaders tend to provide direction, tactfully, but without leaving any doubt as to what is expected or who has the authority and makes the final decisions. McNamara (2003) describes that the autocratic leader dominates

team-members and uses unilateralism to achieve a singular objective. He argues that this management style generally leads to passive resistance from team-members and may require a continuous direction from the leader. It focuses on task completion and employee compliance and relies on organizational rewards and punishments to influence employee performance (Burns, 1979). Employee commitment is built when the employees have the willingness to help leaders to achieve the goals but not through authority. Therefore, there is negative impact on employee commitment.

From the results shown in Chapter 4, autocratic leadership has the highest impact on the variation of affective commitment, which has a standardized Beta of -0.407. Since the standardized Beta has a negative value, it indicates that when the leader performs autocratic leadership style, there will be an adverse impact toward affective commitment. However, past researcher Erben and Guner (2008) argued that the autocratic leadership had a moderate positive effect on affective commitment of employees. It can be explained due to the reason that the individualized care of the benevolent leader fosters the identification of the employee with the organization and encourages the employee to emotional attachment as well as employees' evaluation about the costs associated with leaving the organization. In this framework, employees would consider the benevolent leader as an affection bond that ties him to the organization.

On the others hand, the second highest commitment which influenced by the autocratic leadership is the continuance commitment, with an standardized Beta of 0.273. Since standardized Beta has a positive value, it indicates that when the leader performs autocratic leadership style, there will be a positive impact toward continuance commitment.

There are some past researchers who support our results. According to Alqudah (2011), autocratic leadership is found more positively correlated with continuance commitment. This means that autocratic leader encourage or motivate employees through monetary rewards, clarifying their roles and by giving timely feedback. Autocratic leadership has a strong effect on continuance commitment (Erben & Guneser, 2008). They claimed that employee who work with autocratic leader will not leave the organization since they have more opportunities for promotion. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is a significant impact of autocratic leadership styles on employee's continuance commitment.

The commitment which influenced the least by the autocratic leadership style is the normative commitment, which has a standardized Beta of -0.102. Since the standardized Beta has a negative value, it indicates that when a leader performs autocratic leadership style, there will be a negative impact towards the employee's normative commitment.

Based on the past research, Hayers (2000) found that workers who fell under pressure reported autocratic supervision on the part of their leaders. The leaders rarely allowed them to participate in the decision making. It was also reported that workers who were under stress also reported harsh supervision and control on the part of their leaders (Hayers, 2000). This will causes negative impact on employee's normative commitment.

They can damage an organization irreparably as they force their followers to execute strategies and services in a very narrow way, based upon a subjective idea of what success looks like. Cooperation, commitment and achievement are stifled. There is no shared vision and little motivation beyond coercion.

Normative commitment, creativity and innovation are typically eliminated by autocratic leadership.

5.2.4 The Impact of Laissez-Faire Leadership Style on Employee Commitment

The laissez-faire leader is the one who believes in freedom of choice for the employees and leaving them alone so they can do as they want (Blanchard, 1999). According to Jermier and Berkers (1979), they revealed that employees who were allowed to make their own decision would have higher levels of commitment to the organization. According to Vugt, Jepson, Hart, and Cremer (2004), laissez-faire leader has no control mechanism on group members by giving freedom to employees is perceived as a situation in their favor. Therefore, employees support their supervisor because it creating an opportunity to voice out their original ideas and to provide a suitable working environment. Hence, the leader with laissez-faire leadership style will more likely to have a positively impact on employee's organizational commitment. From the results shown in Chapter 4, laissez-faire leadership has the highest impact on the variation of normative commitment, which has a standardized Beta of 0.754. Since the standardized Beta has a positive value, it indicates that when the leader performs autocratic leadership style, there will be a positive impact toward normative commitment. However, there are some researcher rejected this results. According to Garg and Ramjee (2013), they revealed that there is a weak but significant and negative correlation between laissez-faire leadership behavior and normative commitment. Chen, Beck, and Amos (2005) found these leadership styles created negative results and advised leaders not to use these styles. The data strongly suggest that leaders

who use laissez-faire leadership will produce weak employee commitment or negative results (Beer & Eisenstat, 2000; Chen et al., 2005).

Besides, the second highest commitment which is affected by laissez-faire leaderships is continuance commitment in which it contributes to the variation of the standardized Beta with 0.619. This indicates that when leader perform a laissez-faire leadership styles, there will be a positive impact towards the continuance commitment.

From the results, affective commitment has the least contribution to the variation of the laissez-faire leaderships with a standardized Beta of 0.343. Since the standardized Beta is a positive value, it indicates that when the leader performs a laissez-faire leadership styles, there will be a positive impact towards the affective commitment. Some of the past researchers have supported our results. The groups under laissez-faire leadership were less well organized, less efficient, and less satisfying to members than under democratic conditions (Frischer, 2006). Mathieu and Zajac (1990) have determined that perceived competence and affective commitment has a strong link. They argued that competent people are able to choose higher quality organizations, which in turn inspire affective commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). If an employee perceived that the organization is unable to provide him a competent environment, he may leave. Meyer and Allen (1997) also suggest that uncommitted employees leave an organization and only those with a high commitment remain. Prior evidence indicates that laissez-faire leadership is less beneficial to employee affective commitment (Bass, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1993).

5.2.5 The Discussions of Employee Commitment in Retail Industry

Studies have shown that the affective commitment is a vital component in determining the employee loyalty. It is also the most important factor in explaining organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Employees with a strong affective commitment tend to remain in their organization merely because they want to (Meyer & Allen, 1991). According to Chaudhuri and Bowen (n.d.), the increasing turnover in today's workforce is the result of the reduced affective commitment. According to Meyer and Allen (1997), the strongest factor of "exit" plans to leave the organization was affective commitment. They also stated that the affective commitment was based on an individual wish to stay in the organization, thus the employees with a strong affective commitment will be more valuable employees than those employees who have a weak affective commitment. The positive outcomes of a higher affective commitment is includes lower levels of absenteeism, lateness, turnover intentions, and higher levels of individual performance, including extra-role and in-role performance (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Affective commitment of employees towards the organization is a valuable and intangible asset, which could generate tangible benefits in the long-term. Employees with a higher emotional attachment with the organization try hard to preserve a win-win situation because they see the firm as theirs (Chaudhuri & Bowen, n.d.).

In short, an organization tends to prefer to get an affective commitment from their employees, in order to have a better employee loyalty and a better company performance in the long run. However, based on our results in Chapter 4, most employees in the retail industry have a less affective commitment towards their organization, which only has a mean score of 3.22,

which is the lowest mean score among the three employee commitment. This indicates that comparing to other employee commitment, retail employees tend to have a lesser emotional attachment towards their organization.

Most of the employees in the retail industry feel that they have a normative commitment towards their organization (mean=3.83). This reflects that most of the employees in the retail industry tend to have a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees with a high normative commitment tend to feel that they are ought to remain in the organization. According to Wiener (1982), the normative commitment may result from the internalization of normative stresses exerted on an employee prior to entry into the organization (family or cultural orientation), or following entry (organizational orientation). These factors cause employees to feel an obligation to reciprocate by committing themselves into the organization until the debt has been repaid (Scholl, 1981).

The second highest commitment that the employees in the retail industry have towards their organization is continuance commitment with a mean of 3.74. This indicates that employees in the retail industry would consider the cost of leaving and staying with the organization, however, it is less likely to be a favorable condition for an organization if an employee has a higher continuance commitment. According to Meyer and Allen (1997), an employee who has low affective and normative commitment, but who has high continuance commitment is unlikely to increase his or her performance. This is due to the reason of such an employee remains with an organization is for the negative reason that the costs associated with leaving are too great.

Therefore, managers or human resource practitioners should focus on developing the leadership styles that will influence the most to the certain type

of employee commitment that preferred by the organization as it will affects the organizational performance in the long run.

5.3 Implications of the Study

There are some implications which the policy makers and practitioners could derive from the results of this study. Our study focuses on the impact of the leadership styles on the employee's commitment; this can provide useful information towards the leaders or managers on their leadership styles, especially those who are working in the retail industry. Our findings show that the different type of leadership styles could affect the types of commitment of employees towards the organization.

According to Mooday, Porter and Steer (1982), it is necessary for every organization to have a full level of employee commitment in order to have an outstanding performance in the long run. Higher level of employee commitment in the organization for individual projects or to the business is assumed as a major reason for better employee performance that leads to organizational success. The employee performance can also be increased when the employees are more satisfied with their job and duties as well. Besides, according to Price and Mueller (1981), where there is a high level of employee commitment, there will be low turnover and that employee will perform better with less absenteeism. Thus, in order to increase the employees' performance or even organizational success in the long run, leaders or managers should recognize the importance of employee commitment towards the organization and put more efforts in increasing the commitment of employees towards the organization. In our research, we studied one of the factors which could significantly influence the employee commitment, which is the leadership style of the leaders or managers. This can provide a useful insight for the leaders to understand whether their leadership style is positively or negatively affects the commitment of their followers.

Overall, our study provides the leaders or managers in the retail industry an insight on which leadership style should they apply in order to increase employee commitment towards the organization. Besides, our study could also serves as a reference for the future research. Throughout this study, it is endeavored to determine whether there are statistically relationship between leadership styles and employee commitment. This issue should be taken into consideration by managers. From our findings, it plays a crucial role in increasing the service quality and minimizing the problems which can occur in retail industry. The more committed an employee regard themselves, the more successful they become on the job.

Based on the results shown in this research, leadership style could be the significant factor influencing the employee commitment. This information could be useful for managers in the related field. Allen and Meyer (1991) found that these three commitments are related yet distinguishable from one another as well as from job satisfaction, job involvement and commitment. Schneider (1987) proposes that individuals are attracted to, selected by and stay with organizations when they think their personal characteristics are suited to the organization's design. This explains why individuals would like to stay within the organization.

It is important for the company to know what are the aspects that plays important role or have big impact in boosting the commitment of the employees. Swanepoel, Erasmus, Van Wyk, and Scheck (2000) highlighted that leadership styles that encourage employee commitment is essential in order for an organization to successfully implement business strategies, achieving their goals, gain competitive advantage and optimizing human capital. Pfeffer (1998) also supported this statement by stating that committed members are more motivated and dedicated in meeting and achieving organizational goals.

In Malaysia, it is a common phenomenon that employees nowadays are no more loyal as they used to be in the past (Lo, Ramayah, & Hii, 2009). Employees tend to leave their work place once they found a job with slightly better pay due to low commitment. Thus, it is important for an organization to recognize the ways to incite commitment but not only rely on utilizes its human capital and competencies (Nijhof, de Jong, & Beukhof, 1998). Hence, it is a biggest challenge for most of the Malaysian company to provoke a sense of commitment in the employees. According to Iverson and Buttigieg (1998), committed employees are less likely to engage in withdrawal behavior and more willing to accept change.

As mentioned earlier, it is important for a leader to influence its followers in order to encourage them to think creatively when solving problems and also understanding their needs (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003). Leaders who are successful in doing this by giving advices, supports and attention to the individual needs of followers will enhance the level of employee commitment (Kent & Chelladurai, 2001).

Generally, this study has shown that leadership has a significant and strong relationship with employee commitment. This is consistent with previous researches by Shamir, Zakay, and Popper (1998) and Walumbwa and Lawler (2003). If a manager could apply this leadership wisely, the employees will definitely be motivated and the level of commitment will be enhanced by showing a higher level of loyalty.

5.4 Limitations of the Study

Ghuri and Gronhaug (2010) suggest that it is very important for academic studies to define the limitations of the study. Therefore, it is important to spell here the limitations of the present study.

Firstly, the limitation of this research is that it merely focuses the impact of leadership in the context of retail industry. Leadership styles do impact on other sectors such as hotel industry, governing body, educational sector (Rehman & Shareef, 2002) and manufacturing industry. Further, the leadership behaviors that were part of this questionnaire may not have been extremely important factors in determining employees' levels of commitment. Instead, environmental factors may have been more important for these employees. Employees are usually more favored in environmental factors such as flexible work hours (Curphey, 2002), job security (McConnell, 2002) and job benefits (Yip, 2003). Some other factors such as competition, population and demographics also affect the employees' commitment which is not covered by this questionnaire.

In addition, the questionnaires were distributed to all respondents over Johor, Perak and Penang. In other words, the responses from these states might not able to represent the responses from all the employees in the retail industry from Malaysia. Besides, this approach is quite costly and requires time to reach to bigger size of respondents over the country. Besides, retail industry may require various level of approval before the questionnaire is passed to the employees to be filled for survey. Some employees are only allowed to fill in the questionnaires during lunch time. This process is taking longer time than it is expected to be completed. Hasbullah (2008) is facing the same challenge during his research when he posted his questionnaires by mail with self-envelope to all respondents.

5.5 Recommendations for Future Research

Some recommendations are provided to solve the limitations encountered in this research and improve the related research studies conducted by other researchers in the future. In this research, future researches are recommended not only focus in retail

industry but should also focusing in other industries such as hotel industry, governing body, educational sector and manufacturing industry. By doing so, the research can be conducted in a much more specific way and researchers are able to track to most significant factors that could influence employee commitment in the targeted industry. This is what researchers can look deeper in and collect relevant information before further investigation is conducted.

The second recommendation is that the future research can be done by focus on other related factors. In this research, the main factor that affects the employee commitment in retail industry is leadership styles which include democratic, autocratic, and laissez-faire leadership style. Thus, there is a limitation in this research study because the other factors that might also affect the employee commitment in the retail industry, such as environmental factors, competition, population and demographics were not covered by our study.

The sample of this research study is basically chosen from Perak, Penang and Johor state. It may not fully represent the whole Malaysia's employee commitment in retail industry. In order to reduce the bias of result and improve the reliability and accuracy of data, the third recommendation is the future researcher should distribute the questionnaire to more retail industry in other states in Malaysia but it will involve high cost. Cost and time are unavoidable in order to achieve more reliable findings. Researchers have to reach a larger sample size to achieve a high accuracy of data. However, a large sample size has to come across different states. Thus, cost and time are unavoidable in this context. So that, the data obtained from the whole nation will generate the result more accurate and comprehensive from the respondents.

5.6 Conclusion

Based on the results shown, there is a significant impact of leadership styles (autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire) on employee commitment in retail industry.

This research has achieved research objectives with results acceptance.

For the democratic leadership style, it will affect the most towards continuance commitment, followed by normative commitment and lastly affective leadership style. For autocratic leadership style, it influence negatively toward the affective commitment and normative commitment, however it has a positive impact toward continuance commitment. For laissez-faire leadership style, it influences the most on normative commitment, following by the continuance commitment and affective commitment. Using this research result, managers can determine which the leadership styles should be applied in order to get the certain commitment that they desired to have from their employees.

Despite of achieving the research objectives, there were few limitations that brought challenges throughout the study, which require further improvement in future research. However, the findings from this research can be useful for the future research especially for the managers who take into account the impact of their leadership styles. This study can also help in improving the commitment of employees and in motivating employees to accomplish their goals.

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Appendix 1.0: Questionnaire



Faculty of Business and Finance

BACHELOR OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION (HONS)

FINAL YEAR PROJECT

**The Impact of Leadership Styles towards Employee Commitment in
Retail Industry**

Survey Questionnaire

Dear respondents,

We are the undergraduate students of Bachelor of Business Administration (Hons), from Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman (UTAR). The purpose of this survey is to discover the leadership styles and its effects toward employee commitment in retail industry.

Your answers will be kept PRIVATE and CONFIDENTIAL and used solely for academic survey purpose only. Thank you for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Group Member:

Chan Sook Leng	10ABB05385	012-505 0977
Chong Li Xuan	10ABB05579	016-567 0183
Ng Kai Sin	10ABB03630	016-756 9701
Wong Kit Leng	10ABB05333	016-780 4881
Wong Wai Yan	10ABB05120	016-537 2356

Section A

Respondent's Profile

Please place a tick (√) in the box [] to represent your answer.

Sila letakkan tanda (√) di dalam kotak [] untuk mewakili jawapan anda.

1. Gender/ Jantina:

[] Male/ Lelaki [] Female/ Perempuan

2. Age/ Umur:

[] Below 25/ 25 ke bawah [] 25 – 29years/ 25- 29 tahun
[] 30 – 34 years/ 30-34 tahun [] 35 years and above/ 35 ke atas

3. Race/ Bangsa:

[] Malay/ Melayu [] Chinese/ Cina
[] Indian/ India [] Others/ Lain-lain

4. Nationality/ Kewarganegaraan:

[] Malaysian [] Non- Malaysian

5. Status:

[] Single [] Married
[] Others

6. How long have you work for the organization?

Berapa lama telah anda bekerja untuk organisasi ini?

[] Below 3 years/ 3 tahun ke bawah [] 3– 8 years/ 3-8 tahun
[] Above 9 years/ 9 tahun ke atas

7. State/ Negeri: _____

Section B

This section consists of questions related to the three leadership styles which are autocratic leadership style, democratic leadership style and laissez faire leadership style. Please respond to the following questions. Kindly place a circle on the number that best represents your opinion the most.

Bahagian ini mengandungi soalan yang berkaitan dengan tiga jenis gaya kepimpinan iaitu gaya kepimpinan autokratik, gaya kepimpinan demokratik dan gaya kepimpinan laissez faire. Sila jawab soalan-soalan berikut. Sila letakkan bulatan pada nombor yang paling tepat dan mewakili pandangan anda.

Independent Variables: Leadership Styles

No	Questions	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	My leader likes to encourage initiatives in us. Ketua saya suka menggalakkan inisiatif terhadap kami.	1	2	3	4	5
2	My leader let us do our work in the way we think best. Ketua kami membolehkan kami melakukan kerja dalam cara yang kami fikir yang terbaik.	1	2	3	4	5
3	My leader will assign us a task, and then let us handle it. Ketua saya akan menentukan tugas kepada kami, seterusnya membolehkan kami menghadapinya.	1	2	3	4	5

4	<p>My leader trusts us in exercising good judgments.</p> <p>Ketua saya mempercayai kami dalam membuat keputusan yang wajar.</p>	1	2	3	4	5
5	<p>My leader permits us to set our own ways of doing things.</p> <p>Ketua saya membolehkan kami menentukan cara kerja kami.</p>	1	2	3	4	5
6	<p>My leader is friendly and approachable.</p> <p>Ketua saya mesra and mudah didekati.</p>	1	2	3	4	5
7	<p>My leader puts suggestions made by us into actions.</p> <p>Ketua saya menempatkan cadangan kami kepada tindakan.</p>	1	2	3	4	5
8	<p>My leader treats us as his/her equal.</p> <p>Ketua saya melayani kami sesama dengannya.</p>	1	2	3	4	5
9	<p>My leader refuses to explain his/her actions.</p> <p>Ketua saya enggan menjelaskan tindakan dia.</p>	1	2	3	4	5
10	<p>My leader is reluctant to allow us any freedom of action.</p> <p>Ketua saya enggan membenarkan sebarang kebebasan dalam</p>	1	2	3	4	5

	tindakan kami.					
11	My leader encourages the use of uniform procedures. Ketua saya menggalakkan penggunaan tatacara yang seragam.	1	2	3	4	5
12	My leader decides what shall be done and how it shall be done. Ketua saya menentukan apa yang akan dilakukan dan bagaimana ia boleh dilakukan.	1	2	3	4	5
13	My leader assigns us to particular tasks. Ketua saya menugaskan kami kepada tugas-tugas tertentu.	1	2	3	4	5
14	My leader maintains definite standards of performance. Ketua saya mengekalkan standard prestasi yang tertentu.	1	2	3	4	5
15	My leader tries out his/her ideas on us. Ketua saya mencuba idea-ideanya terhadap kami.	1	2	3	4	5
16	My leader ensures that we understand our roles. Ketua saya memastikan bahawa kami memahami peranan kami.	1	2	3	4	5

17	<p>My leader gives us complete freedom in decision making and problem solving.</p> <p>Ketua saya memberikan kami kebebasan dalam membuat keputusan dan menyelesaikan masalah.</p>	1	2	3	4	5
18	<p>My leader is lacking of control directing, which he/she not explains the actions to us.</p> <p>Ketua saya kurang dalam kawalan dan pengarahan, di mana dia tidak menjelaskan tindakan kepada kami.</p>	1	2	3	4	5
19	<p>My leader avoids him/her self from goal setting and decision making.</p> <p>Ketua saya mengelakkan dirinya dari penetapan matlamat dan membuat keputusan.</p>	1	2	3	4	5
20	<p>We are completely free to set our own goals and monitor our own performance.</p> <p>Kami bebas secara sepenuhnya dalam penentuan matlamat kami dan pemantauan prestasi kami.</p>	1	2	3	4	5
21	<p>My leader delay responding to urgent questions.</p> <p>Ketua saya penangguhan dalam respons terhadap soalan-soalan yang mendesak.</p>	1	2	3	4	5

22	<p>My leader avoids him/her self from getting involved when important issues arise.</p> <p>Ketua saya mengelakkan dia sendiri daripada penglibatan dalam isu-isu penting.</p>	1	2	3	4	5
23	<p>My leader fails to interfere until problems become serious.</p> <p>Ketua saya gagal untuk campur tangan sehingga masalah menjadi serius.</p>	1	2	3	4	5
24	<p>My leader waits for things to go wrong before taking action.</p> <p>Ketua saya mengambil tindakan selepas perkara-perkara menjadi silap.</p>	1	2	3	4	5

Section C

In Section C, it consists of questions on employee commitment in retail industry. There are three types of employee commitment which includes affective, normative and continuance commitment.

Please respond to the following questions. Kindly place a circle on the number that best represents your opinion the most.

Dalam Bahagian C, ia terdiri daripada soalan-soalan mengenai komitmen pekerja dalam industri runcit. Terdapat tiga jenis komitmen pekerja yang termasuk afektif, normatif dan komitmen berterusan. Sila jawab soalan-soalan berikut. Sila letakkan bulatan pada nombor yang paling tepat dan mewakili pandangan anda.

Dependent Variable: Employees Commitment

No	Questions	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization. Saya berasa semangat kepunyaan dengan organisasi saya.	1	2	3	4	5
2	I feel personally attached to my organization. Saya berasa secara peribadi melekat dengan organisasi saya.	1	2	3	4	5
3	I am proud to tell others that I work at my organization. Saya berasa bangga untuk memberitahu orang lain bahawa saya bekerja di organisasi saya.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Working at my organization has a great deal of personal	1	2	3	4	5

	<p>meaning to me.</p> <p>Bekerja di organisasi saya mempunyai banyak makna pribadi kepada saya.</p>					
5	<p>I would be happy to work at my organization until I retire.</p> <p>Saya akan berasa gembira untuk bekerja di organisasi saya sehingga saya bersara.</p>	1	2	3	4	5
6	<p>I believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organization.</p> <p>Saya percaya bahawa seseorang mesti sentiasa setia kepada organisasinya.</p>	1	2	3	4	5
7	<p>Jumping from organization to organization does not seem at ethical to me.</p> <p>Melompat dari organisasi ke organisasi lain tidak kelihatan beretika kepada saya.</p>	1	2	3	4	5

8	<p>One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that I believe that loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain.</p> <p>Salah satu sebab utama saya terus bekerja untuk organisasi ini ialah saya percaya bahawa kesetiaan adalah penting dan merasa kewajiban moral untuk megekak dengan organisasi.</p>	1	2	3	4	5
9	<p>If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere, I would not feel it is right to leave my organization.</p> <p>Jika saya mendapat satu lagi tawaran kerja yang lebih baik di tempat lain, saya tidak akan berasa ia adalah wajar untuk meninggalkan organisasi.</p>	1	2	3	4	5
10	<p>I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization.</p> <p>Saya telah dididik untuk percaya kepada nilai setia kepada satu organisasi.</p>	1	2	3	4	5
11	<p>I am afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.</p>	1	2	3	4	5

	Saya takut apa yang mungkin berlaku jika saya berhenti kerja tanpa kerja lain yang boleh ditukarkan.					
12	<p>It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.</p> <p>Ia akan menjadi sangat sukar bagi saya untuk meninggalkan organisasi saya sekarang, walaupun saya ingin.</p>	1	2	3	4	5
13	<p>Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.</p> <p>Kehidupan saya akan terganggu jika saya membuat keputusan untuk meninggalkan organisasi sekarang.</p>	1	2	3	4	5
14	<p>Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity rather than desire.</p> <p>Sekarang, kekal dengan organisasi saya adalah satu perkara keperluan lebih daripada keinginan.</p>	1	2	3	4	5
15	One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice — another organization may not match	1	2	3	4	5

<p>the overall benefits I have with the current organization</p> <p>Salah satu sebab utama saya terus bekerja untuk organisasi ini adalah bahawa peninggalan organisasi ini memerlukan pengorbanan peribadi yang besar – manfaat dengan organisasi lain mungkin tidak sesuai dengan keseluruhan manfaat yang saya mempunyai dengan organisasi sekarang.</p>					
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---END OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE---

TAMAT

Thank you so much for your kind assistance and time.

Have a nice day!

Terima kasih!

Appendix 1.1: Reliability Results

Democratic Leadership Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha based on Standardized Items	N of Items
0.8947	0.8940	8

Autocratic Leadership Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha based on Standardized Items	N of Items
0.8936	0.8933	8

Laissez-Faire Leadership Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha based on Standardized Items	N of Items
0.8555	0.8563	8

Affective Commitment Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha based on Standardized Items	N of Items
0.8602	0.8635	5

Normative Commitment Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha based on Standardized Items	N of Items
0.8433	0.8724	5

Continuance Commitment Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha based on Standardized Items	N of Items
0.7515	0.6983	5

Appendix 1.2: Pearson Correlation Coefficient Results

Pearson Correlation Coefficients						
	Demo	Auto	LF	AC	NC	CC
Demo	1.000	0.0330	0.0811	0.3387	0.4460	0.5866
Sig. (2-tailed)				<.0001	<.0001	<.0001
N	384	384	384	384	384	384
Auto	0.0330	1.000	-0.1319	-0.4416	-0.1881	0.2087
Sig. (2-tailed)				<.0001	0.0002	<.0001
N	384	384	384	384	384	384
LF	0.0811	-0.1319	1.000	0.4229	0.7991	0.6255
Sig. (2-tailed)				<.0001	<.0001	<.0001
N	384	384	384	384	384	384
AC	0.3387	-0.4416	0.4229	1.000	0.7091	0.0760
Sig. (2-tailed)	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001			
N	384	384	384	384	384	384
NC	0.4460	-0.1881	0.7991	0.7091	1.000	0.6370
Sig. (2-tailed)	<.0001	0.0002	<.0001			
N	384	384	384	384	384	384
CC	0.5866	0.2087	0.6255	0.0760	0.6370	1.000
Sig. (2-tailed)	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001			
N	384	384	384	384	384	384

Appendix 1.3: Multiple Regressions

Multiple Regression Results of Leadership Styles and Affective Commitment

Analysis of Variance					
Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr>F
Model	3	152.453	50.818	97.39	<.0001
Error	380	198.277	0.522		
Corrected Total	383	350.729			

Root MSE	0.7223
Dependent Mean	3.2198
Coeff. Var	22.435
R-Square	0.4347
Adj. R-Sq	0.4302

Parameter Estimates						
Variable	Label	DF	Parameter Estimate	Standard Error	t Value	Pr> t
Intercept	Intercept	1	1.78834	0.21298	8.40	<.0001
Demo	Demo, 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree,	1	0.35443	0.04233	8.37	<.0001

	3=Neutral, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly Agree, 99=Missing Data					
Auto	Auto, 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly Agree, 99=Missing Data	1	-0.44255	0.04234	-10.45	<.0001
LF	LF, 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly Agree, 99=Missing Data	1	0.42875	0.04883	8.78	<.0001

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error		
1 (Constant)	1.788	0.213	8.40	0.0001
Democratic Leadership Style	0.354	0.042	8.37	0.0001
Democratic Leadership Style	-0.443	0.042	-10.45	0.0001
Laissez-Faire Leadership Style	0.429	0.049	0.049	0.0001

Multiple Regression Results of Leadership Styles and Normative Commitment

Analysis of Variance					
Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr>F
Model	3	160.328	53.443	491.11	<.0001
Error	380	41.352	0.1088		
Corrected Total	383	201.680			

Root MSE	0.3299
Dependent Mean	3.8339
Coeff. Var	8.6044
R-Square	0.7950
Adj. R-Sq	0.7933

Parameter Estimates						
Variable	Label	DF	Parameter Estimate	Standard Error	t Value	Pr> t
Intercept	Intercept	1	0.9522	0.0973	9.79	<.0001
Demo	Demo, 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly Agree, 99=Missing Data	1	0.35443	0.0193	16.64	<.0001

Auto	Auto, 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly Agree, 99=Missing Data	1	-0.0837	0.0193	-4.33	<.0001
LF	LF, 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly Agree, 99=Missing Data	1	0.7151	0.0223	32.07	<.0001

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error		
2 (Constant)	0.952	0.097	9.79	0.0001
Democratic Leadership Style	0.322	0.019	16.64	0.0001
Democratic Leadership Style	-0.084	0.019	-4.33	0.0001
Laissez-Faire Leadership Style	0.715	0.022	32.07	0.0001

Multiple Regression Results of Leadership Styles and Continuance Commitment

Analysis of Variance					
Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr>F
Model	3	105.105	35.035	386.96	<.0001
Error	380	34.405	0.0905		
Corrected Total	383	139.510			

Root MSE	0.3009
Dependent Mean	3.7412
Coeff. Var	8.0429
R-Square	0.7534
Adj. R-Sq	0.7514

Parameter Estimates						
Variable	Label	DF	Parameter Estimate	Standard Error	t Value	Pr> t
Intercept	Intercept	1	0.8134	0.0887	9.17	<.0001
Demo	Demo, 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly Agree, 99=Missing Data	1	0.3635	0.0177	20.62	<.0001

Auto	Auto, 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly Agree, 99=Missing Data	1	0.1871	0.0176	10.61	<.0001
LF	LF, 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly Agree, 99=Missing Data	1	0.4879	0.0203	23.99	<.0001

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error		
3 (Constant)	0.813	0.089	9.17	0.0001
Democratic Leadership Style	0.364	0.018	20.62	0.0001
Democratic Leadership Style	0.187	0.018	10.61	0.0001
Laissez-Faire Leadership Style	0.488	0.020	23.99	0.0001